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RETAIL SECURITY GUARDS'
EXPERIENCES OF, AND REACTIONS TO,
WORKPLACE VIOLENCE

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Abstract

Retail security guards (RSGs) are at particular risk of being assaulted at work. Even though incidents of workplace violence (WV) and the security industry are growing, little is known about how RSGs experience and react to assault. Consequently, this qualitatively-driven mixed-method research focuses on what the experience of WV and organisational support networks means for RSGs' emotional well-being, on RSGs' reactions to support and on how RSGs avoid future victimisation. To gain further insights into these phenomena, 488 questionnaires and 20 interviews were completed with a sample of contracted RSGs.

Firstly, cognitive appraisal theory shows that differences in RSGs' appraisals of both violent acts and a number of contextual factors contribute to the differences in RSGs' emotional reactions to WV events. Secondly, drawing on elements of social exchange theory and organisational support theory reveals that the support source and the support action have a significant impact on RSGs' emotional well-being and on the levels of loyalty and work motivation they feel towards the security company and the retail client. Thirdly, by applying the concept of functional and dysfunctional worry of crime, it is shown that different forms of worry can simultaneously facilitate and inhibit RSGs' decisions to make use of proactive and inactive self-protection measures.

Finally, this study uncovers that providing RSGs with appropriate support networks enhances their emotional well-being and their organisational commitment, whereas an absence of networks increases their desire to leave their jobs. It reveals that the provision of equipment, training and manpower increase RSGs' feelings of safety which helps to decrease their need for undesirable self-protection measures. Ultimately, exploring RSGs' emotional responses to WV and organisational support produced valuable insights into their occupational and behavioural reactions. This in turn might help to reduce WV-related turnover rates within the industry, improve training for RSGs and promote their protection.

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List of Abbreviations

AM	–	Area Manager
BRC	–	British Retail Consortium
BSIA	–	British Security Industry Association
CAT	–	Cognitive Appraisal Theory
CBT	–	Cognitive-Behavioural Therapy
CCTV	–	Closed-Circuit Television (Camera)
CF	–	Contextual Factor
CFDWC	–	Concept of Functional and Dysfunctional Worry of Crime
CJS	–	Criminal Justice System
DSM-5	–	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Edition 5
HR	–	Human Resources
HSE	–	Health and Safety Executive
NFRN	–	Federation of Independent Retailers
NHS	–	National Health Service
NTE	–	Night-Time Economy
OES	–	Organisational Emotional Support
OSHA	–	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
OST	–	Organisational Support Theory
POS	–	Perceived Organisational Support
PPE	–	Personal Protection Equipment
PTSD	–	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
RSG	–	Retail Security Guard
SET	–	Social Exchange Theory
SG	–	Security Guard
SHRM	–	Society for Human Resource Management
SIA	–	Security Industry Authority
SM	–	Store Manager
SPM	–	Self-Protection Measure
UK	–	United Kingdom
WV	–	Workplace Violence

Chapter 1

Introduction

In Britain today, there are now over twice as many private security workers as there are police officers. Under the current government, which was elected in 2015, police officer numbers have fallen by 22,000 across the UK (Little, 2017) and senior officers warn that thousands of further police jobs could be lost by 2020 (BBC, 2015). In stark contrast to the police force, the private security industry is steadily growing and considered to be one of the world's fastest growing occupational branches (Terpstra, 2016; Cihan, 2016; Santonen and Paasonen, 2015; Purpura, 2013) indicating that private security firms are filling the gap (BBC, 2015). Parallel to the growth of the private security industry, the threat of workplace violence (WV) is constantly increasing (Hosseiniakia, Zarei, Kalyani and Tahamtan, 2018; Stephenson-Laws, 2018). This type of crime constitutes a severe national and international concern for employees in a variety of occupations but particularly for those working in the retail sector (BRC, 2016; Smith, Gillespie and Beery, 2015) and in protective service occupations such as the security guard (SG) (Health and Safety Executive, 2015; Wiatrowski, 2012; Public Service International, 2013; Calnan, Kelloway and Dupre, 2012). As the objective of retail security guards (RSGs) is to protect customers, stock and staff in the retail sector, it is argued that retail security is one of the most dangerous types of security work. However, even though both the private security industry as well as WV are on the rise (Nalla, Paek and Lim, 2016; Löfstrand, Loftus and Loader, 2016; Nalla and Cobbina, 2016), this industry – and retail security in particular – has been widely overlooked by WV researchers (Schindeler, 2014; Leino, Selin, Summala and Virtanen, 2011; Cobbina, Nalla and Bender, 2016; Porter, Bearn and Percy, 2015). The reality that the security industry suffers from considerably high turnover rates (Nalla and Cobbina, 2016) suggests that there are certain factors which drive SGs out of their jobs. Indeed, factors such as long working hours or low pay were identified in contributing to SGs' decision to leave the industry (Button, 2007; Hainmüller and Lemnitzer, 2003), but very little is known about RSGs' emotional and

occupational reactions to WV victimisation (Porter et al., 2015) and to inadequate organisational support networks. Therefore, understanding RSGs' reactions appears not only essential in improving the effectiveness of support networks and RSGs' emotional well-being but also in potentially reducing turnover costs (e.g. recruitment costs) faced by retail security companies. In contrast to this, the limited research evidence that exists indicates that some RSGs take a more active approach and arm themselves with legal tools in order to reduce the risk of WV victimisation (Button, 2007). However, the full extent of RSGs' usage of self-protection measures is nebulous and nothing is known about their motivations to take such measures. Understanding RSGs' behavioural reactions to WV victimisation seems necessary to identify shortcomings in security staff training and to improve their protection. Therefore, if the private security industry continues growing at its current rate and if WV figures increase further, it will be important to be prepared by having effective support networks and proven training to hand. It is reasons such as these which contribute to the growing demand for further research on SGs in respect of WV victimisation (De Puy, Romain-Glassey, Gut, Pascal, Mangin and Danuser, 2015; Porter et al., 2015; Leino, 2013; Vanheule, Declercq, Meganck and Desment, 2008; De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli, 2002). This thesis takes on this task by qualitatively and quantitatively investigating SGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV with a focus on contracted retail security guards (RSGs) by exploring the following two main research questions:

- (1) How do RSGs experience WV, and
- (2) What does the experience of WV mean for RSGs' self-protection behaviour?

In that context, this study aims to provide an answer to the following three sub-research questions:

- (1) To what extent do cognitive appraisals shape the development of emotional responses in victimised RSGs,
- (2) How do RSGs who are in need of organisational emotional support (OES) experience (a lack of) support and what does this experience mean for their organisational commitment, and
- (3) How does worry attributable to WV incidents shape the development of functional and dysfunctional security responses in RSGs?

In order to answer these research questions this thesis aims:

- (1) to investigate the role of contextual factors accompanying the violent act in order to identify their perceived impact on RSGs' emotional well-being,
- (2) to explore the perceived effects of (a lack of) OES on victimised RSGs who are in need of support in order to comprehend its importance for organisational commitment, and
- (3) to examine the usage of different types of self-protection measures in order to understand RSGs' emotional driving-factors for these precautions.

Overall, this work comprises nine chapters. The introduction is followed by Chapter 2 which provides a review of the previous literature on victims' experiences of, and reactions to, WV. The chapter commences by defining the scope of WV for this thesis before identifying RSGs as a high-risk group of WV. Afterwards, the chapter focuses on victims' experiences of violent acts by demonstrating the adverse impact of WV on their physical and psychological/emotional well-being. However, it is also illustrated that not only the violent act but also a variety of contextual factors can shape victims' psychological/emotional well-being during incidents. This is followed by a demonstration of the relevance of organisational emotional support for WV victims' psychological/emotional well-being. Lastly, the chapter explores the links between victims' emotional responses to WV and their behavioural responses showing that both proactive measures but also withdrawal behaviours are common security responses to victimisation.

Chapter 3 outlines the theoretical framework of this thesis and begins with an introduction of cognitive appraisal theory which helps to understand differences in RSGs' emotional responses to WV victimisation. This follows a presentation of social exchange theory and organisational support theory which assist in understanding RSGs' emotional, behavioural and occupational reaction to their employers' provision or lack of support. Lastly, the chapter outlines the concept of functional and dysfunctional worry of crime which helps to better allocate RSGs' different types of self-protection behaviours to RSGs' different types of worries. Elements of these theoretical concepts guide the research process and help to answer the sub-research questions at a later stage of this work.

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology of this study and begins with an explanation as to why the data has been approached with a relativist and constructivist philosophical stance in mind. Subsequently, the chapter justifies the choice of interpretivism as a theoretical perspective and interpretive phenomenology as a research paradigm before explaining why this study followed an inductive as well as a deductive approach. Chapter 4 continues with a justification for choosing a mixed-method approach before illustrating why online questionnaires and interviews were seen as the most suitable data collection methods. After presenting the different stages of the pilot test, a more thorough explanation of the designs of the chosen data collection methods follows before outlining the study's issues of access and its sampling procedures. The chapter moves on to the practical and ethical considerations and discusses the limitations of this research before presenting frequency counts, bivariate analysis, chi-square tests (quantitative) and thematic analysis (qualitative) as the most suitable data analysis methods.

Chapter 5 constitutes the first of three results/discussion chapters and outlines the findings on participants' experiences of, and emotional reactions to, WV. The chapter demonstrates a very high prevalence of WV amongst the sample and shows that assaults do not only endanger RSGs' physical but also their emotional well-being. In addition, Chapter 5 illustrates that RSGs' emotional experiences of WV are also strongly shaped by a variety of contextual factors which are present during incidents.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of participants' perceptions of, and occupational reactions to, organisational emotional support (OES). Here, it is demonstrated that the source and the type of support action shape RSGs' feeling of worth which in turn is not only decisive for RSGs' emotional well-being but also for their development of loyalty and work motivation towards their employers.

Chapter 7 constitutes the last of the three results/discussion chapters and presents the findings of participants' behavioural reactions to WV. The chapter begins with an exploration of the types and prevalence of self-protection measures (SPMs) used by participants. It is shown that participants make use of a variety of proactive SPMs in the form of personal protection equipment, skills and tactics but also inactive forms of self-protection in the form of avoidance and withdrawal behaviours in order to be protected from future WV. Chapter 7 continues with an examination of participants' emotional driving factors behind the adaptation of SPMs and demonstrates the facilitating and inhibiting power of worry before presenting participants' desire for safety as their overall objective for using SPMs.

Chapter 8 begins with a demonstration of how this study's theoretical framework helped to understand participants' emotional reaction to WV, their occupational reaction to OES and their behavioural reaction to WV and continues by answering the three sub-research questions. Subsequently, the chapter shows how these contexts contribute to the production of a theoretical model which aids to better understand RSGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV.

Lastly, Chapter 9 illustrates the academic contribution of this research and shows that both the violent act and contextual factors shape RSGs' emotional responses to WV, that RSGs want support from their security company, that supporting RSGs is beneficial for security companies and that RSGs use self-protection measures to compensate for feeling unsafe at work. Thereafter, recommendations for future practice are made where it is stressed that security and retail companies should provide RSGs with training, equipment and manpower in order to prevent RSGs from making undesirable self-protection choices and that RSGs should receive an appropriate offer of

organisational emotional support from their area manager after every incident in order to avoid OES-related turnover rates. Afterwards, the chapter gives some advice to future researchers in the field of WV and makes concrete suggestions for future research. Here, it is emphasised that more research on RSGs' emotional responses to WV is needed but also on the effects of support sources and support actions on RSGs' development of perceived organisational support (POS) as well as on RSGs' usage of, and driving factors for, self-protection measures. This thesis closes by answering the main research questions, illustrating how RSGs experience and react to WV.

Chapter 2

A Review of the Previous Literature: Victims' Experiences of, and Reactions to, Workplace Violence

2.1 Introduction

The literature review for this thesis comprises four parts. The first part analyses various definitions of 'workplace violence' (WV) before the scope of this term is determined for the current research. Subsequently, the extent of WV against security guards (SGs) is explored before the risk factors which are associated with this type of crime are identified. The second part examines the physical and psychological/emotional consequences of a violent act for victims before exploring the range and perceived effects of other factors that contribute to victims' overall WV experience. The third part focuses on the effects of organisational emotional support (OES) on WV victims following incidents before the chapter considers the different types of security responses victims apply after physical assaults in order to protect themselves from repeat victimisation. However, as little research has explored WV in the SG profession, it must be noted that the following literature review has to alternatively draw on data relating to the general workforce and similar protective service occupations such as the police (Van Steden, Van Der Wal and Lasthuizen, 2015; Nalla and Cobbina, 2016) or door staff. However, due to operational and structural differences in these occupations the data on protective service workers other than RSGs must be treated with caution (Button, 2007).

2.2 Workplace Violence: Definition, Extent and Risk Factors

2.2.1 Definition

To begin with, the scope of WV has to be defined for this study. Since the emergence of WV research, academics have had difficulties in defining this phenomenon (Vezyridis, Samoutis and Mavrikiou, 2014; Calnan et al., 2012; Jones, Robinson, Fevre and Lewis, 2011; Warshaw, 2011; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010). Uncertainty about what behaviours and actors should be included or excluded in a definition is problematic because different definitions lead to different research outcomes. In an attempt to gain clarity about the phenomenon's scope, the author examined a large body of literature in order to identify the most commonly used WV definitions. This effort resulted in the identification of thirteen definitions and it is believed that many more exist. An overview of the identified definitions can be found in **Appendix 1**. This definitional problem can be examined best when the term 'workplace violence' is dissected into 'workplace', 'violence' and its 'perpetrators'.

Firstly, it has to be clarified what the term 'workplace' encompasses. Most of the identified definitions are very broad and tell the reader that the violent incident has to happen 'in circumstances related to the victims' work' or 'in a workplace', for instance. One definition includes 'commuting to and from work' and some do not give any indication about the scene of the crime. In this thesis, the term 'workplace' is restricted to incidents that occur while the victim is on duty. On one hand, a clear definition of 'workplace' seems necessary to measure the phenomenon of *workplace* violence accurately. On the other hand, it has to be acknowledged that such a restrictive definition might miss incidents where perpetrators waited outside of retail venues in order to assault RSGs after their shift or cases where RSGs were recognised and assaulted in their leisure time. Whilst such incidents might also have implications for RSGs' self-protection behaviour at work, they are likely to happen in the absence of co-workers and thus fail to explore the social dynamics at RSGs' workplaces with regard to certain contextual factors and organisational support networks. However,

this research requires a definition which covers workplace scenarios where the whole range of CFs, organisational support networks as well as RSGs' security responses can be explored.

Furthermore, the term 'violence' is interpreted differently. Without exception, all identified definitions comprise physical violence. Threats are included in most variations and almost half include unspecified abusive behaviours. In this thesis, the term 'violence' is narrowed down to physical violence only. The reason is that this thesis does not only explore RSGs' *emotional* responses to WV but also their *security* responses. Whilst there exist various possibilities to protect oneself from the risk of *physical* violence, it is difficult to think of any practicable self-protection measures (SPMs) which RSGs could use to protect themselves from *verbal* violence. Thus, different types of violence are believed to generate different forms of SPMs. For that reason, the author is conscious that the acceptance of different types of violence might distort the data on RSGs' usage of SPMs and produce unusable results when it comes to the quantitative part of the study.

Lastly, the term 'perpetrator' requires clarification. As before, most existing definitions are kept very broad. Most do not mention a type of perpetrator at all and one solely demands that it has to be 'a person'. Not one is restricted to internal WV but two definitions focus exclusively on external WV by determining that the perpetrator has to be a 'member of the public' which is defined as 'clients or customers who the victim did not know before the incident or people previously known to the victim, including friends, neighbours and local children'. According to the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2010: 18, 20), 'internal workplace violence takes place between workers, including managers and supervisors' whereas 'external workplace violence takes place between workers (and managers and supervisors) and any other person present at the workplace'. Notwithstanding, internal and external WV can have different impacts on workers which is why it is advisable to explore them separately. As external individuals were often found to be the initiators of WV (Mueller and Tschan, 2011), it is decided to focus on external WV only. Consequently, in this

research the term workplace violence is defined as incidents of physical, external violence that occur while the victim is on duty.

2.2.2 Extent

As a next step, it is important to provide an overview of the extent of WV. Recent research suggests that physical violence against workers is still on the rise (Hosseinikia et al., 2018; Stephenson-Laws, 2018; Nienhaus, Drechsel-Schlund, Schambortski and Schablon, 2016; Abou-ElWafa, El-Gilany, Abd-El-Raouf, Abd-Elmouty, R El-Sayed, H El-Sayed, 2015; De Puy et al., 2015; McMahon, 2014). Based on the insights of WV researchers, the global trade union federation 'Public Service International' announced in 2013 that 'violence against women and men at work is a global concern (...) a human rights issue, as well as a health, education, legal and socio-economic problem' (Public Service International, 2013: n.p.). Some even consider WV to be the 'top security threat' (Jenkins, Fisher and Hartley, 2012: 63) and the reduction of violence against security personnel has become a 'top priority' for the British Security Industry Authority (SIA, 2018a: n.p.).

Even though not much is known about the extent of WV victimisation in SGs compared to other risk occupations (Leino, 2013; Vanheule et al., 2008; De Boer et al., 2002), a substantial amount of research has still been conducted on assaults experienced by the broader security community (Button and Park, 2009). When focussing on physical violence only, Larsson, Tezic and Oldertz (2010) analysed data from the Swedish National workers' compensation insurance and found that a total of 558 SGs had suffered physical injury between 2004 and 2007, making them the second most assaulted occupational group after police officers in Sweden. Further, data collected in Australia revealed that a quarter (24.3%, n=1,455) out of those SGs who received an injury at their workplace (100%, n=5,996) between 2000 and 2008 were injured during a WV incident (Ferguson, Prenzler, Sarre and De Caires, 2011). In 2011, Leino et al. found that 15% (n=152) of their sample of Finnish SGs (100%: n=1,010) experienced unarmed attacks (struggling to get free, wrestling, hitting and kicking) at least once a month. Beyond that, Declercq, Vanheule and Willemsen (2007) identified that out of

their sample of Dutch SGs (100%, n=530) more than a third (41.1%, n=218) experienced a critical incident at work, including physical assaults.

In the UK, Porter et al. (2015) conducted a mixed-method research on the frequency and types of WV against SGs and found that nearly all (96%, n=779) of their SG sample (100%, n=811) had experienced at least one incident of physical assault during their time working in the security industry. Despite this, little is known about the extent of WV amongst UK SGs (Porter et al., 2015) and none of the aforementioned studies focused on the extent of WV within the *retail* security industry. When focusing on WV explicitly against RSGs, not much could be found. In 2007, Button's study revealed that over half (52%, n=15) of his RSG sample (100%, n=29) experienced assaults once or twice a month and 17% (n=8) once or twice a year. Further, in 2009, Button and Park conducted a qualitative study in South Korea which included residential SGs, factory SGs and RSGs. It was found that few of the 20 RSGs experienced monthly assaults (between 5 and 15%) whereas the vast majority (between 85 and 95%) was spared from WV. However, even though the victimisation rate appears relatively low, it has to be emphasised that the RSGs in Button and Park's study experienced the highest rate of serious assaults out of all the three security sites.

Nonetheless, research suggests that incidents of WV are generally higher than reported (Smith et al., 2015; Nienhaus et al., 2016; Sweet, 2017; Kvas and Seljak, 2014). It was found that many incidents go unreported as some victims appraise them as only minor (Jones et al., 2011), erroneously see the exposure to WV as part of their job (Kvas and Seljak, 2014; Gates, Gillespie and Succop, 2011; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Vezyridis et al., 2014) are uncertain about what kinds of behaviours count as WV (Tombs, 2007; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Waddington, Badger and Bull, 2005a; Waddington et al., 2005b), believe that reporting incidents would not change anything (Kvas and Seljak, 2014, Vezyridis et al., 2014) and consider reporting procedures as too complicated or too time-consuming (Busby, 2015; Porter et al., 2015). Also, a higher degree of tolerance for psychological/emotional violence and a cultural acceptance of violence in general can lead to reluctance in reporting (Calnan et al., 2012) as well as the worry of being

perceived as weak by colleagues (Porter et al., 2015). Other workers are afraid of getting blamed for the violent event (Scalora, Washington, Casady and Newell, 2003; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Kvas and Seljak, 2014; Calnan et al., 2012), fear that perpetrators might take reprisal actions (Warshaw, 2011) or worry that they are being perceived as incompetent by their employer which involves the risk of job-related consequences (Porter et al., 2015; Tehrani, 2002).

In addition, organisations often contribute to low reporting rates. Gustin (2013), Jenkins et al. (2012) and Porter et al. (2015) found that there are many companies which still do not hold a reporting system for WV and some employers were even found to be uninterested in the victimisation of their staff (Kormanik, 2011; Jenkins et al. 2012; Warshaw, 2011; Smith, 2002; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010), discourage victims from reporting incidents because reporting procedures are time-consuming, or expect their staff to put up with the violence (Porter et al., 2015). Hence, victims' perceptions and organisations' inaction can lead to a vast number of unreported incidents, making researchers suggest that WV against SGs occurs more frequently than presumed (Jones et al., 2011; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Beech and Leather, 2006; BRC, 2013; BRC, 2014; Warshaw, 2011).

2.2.3 Risk Factors

Lastly, one must explore to what extent RSGs are at risk of becoming victimised and why. Research shows repeatedly that there exist certain risk factors which enhance the likelihood of becoming a victim of physical WV. Stutzenberger and Fisher (2014) subdivide these risk factors into organisational and situational risk factors. According to them, organisational risk-factors are usually permanent in nature and predominantly aim to assess the risk for internal WV (e.g. lack of leadership or workplace design), whereas situational risk factors are mostly temporary (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Viitasara and Menckel, 2002; Stutzenberger and Fisher, 2014). This thesis focuses on situational risk factors as internal WV is excluded from the definition used in this research and because it is

believed that the temporary risk-factors pose the main risk to RSGs' daily work. The literature has explored situational risk factors extensively. The most frequently listed factors are working late at night and doing shift work (Smith et al., 2015; Purpura, 2013), working in high crime areas (Purpura, 2013; OSHA, 2012; Baxter and Margavio, 2001), guarding valuable property (Anderson, 2006; Purpura, 2013; Anderson and Riley, 2008), working alone (Di Martino, Hoel and Cooper, 2003; Grosswald, 2004; Doerner and Lab, 2012), interacting with members of the public (Nienhaus et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2015; Purpura, 2013) and facing verbally aggressive persons (Peek-Asa, Casteel, Kraus and Whitten, 2006; Mayhew, 2000; Faulkner, Landsittel and Hendricks, 2001).

Consequently, employees who work in occupations where the occurrence of one or more of the aforementioned factors is common are considered to be a risk group of WV. This is why transport and taxi drivers, healthcare workers and service business personnel fall frequently under this group (Peek-Asa et al., 2006; Faulkner et al., 2001; Mayhew, 2000; Baxter and Margavio, 2001). However, workers in retail service occupations have been identified as being particularly at risk as they are often exposed to various situational risk factors during their work (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Waddington, Badger and Bull, 2006; Porter et al., 2015; Fevre, Lewis, Robinson and Jones, 2011; Smith et al., 2015). Between 2015 and 2016, violence against retail staff went up by 40% which is why WV has been considered as the 'highest priority crime risk facing the retail industry' (BRC, 2016: 5). Between 2016 and 2017, the number of abuse and assaults against retail staff went up by a further 25%, meaning that 250 retail staff had been assaulted every day in the UK alone (NFRN, 2018). According to the most recent British Retail Crime Survey, numbers of severe violent incidents towards retail staff are still increasing (BRC, 2017).

These situational risks are even higher for SGs. The security profession is one of the occupations most likely to be involved in violent and criminal incidents (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2015; Declercq, Vanheule, Markey and Willemsen, 2007) which is why SGs are considered as a group at high risk of WV (Sweet, 2017; Plotka, Shaplavska, Blumenau and Gajevska, 2015; De Puy et al., 2015)

and sometimes as the group with the highest risk of all (Porter et al., 2015; Ferguson, et al., 2011). Consequently, this research focuses on a high-risk group of WV (SGs) whose role it is to protect customers, staff and stock in a work environment which is under increased risk of WV (retail). This combination leads to the conclusion that the participants of the proposed study (RSGs) are under high risk of WV. In sum, this section determined that this thesis focuses on physical, external violence that occurs whilst the victim is on duty. Although little could be found on the extent of WV victimisation against RSGs, it was illustrated that RSGs are at high risk of WV.

2.3 Victims' Experiences of Workplace Violence Incidents

2.3.1 Consequences of the Violent Act

The previous research suggests that violent acts have a multi-layered impact on victims (Wasserman and Ellis, 2007) and can lead to physical, psychological/emotional, organisational, financial, social as well as societal consequences. However, the first part of this section focuses exclusively on the physical and psychological/emotional consequences due to the nature of this study. Further, even though the violent act undoubtedly marks the origin of every WV experience, the author believes that the overall WV experience cannot be reduced to the violent act only. For that reason, the second part of this section presents a number of contextual factors (CFs) which are inextricably linked to an assault. By doing so, this thesis accommodates the frequent academic demand for disentangling the multi-faceted phenomenon of WV (De Puy et al., 2015; Page and Jacobs, 2011; Houdmont, 2013; Perrot and Kelloway, 2006; Paese, Rissi, Cecconello and Costa, 2014).

2.3.1.1 Physical Consequences

Physical injuries constitute the most visible consequence of a violent act and can either be caused by 'personal weapons' such as hands and feet (Leino, Eskelinen, Summala and Virtanen, 2012: 691) or by 'offensive weapons' which are defined as 'any object that is made, adapted, or intended to be used to cause physical injury to a person' (Oxford Dictionary of Law, 2013: 379-380). Certainly, both personal and offensive

weapons hold the danger of physical injury but the severity of injury is often dependent on the nature of the attack. Therefore, injury patterns following violent acts can range from minor injuries such as bruises to worse manifestations like fractures, chronic pain, disfigurement, permanent disability, infection-related diseases or can even result in the victim's death (Zarola and Leather, 2006; Wasserman and Ellis, 2007, European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010). According to Schat and Kelloway (2005) and Smith et al. (2015), violence intensities which exceed the threshold of pushing and shoving are infrequent but Warshaw (2011) states that in most cases of WV the perpetrator's aim is to injure the victim's head and face which frequently results in bruises or fractures in the facial area. Also, defensive wounds in the form of bruises and cuts on the extremities are common when the victim tries to thwart the assault.

In relation to the security profession, Vanheule et al. (2008) examined 530 SGs' experience of critical incidents at work and found aggravated assault (which is 'malicious wounding or grievous bodily harm' (Crime and Disorder Act, 1998: n.p.)) to be one of the most frequently reported assault types. In addition, Leino's (2013) study revealed that unarmed physical attacks (struggling to get free, wrestling, hitting and kicking) were experienced by 15% (n=152) of his SG sample (100%, n=1010) between 2002 and 2009. Unfortunately, neither study gives information about injury patterns and only two studies could be identified which examine this topic closer. The first was conducted by Porter et al. (2015) and shows that two-thirds (70%, n=568) of their SG sample (100%, n=811) experienced assault not involving a weapon and almost half (45%, n=365) involving a weapon during their security career. These assaults resulted in first-aid treatment in almost half of their sample (46%, n=373) and in hospital treatment in a third of their participating SGs (34%, n=276). Furthermore, the researchers found that during the course of one year three-quarters (74%, n=600) had experienced WV not involving a weapon and a third (34%, n=276) experienced an assault involving a weapon, resulting in 38% (n=308) receiving first-aid treatment and 20% (n=162) hospital treatment. However, even though a considerable number of RSGs participated in the quantitative part of Porter et al.'s study (n=98), only three participated in the qualitative part. Additionally, the researchers did not always

distinguish clearly between different types of security staff when reporting the results and failed to name the injury patterns which required first-aid or hospital treatment. The second study was conducted by Button (2007) whose qualitative sample of RSGs (100%, n=29) experienced assaults mostly in the form of kicks, grabs or punches. These assaults predominantly resulted in minor injuries, such as slight bruising or bleeding, but one case resulted in more serious injuries such as broken bones and/or severe bleeding. Despite these studies, still very little is known about the types of violence (Porter et al., 2015) and injury patterns suffered by RSGs (Ahmad and Mazlan, 2013; Button, 2007).

2.3.1.2 Emotional Consequences

The previous research suggests that in most cases the visible physical implications of a violent act tend to disappear after a couple of days, but violence victims also often suffer from psychological and emotional harm (Dinisman and Moroz, 2017; Santos, Leather, Dunn and Zarola, 2009; Gates et al., 2011; Beech and Leather, 2006; Dunn, 2011). However, as it is difficult to distinguish clearly between mental and emotional suffering, the term 'emotional' refers to both psychological and emotional processes in this thesis. According to the fifth and current edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-V, 2013: 271) the experience of a violent act constitutes a 'traumatic event' which is the 'exposure to (...) serious injury (...)' or to physical assault in general. This means that WV has the clear potential to constitute a traumatic event which is capable of causing multiple emotional impairments in victims.

Even though research on the emotional consequences of WV has been relatively scarce to date (De Puy et al., 2015), the literature frequently identified feelings of anger, frustration, annoyance, sadness, hatred, helplessness, fear, grief, guilt, anxiety and the desire for revenge having experienced a violent act (Langton and Truman, 2014; Dinisman and Moroz, 2017; Di Martino et al., 2003; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Wasserman and Ellis, 2007; Kvas and Seljak, 2014; De Puy et al., 2015; Warshaw, 2011). Victimised workers often reported feelings of incompetence (Mayhew, 2000), isolation, loneliness (Di Martino et al., 2003), uptightness (Zarola and Leather, 2006), loss of control (Wasserman and Ellis, 2007)

disturbance, emotional exhaustion (Bernaldo-De-Quiros, Piccini, Gomez and Cerdeira, 2015) or experienced concentration problems as well as impaired problem solving capacity (Di Martino et al., 2003; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010), mood disorders (Perrot and Kelloway, 2006) or a decrease of self-esteem following an assault (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Mayhew, 2000; Warshaw, 2011; Di Martino et al., 2003; Echeburúa, De Corral and Amor, 2003).

Additionally, the aforementioned emotional impacts can cause invisible physical suffering; so-called 'psychosomatic symptoms' which are 'clinical symptoms with no underlying organic pathology' (Brill, Patel and MacDonald, 2001: 597; Beech and Leather, 2006). This means that WV victims can suffer from physical impairment which is attributable to the memory of the experience of the violent act. Many victims of violent crime report symptoms such as stomach distress, rapid heart rate, high blood pressure, headaches, diminished or increased appetite, insomnia, body tension or hyperventilation and some evidence exists that long-term exposure to violence-related stress can also lead to physiological changes like disruption of tissue function (Wasserman and Ellis, 2007; Perrot and Kelloway, 2006; Mayhew, 2000; Warshaw, 2011; Doerner and Lab, 2012; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010). According to Warshaw (2011), such psychosomatic complaints are likely to be even more troublesome for victims than the experience of physical injuries. Following Wasserman and Ellis (2007) most people who experienced a violent act are able to cope with the traumatic event and any emotional symptoms are likely to subside or even disappear after about three months (Kilpatrick, 2000). However, it is not uncommon that individuals suffer from long-term emotional consequences which can express themselves in depression, burnout, specific phobias (restricted to certain situations), adjustment disorders, enduring personality changes, dissociative disorders, psychoses or post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Kvas and Seljak, 2014; Ahmad and Mazlan, 2013; Echeburúa et al., 2003; Ben-Ezra, Essar and Saar, 2006; Zarola and Leather, 2006).

As employees of the protective service occupations have an increased risk of becoming victimised by WV, they are also under increased risk of suffering from violence-related

emotional problems (DSM-V, 2013). Some studies investigated SGs' mental well-being and indicate that many guards suffer from mental illnesses (Silva, Leong and Weinstock, 1993; Ahmad and Mazlan, 2013). One study argued that these mental illnesses in SGs are derived from occupational stress (Oginska-Bulik, 2005) whereas others found that guards experience their work as not stressful at all (Paese et al., 2014; Duber, 1988) or as a helping agent against stress (Carter-Brown, 2005). However, the aforementioned studies do not distinguish between different types of occupational stress so it remains unclear to what extent stress derived from physical assaults contributed to these results.

Studies which explicitly focus on the consequences of physical WV on SGs' emotional well-being are very rare and only three could be identified. Vanheule et al. (2008) found that 2 in 10 SGs suffer from burnout as a result of experiencing a 'critical incident' at work which they defined as 'a confrontation that is sufficiently disturbing to overwhelm or threaten to overwhelm the individual's usual method of coping' (Alexander and Klein, 2001: 76). In 2007, Declercq et al. examined 530 SGs and found a strong association between work-related violent acts and the development of PTSD, concluding that 1 in 10 SGs showed obvious symptoms. Lastly, Leino et al. (2011) investigated the association between two forms of violent acts (physically violent acts, such as hitting or kicking, and threats of assault with a deadly weapon) and distress among police officers and SGs. Among a total sample of 1,007 SGs, the researchers confirmed the association between physically violent acts and distress. However, even though the latter three studies focused on the impact of violent acts on SGs' mental well-being, two of them (Vanheule et al., 2008; Declercq et al., 2007) applied a quantitative approach only. This is surprising as the experience of violent acts could prove a fruitful line of inquiry for qualitative research as well and potentially generate more in-depth, richer understandings of this phenomenon. Only Leino et al. (2011) applied a mixed approach and conducted 30 interviews prior to preparing their questionnaire, but unfortunately did not reveal how their SG sample experienced WV and what the assaults meant to them emotionally.

Independent of the research focus of the latter three studies stands the work of Button (2007), who examined SGs' legal powers and their culture. In the framework of this qualitative study, Button also encouraged his interviewees to talk about their experiences of WV. However, the presented data on that topic focuses predominantly on the circumstances under which the violence occurred. Just one comment from one of his participants suggests that the assault had a meaning for him, stating that 'you don't exactly worry about it at the time. Later on you do', but Button (2007: 147) either did not probe any further or decided to exclude the information from the final draft. Even though Button's study offers valuable insights into different aspects around SGs' experience of WV, it is only of limited use when focusing on RSGs' *emotional* responses to assaults. For that reason, Porter et al. (2015) stress the need to explore SGs' WV experiences through a qualitative lens.

Taken together, some evidence exists showing that WV can cause adverse emotional consequences in SGs. However, there is also a notable amount of literature on the phenomenon of hardiness stating that protective service workers are emotionally less affected by violent acts than employees in less dangerous occupations (Armeli, Gunthert and Cohen, 2001; Pollock, Paton, Smith and Violanti, 2003). Researchers in that field conceptualise 'hardiness' commonly as 'resilience' which is considered as the ability to 'bounce back' (Bonanno, 2004: 20) and defined as 'the ability of adults in otherwise normal circumstances who are exposed to an isolated and potentially disruptive event, such as (...) a violent or life-threatening situation, to maintain relatively stable, healthy levels of psychological and physical functioning'. Some see resilience as an inherent personality trait (Fayombo, 2010; Eley, Cloninger, Walters, Laurence, Synnott and Wilkinson, 2013) whereas others suggest that frequent exposure to violence can lead to habituation effects (Muldoon, 2013; Murali and Chen, 2005). The latter view is criticised by Anderson, Litzenberger and Plecas (2002) who state that emotional consequences attributable to experiences of violence cannot be routinised. However, Hobbs, O'Brien and Westmarland (2007) conducted a study on door staff and revealed that many of their sample grew up in environments where exposure and engagement in physical violence was commonplace. These participants considered violence as not only normal, but also as useful because their heritage had

equipped them with the physical and emotional skills to deal with assaults. Glomb (2002) and De Puy et al. (2015) acknowledge the notion of resilience but hold the view that the emotional consequences of the violent act are rather dependent on the severity of the violent act which is supported by Violanti and Aron's (1995) study on police officers.

Notwithstanding, all the findings on SGs' emotional suffering following WV incidents must be seen in the light of their particular occupational culture. According to Barney (1986: 657), organisational culture is 'a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business' and 'develops through social interaction, shared experience, common training and affiliation, mutual support, associated values and norms, and similar personal characteristics of members of a particular occupational group' (Johnson, Koh and Killough, 2009: 320). Thus, RSGs' occupational culture might embrace certain social expectations and demands which could have an impact on to what extent they are 'socially allowed' to experience and express emotions within and beyond their occupational group. To date, little research has explored SGs' occupational culture (Nalla and Wakefield, 2014). The most cited studies are the work of Rigakos (2002), Wakefield (2003) and Button who studied the occupational culture of British (2007) and Korean SGs (Button and Park, 2009). As Button's samples included a high proportion of RSGs, his findings are directive when considering the occupational culture of RSGs in this study, with particular consideration given to the UK SG culture. Button (2007: 174) identified certain traits in SG culture including *inter alia* bravado in being able to deal with poor working conditions (see also Löfstrand et al., 2016), solidarity in the RSG culture which is derived from mutual reliance in dangerous situations, machismo which expressed itself through masculinity amongst other things and a 'watchman parapolice continuum' ranging from SGs with low commitment and the desire to avoid confrontation to SGs with greater commitment and a willingness to engage in dangerous situations (to be found more often in RSGs).

When it comes to the emotional consequences of WV, the cultural trait of masculinity is particularly evident in high-risk (Stergiou-Kita, Mansfield, Bezo, Colantonio,

Garritano, Lafrance, Lewko, Mantis, Moody, Power, Theberge, Westwood and Travers, 2015) and male-dominated occupations (Prokos and Padavic, 2002; Button, 2007; Monaghan, 2003; Tomsen, 2005) such as night-time economy (NTE) security work or the (retail) security industry where the proportion of male SGs ranges from over 60% (Leino, 2013; Wakefield, 2003; Poisat, Mey and Theron, 2014) to over 80% (Declercq et al., 2007; Plotka et al., 2015; Porter et al., 2015; Button, 2009) and sometimes to even over 90% (De Puy et al., 2015; Button and Park, 2009; Paese et al., 2014). Masculinity is defined as 'the socially generated consensus of what it means to be a man, to be "manly" or to display such behaviour at any one time' (Keerfoot and Knights, 1996: 86) with hegemonic masculinity as its most dominant form (Prokos and Padavic, 2002). David and Brannon (1976) identified four components of masculinity which are:

- (1) the avoidance of femininity,
- (2) respect derived from successful achievements,
- (3) the avoidance of any signs of weakness and
- (4) risk- and adventure-seeking behaviour including the acceptance of violence.

These components, however, are in danger of being violated if SGs experience a physical assault at work for the following reasons. Firstly, as shown above, violence victims were often found to experience a wide range of emotions. This contradicts with the dogma to avoid femininity because in male-dominated occupations the expression of emotions is often equated with female behaviour (Prokos and Padavic, 2002). Secondly, a victimised SG might fear being perceived as unsuccessful because he failed his task 'to keep the premises, properties and people secured' which, in turn, could endanger the respect of others (Security Guard Training Headquarters, 2018: n.p.). Thirdly, SGs might have experienced harm which they might fear to be interpreted as being due to physical or emotional weakness. Fourthly, SGs might be afraid of being accused of having avoided certain risks or of being unwilling to accept violence as part of their job. Hence, in cases of WV, male SGs might be worried that a violation of one or more of these components could result in a decrease or loss of masculinity. This, in turn, holds the danger of severe social and occupational consequences as, like in the NTE security industry, a masculine work identity is an

essential condition in order to gain and maintain the respect of peers (Hobbs et al., 2007; Winlow, Hobbs, Lister and Hadfield, 2003; Winlow, Hobbs, Lister and Hadfield, 2001; Monaghan, 2003; Tomsen, 2005).

In order to not be perceived as 'unmanly', men were found to uphold the stereotype of 'boys don't cry' (Goodey, 1997: 416), to pretend to be a fearless protector (Goodey, 1997) who is in control of the situation (Prokos and Padavic, 2002) and reluctant in reporting any feelings which could be associated with weakness after the experience of negative life events (Dunn, 2011; Stanko and Hobdell, 1993; Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005; Levant, 2011). Consequently, when making statements about their experiences of WV in past research, male SGs might have tried to maintain their masculinity by disguising any signs pointing to one of the four aforementioned components. This is supported by Button (2007), Rigakos (2002), Monaghan (2003) and Farrimond, Boyd and Fleischer (2018) who revealed that some male SGs, including doormen, express their masculinity by showing off with their experiences of WV or by exaggerating their accounts of danger and violence. Farrimond et al. (2018: 110) identified that such 'war stories' have the purpose of establishing door staff's toughness and their suitability for working in particularly hostile environments. Interestingly, Porter et al. (2015) reported that their SG sample typically tried to play victimisation experiences down but that those SGs working in retail seemed to be less tolerant and also more worried by their experiences of WV.

In sum, research suggests that hegemonic masculinity can limit men's access to, and expression of, vulnerable feelings (Reilly, Rochlen and Awad, 2014; Levant, 2011; Connell and Messerschmidt, 2005; Sutton, Robinson and Farrall, 2010; Davies, 2011; Green, 2007; Stanko and Hobdell, 1993) so that research findings suggesting an emotional indifference in male victims of violence must be treated with caution. Even though some research could be identified, still not much is known about the consequences of violent acts on SGs', and particularly RSGs', emotional well-being (Ahmad and Mazlan, 2013; Silva et al., 1993; De Boer et al., 2002; Leino et al., 2011; Duber, 1988) which is why further research is needed (De Puy et al., 2015).

2.3.2 Contextual Factors

So far, the literature review has shown that employees in protective service occupations are exposed to many risks and large amounts of stress at their workplaces. From the 1970s onwards there has been a growing interest in police stress research which has produced an extensive amount of literature (Sagar, Karim and Nigar, 2014; Baron, 2013; Cox, McCamey and Scaramella, 2013; Crank and Caldero, 1991). Shortly after police stress received academic attention, it became obvious that stressors in this kind of occupation can have different sources. In 1970, the psychiatrist Martin Symonds was the first who listed police stressors and allocated them to two different categories. The first category was concerned with 'stress which is due to the nature of police work' (operational stressors) and the second one dealt with 'stress which is a result of the nature of the police organization' (organisational stressors) (Symonds, 1970: 155; Houdmont, Kerr and Randall, 2012; Biggam, Power, MacDonald, Carcary and Moodie, 1997). Ever since, Symonds' categorisation has been widely accepted and has guided much subsequent police stress research from the mid-seventies on (Houdmont et al., 2012; Sagar et al., 2014).

Inspired by Symonds' categorisation, suitable occupational stressors as identified in police stress literature are adapted in this thesis and tailored around violent acts at RSGs' workplace. Most stressors dealt with in the police literature are unrelated to WV acts experienced by British RSGs (e.g. informing relatives of a death or being in a car chase) (Violanti and Aron, 1995). However, six suitable occupational stressors were identified which are believed to be transferable to RSGs' experience of WV. These occupational stressors are presented shortly but not before making the term 'stressor' a subject of discussion. Even though there is no consensus on a clear definition of stress (Shane, 2010), this term often has negative connotations in social science literature, and particularly in police stress literature (Rajkumar and Sinha, 2015; Chaver, 2013). Its effects are sometimes described as 'dysfunctional' (Scaramella, Cox and McCamey, 2011: 115-116), 'aversive' (Lord, 1996: n.p. as cited in Shane, 2010: 808) or as a 'distortion' (Stinchcomb, 2004: 261 as cited in Shane, 2010: 808). This leads to definitions which include words such as 'tension, sadness or frustration'

(Gullette, Blumenthal and Babyak, 1997: n.p. as cited in Schwartz, French, Mayeda, Burstein, Economides, Bhandari, Cannom and Kloner, 2012: 632) and results in discussions about the 'damage' this phenomenon can cause (Stinchcomb, 2004: 261 as cited in Shane, 2010: 808). However, this thesis argues that stressors accompanying a violent act *can*, but not necessarily *must*, have a negative impact on victims. The following part of this section shows that such occupational stressors can be perceived and interpreted differently by the individuals who are exposed to them. In other words, one occupational stressor could be perceived by one victim as exacerbating the WV experience whereas the same stressor might be perceived indifferently or even as mitigating by another victim. Due to these ambiguous developments of the WV experience, the term occupational 'stressors' does not appear appropriate which is why it is relabelled as 'contextual factors' (CFs) to give them a more neutral character. In total, six suitable CFs could be identified in police stress literature which are expected to be faced by police officers and RSGs alike during WV: (1) 'facing the unknown or exposure to danger' (named here 'Facing the Unknown'), (2) 'dealing with children and dealing with drug addicts' (named here 'Type of Perpetrator'), (3) 'lack of support from the community' (named here 'Customer Reactions'), (4) 'court proceedings' (named here 'Police Response'), (5) 'Equipment' and (6) 'Manpower'.

2.3.2.1 Facing the Unknown

To begin with, the first contact between protective service employees and members of the public is shaped by high levels of unpredictability (Porter et al., 2015). Not knowing whether to expect an assault or not was found to be highly stressful for police officers (Perrott and Kelloway, 2006; Gudjonsson, 1983; Anshel, Robertson and Caputi, 1997; Dowler and Arai, 2008; Crank and Caldero, 1991; Crank, 2004, Territo and Vetter, 1981) and is considered to be the leading CF among officers concerning physical and emotional stress (He, Zhao and Archbald, 2002; Violanti and Aron, 1994). 'Facing the Unknown' was often reported by police officers as a source of burnout (He et al., 2002) and can increase the risk of developing PTSD when facing life-threatening situations (Latscha, 2005).

However, it seems that the presence of danger and violence is not necessarily burdensome for all police officers (Perrott and Kelloway, 2006). Latscha (2005) found that officers suffer much less from the unknown when they can mentally prepare themselves for the situation as the preparation process gives them the feeling of control. The findings of Jermier, Gaines and McIntosh (1989) and Crank and Caldero (1991) go one step further by showing that some officers even enjoy this state of unpredictability because the samples often described the exposure to danger as meaningful, exhilarating and exciting. This kind of excitement is what some academics call 'thrill seeking' (Felson, 2006: 21) and what is conceptualised as 'workplace edgework' (Milovanovic, 2005: 57) in sociology literature when the thrill is sought in high-risk occupations. This term stems from Lyng's (1990: 857) concept of 'edgework' which explored people's voluntary engagement with danger in their leisure time (e.g. rock-climbing or skydiving) and is best described as 'voluntary activities that involve a level of personal risk, for the purpose of gaining sensual or emotional rewards from the experience itself' (Hayward, 2013: 2; Lyng, 2004).

Apart from the police, the phenomenon of workplace edgework was identified in other occupations such as military, firemen, ambulance drivers (Milovanovic, 2005), bike messengers (Kidder, 2011), probation workers (Mawby and Worrall, 2013) and a few so-called white-collar professions like investment bankers (Hewlett and Buck Luce, 2006) but no study could be found exploring this phenomenon in RSGs. However, Van Steden et al. (2015) distributed an online survey to 329 SGs and found that only 26% (n=85) considered elements such as tension, threat and danger in their work as important. This is consistent with a study conducted by Rigakos (2002) whose SG sample expressed frustration and anxiety as a result of the exposure to unpredictable scenarios. On the other hand, Nalla and Cobbina (2016) interviewed 19 SGs and discovered that some enjoyed the thrill and excitement they experienced in their job. Notwithstanding, the aforementioned studies included various types of SGs so that it is not clear how many RSGs were researched and what their attitudes were towards thrill and excitement at work. In addition, neither of the studies explored to what extent thrill and excitement were related to WV experiences. Monaghan (2003), however, conducted an ethnographic study on door staff and found that most of his sample

experienced violent encounters with customers as exciting and exhilarating. Still, it remains questionable to what extent workplace edgework can be found in RSGs and if so, whether it serves as a mitigating agent for the adverse impacts of violent acts.

2.3.2.2 Type of Perpetrator

Secondly, there exists some evidence that certain types of crime *victims* can have a larger emotional impact on police officers than others. For instance, some police officers were found to be emotionally affected when they had to deal with children who show signs of violence (Collins and Gibbs, 2003; Amaranto, Steinberg, Castellano and Mitchell, 2003) or with disaster and accident victims (Duckworth and Charlesworth, 1988; Durham, McCammon and Allison, 1985). However, much less is known about whether it makes a difference to WV victims' emotional well-being by what type of *perpetrator* they are assaulted by. In that context, Stanko and Hobdell (1993) found that groups of men, usually young men, are perceived as particularly dangerous by male victims of violence. Violanti and Aron (1994) found that police officers experience their job as very distressing when having to deal with aggressive children or when being confronted with drug addicts (Collins and Gibbs, 2003; Biggam et al., 1997).

Concerning SGs specifically, only two studies could be identified. By using an ethnographic study design in the retail security industry, Löfstrand et al. (2016: 305) found that young, drunken men, 'prostitutes', 'sex-buyers' and 'junkies' were seen as particularly dangerous by RSGs because some of these individuals were assumed to be disease-ridden and violent encounters held the danger of contamination. Most of all, female offenders were seen by the sample as particularly defiling and troublesome, which was also identified by Button (2007). The cited reasons for this were the perception that women were more persistent in a fight (Löfstrand et al., 2016) and that they were more likely to use bodily fluids (saliva and vaginal secretion) as a form of attack (Button, 2007). In addition, two participants out of Button's qualitative RSG sample indicated that particular types of perpetrator evoked particular emotions. Whilst one interviewee felt scared off by his assailant's muscular appearance, another one experienced disgust when fighting a drug user. However, neither Löfstrand et al.

nor Button explored RSGs' experienced emotions in relation to particular types of perpetrators so that this phenomenon remains largely unexplored. To conclude, very little is known about whether different types of perpetrators hold the potential to exacerbate or mitigate RSGs' emotional experience of WV and why.

2.3.2.3 Customer Reactions

Thirdly, it has often been observed that bystanders are reluctant in supporting crime victims (Hart and Miethe, 2008) and even that bystanders can show hostility towards the victim if they feel that the victim has deserved (Lerner, 1980) or precipitated (Wolfgang, 1958) the attack. The police stress literature shows that verbal public criticism and personal insults from citizens have been reported as stressful by some police officers when making arrests (Scaramella et al., 2011; Violanti and Aron, 1995). Moreover, for some officers a lack of support by citizens was even perceived as more distressing than the violent act itself (Amaranto et al., 2003; Burke and Mikkelsen, 2006). In sum, a lack of citizens' willingness to intervene was found to be emotionally distressing for some police officers. However, nothing is known about the perceived effects of bystander behaviour on RSGs' emotional well-being but research in that field is required (Nalla et al., 2016).

2.3.2.4 Police Response

Fourthly, according to Karmen (1990), victims have high expectations of the police and expect them to respond fast to emergency calls. This is supported by Mulvihill, Gangoli, Gill and Hester (2018) who conducted a qualitative study with violence victims (n=36) and found that quick police arrival during violent situations was a relief to victims as it provided safety from further physical harm. Concerning the security industry, Porter et al. (2015) found that slow police response was seen as problematic by their SG sample because it meant that they had to continue fighting with or defending themselves from the perpetrator, faced the risk of further attacks and had to divert resources from other venues. Moreover, Porter et al. stated that particularly for RSGs slow police response appeared to be problematic because they are often working alone and thus more dependent on quick police backup. Wakefield (2012) found that quick police

backup in (unspecified) emergency situations resulted in some of her SG sample having a positive relationship with the police. Most of the RSGs in Button's (2007) study seemed to be satisfied with the response time of the police but still one tenth (10%, n=3) of his overall sample (100%, n=29) felt that the police were slow in responding and usually not around when needed. However, it remains unclear what emotions a slow or fast police arrival creates in RSGs during WV situations.

2.3.2.5 Equipment

Fifthly, in most occupations, employees are in need of certain work equipment in order to fulfil their work tasks. The first researchers who identified missing or insufficient equipment as a problem for police officers were Kroes, Margolis and Hurrell (1974) even though the researchers were not clear about what the term 'equipment' comprised. Houdmont (2013) found that the majority (80%, n=1,733) of his sample of UK police custody workers (100%, n=2,166) reported high levels of stress and frustration when equipment such as protective suits and evidence kits were not available when needed. This outcome is consistent with the findings of Kula (2011) who detected that the organisational refusal to provide necessary equipment can cause strain in police officers which in turn can lead to reduced job satisfaction and increased levels of burnout. Further, the police officer sample (100%, n=103) in Violanti and Aron's (1995) study ranked the stressor 'inadequate equipment' as number 18 among 60 police work-related stressors. This mirrors the findings in multiple studies in which officers reported old equipment and outdated technology (radio communications) as being a main problem (Christensen and Crank, 2001; Oliver and Meier, 2009; Scott, 2004; Weisheit, Wells and Falcone, 1995 as cited in Page and Jacobs, 2011) whereas it is suggested that proper equipment can enhance protective service workers' feeling of authority and serve as a reassurance (Scaramella et al., 2011).

Concerning WV, Patterson (1992) found that equipment failure was even perceived as more distressing by protective service workers than the danger of being physically assaulted at work. In relation to the SG profession, equipment such as two-way radios, torches, lone worker alarms or stab proof vests, is often considered as essential for

SGs' work (Westminster Security, 2015; SIA, 2015a). This attitude was shared by 'a few' SGs in Nalla and Cobbina's (2016: 9) and Löfstrand et al.'s (2016) studies. These studies found that the absence of protective equipment such as bulletproof vests can trigger concern in SGs when they have to face violent situations. Karacan (2011) conducted a quantitative study with SGs (100%, n=106) and found that more than a third (40%, n=42) considered their tools and equipment as inadequate and a further 28% (n=30) were uncertain about its efficacy. More than a third (38%, n=41) of Karacan's sample also reported feeling unsafe during their shifts. However, Karacan did not explore whether feelings of unsafety in his SG sample was linked in any way to their inadequate work equipment. In addition, the SGs in Porter et al.'s (2015) study valued the presence of closed-circuit television cameras (CCTV) as it could help the police to track incidents, serve as a deterrent to aggressive customers and as evidence. Furthermore, Johnstone (2011) mentioned that a live CCTV stream enabled the monitoring team to quickly inform backup SGs or the police and record incidents for evidence purposes. This might be the reason why the presence of CCTV was sometimes found to have calming effects (European Parliament, 2009; Gill and Turbin, 1999) and the door staff samples in Lister, Hobbs, Hall and Winlow's (2000) and Liempt and Aalst's (2015: 1259) studies felt reassured by the presence of CCTV cameras because they served as an 'objective witness' following violent encounters with customers. In sum, absent or insufficient equipment was found to be problematic for police officers even though it remains unknown as to *why* equipment was of such importance to them. Furthermore, little is known about SGs', and nothing about RSGs', emotional well-being during WV situations in respect of equipment.

2.3.2.6 Manpower

Lastly, employees of the protective service occupations are encouraged, if possible, to wait for backup to arrive before approaching potentially violent persons (Barker, Hunter and Rush, 1994; Scaramella et al., 2011). As identified in door staff, the reason behind this strategy is to minimise the risk of injury for workers by simultaneously maximising their level of control of the situation (Monaghan, 2003). Hence, not being able to draw on backup personnel can increase the risk of physical injury for protective service employees as they potentially have to deal with numerically or physically

superior opponents on their own. This is assumed to be one of the reasons why downsizing and understaffing are frequently found to have a negative impact on police officers (Houdmont, 2013; Kelley and Mullen, 2006; Christensen and Crank, 2001; Biggam et al., 1997; Oliver & Meier, 2009; Scott, 2004) and can create feelings of stress (Biggam et al., 1997), vulnerability as well as fear when being alone in situations which are perceived as dangerous (Anderson, Kinsey, Loader and Smith, 1994). Concerning the security industry, Rigakos (2002) and Monaghan (2003) identified a culture of 'safety in numbers' which referred to guards' belief that an increase of quick SG backup in dangerous situations and mutual assistance would maintain or increase their safety. Löfstrand et al. (2016) and Porter et al. (2015) found that security managements' decision to let SGs work alone seems to make guards feel unsafe and vulnerable when having to face violent situations. This matches Button's (2007) findings whose RSG sample also strongly valued the possibility to draw on backup in dangerous situations and complained when there were not sufficient RSG staff available during peak times. On the contrary, De Puy et al. (2015) did not find any statistical evidence that being assaulted when working alone exacerbated their SG sample's psychological consequences. Overall, the aforementioned studies indicate that the number of peers present at scene during violent situations can shape the emotional well-being of protective service workers but very little is known about SGs and almost nothing about RSGs. To conclude, some researchers state they have identified a direct link between work-related violent acts and increased employee turnover (LeBlanc and Kelloway, 2002; Howard, 2001) which suggests that victims' emotional distress after WV victimisation is attributable to the violent act alone. However, this section has illustrated that not only the violent act but also a number of CFs can shape WV victims' emotional well-being. With regard to this study, knowing more about the range of factors that have an impact on RSGs' emotional well-being during an assault would be important in order to better understand where the focus of training and support networks should be. Following WV incidents, organisations are usually expected to assume responsibility for taking care of their victimised employees' well-being as the incident will have occurred on their premises. The literature on the effects of supportive and unsupportive organisations on WV victims' emotional well-being is reviewed in the next section.

2.4 The Relevance of Organisational Emotional Support for Workplace Violence Victims

To begin with, social support is known as an important factor in victim recovery after WV victimisation (Green and Roberts, 2008; Stanko and Hobdell, 1993) and is defined as 'a transactional communicative process, including verbal and/or nonverbal communication, that aims to improve an individual's feelings of coping, competence, belonging, and/or esteem' (Mattson and Hall, 2011: 184). Perceived social support 'refers to an individual's belief that social support is available, is generally considered positive or negative, and provides what is considered needed by that individual' (Mattson and Hall, 2011: 184). Hence, the term 'social support' describes supporters' actions whilst the term 'perceived social support' describes victims' perception of these actions. The literature on WV suggests that employees' perception of a supportive workplace is of enormous importance after exposure to an assault. Organisational social support has frequently been found to buffer the adverse emotional effects of WV victimisation (Towey, 2013; Ozbay, Johnson, Dimoulas, Morgan, Charney and Southwick, 2007; De Puy et al., 2015; Van Dyck, 2012; Flannery, 2003; Prati and Pietrantonio, 2010; Vermeulen and Mustard, 2000; Schwarzer, 2016) as well as to reduce the occurrence of burnout (Anne, 2014; Halbesleben and Buckley, 2004; Viswesvaran, Sanchez and Fisher, 1999; Couto and Lawoko, 2011) and PTSD (Bryant-Davis, Ullman and Tsong, 2015; Brewin, Andrews and Valentine, 2000; Costa-Requena, Ballester-Arnal, Qureshi and Gil, 2014).

A number of studies show that police officers experience high levels of distress when they feel unsupported by their supervisors, including their management (Gillet, Huart, Colombat and Fouquereau, 2013; Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier, Villeneuve, 2009; Houdmont et al., 2012; Tremblay et al., 2009) or fellow-officers (He et al., 2002; Shernock, 1988). On the contrary, officers who feel properly supported by their organisation were found to show higher levels of job satisfaction (Kula, 2011; Pursley, 1974) and increased levels of job motivation (Gillet et al., 2013; Tremblay et al., 2009). As officers' well-being is essential in order to perform correctly in high-stress situations, researchers like Kula (2011) and Perrott and Kelloway (2006) emphasise the

importance of proper social support within police organisations. Hence, in the general workforce and particularly in high-risk occupations such as the police, social support was found to be important in reducing distress levels of employees.

However, Declercq et al. (2007) argue that social support is a multi-dimensional construct and thus must be sub-divided into smaller fragments. According to House (1981), S Malik and G Malik (2015) and Yoo and McCoy (2008), social support can be classified into *support sources* and *support types*. Firstly, the scope of the *support source* needs to be determined for this research. Three support sources were identified in the literature: formal, informal and workplace social support. Formal social support ‘refers to sources of support outside one’s family and community’ (Yoo and McCoy, 2008: 1257) such as counselling services, citizen’s advice bureaux or the police (Ministry of Justice, 2015). Informal social support, on the other hand, ‘is the tangible and/or intangible resources, real or perceived, exchanged by individuals without prescribed regulations – that family members, friends, and neighbourhood social networks can offer’ (Martinez and Abrams, 2013: 170). Lastly, workplace – or organisational – social support is defined as ‘the degree to which individuals perceive that their well-being is valued by workplace sources, such as supervisors and the broader organization in which they are embedded, and the perception that these sources provide help to support this well-being’ (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner and Hammer, 2011: 292). This thesis focuses on the support source ‘organisation’ as it is interested in RSGs’ occupational reaction to support.

Secondly, the *support type* needs to be determined. It has become common practice to categorise social support into five types (House, 1981; Mattson and Hall, 2011: 185-187; Schaefer, Coyne and Lazarus, 1981):

- *Esteem social support*

This refers to the ‘communication that bolsters an individual’s self-esteem or beliefs in their ability to handle a problem or perform a needed task’. Individuals are encouraged ‘to take needed actions’ and are given confidence so ‘that they have the ability to confront difficult problems’. For example:

A co-worker tells the victimised RSG that he just had bad luck and basically has the potential to overpower perpetrators in future incidents.

- *Network social support*

This refers to the 'communication that affirms individuals' belonging to a network or reminds them of support available from the network'. This support type aims to remind 'people that they are not alone in whatever situation they are facing'. For example: A co-worker reminds the victimised RSG that many retail staff have been victims of WV as well and that they probably would be willing to talk to him if needed.

- *Informational social support*

This refers to the 'communication that provides useful or needed information'. For example: A co-worker provides the victimised RSG with the address of a good self-defence course.

- *Tangible social support*

This refers to 'any physical assistance provided by others' and is often nonverbal communication in the style of 'actions speak louder than words'. For example: A co-worker offers to sew the victimised RSG's uniform which has been ripped during the incident.

- *Emotional social support*

This refers to 'the communication that meets an individual's emotional or affective needs' (Mattson and Hall, 2011: 185) by providing them with 'empathy, caring, trust and concern' (Jayaratne and Chess, 1984: 146). The intention is to provide 'expressions of care and concern' which 'do not try to directly solve a problem but serve to elevate an individual's mood'. For example: A co-worker asks the victimised RSG about his well-being and responds to his emotional needs.

The notion of different social support types is adapted in this research. However, by adapting this approach, the value of the studies mentioned at the beginning of the current section is limited as they did not distinguish between different types of social support and thus do not give any indication about *what type* of social support mitigated the WV victims' distress. Some simply assume that social support means 'talking with coworkers [sic]' (Halbesleben and Buckley, 2004: 872) or 'having friendly and helpful colleagues' (Van Emmerik, Euwema and Bakker, 2007: 156) whereas others do not provide a definition at all. These inaccuracies in defining social support have led to confusion, difficulties in measuring this phenomenon and potentially ambiguous results (Leather, Lawrence, Beale, Cox and Dickson, 1998). Notwithstanding, some researchers (e.g. Schat and Kelloway, 2003; Cohen and Willis, 1985) argue that all social support types are somehow interrelated but this approach constitutes a lack of accuracy for the following reason. It is argued that, for instance, 'providing a person with information that the person can use in coping with personal and environmental problems' (informational social support) (House, 1981: 25) is simply not the same as listening to people's concerns or laying a hand on their shoulder in order to comfort them (emotional social support) (Schaefer et al., 1981). As emotional support has been identified as the most frequently needed (Dinisman and Moroz, 2017) and offered (Zweig and Yahner, 2013) support type in the literature and because RSGs' emotions are the centrepiece of this work, this thesis focuses exclusively on the support type 'emotional support'. Taken together, the scope of this research is limited to the *support source* 'organisation' and the *support type* 'emotional social support'. Consequently, this thesis focuses on 'Organisational Emotional Support' (OES) only and thus explores security and retail companies' communication that meets RSGs' emotional or affective needs (Mattson and Hall, 2011) by providing RSGs with 'empathy, caring, trust and concern' (Jayaratne and Chess, 1984: 146).

Some studies focusing exclusively on the effects of OES on employees' emotional well-being can be identified. It was frequently found that OES helps to alleviate acute as well as delayed stress symptoms in employees (Sener, 2011; Hurrell, 2006; Norris and Kaniasty, 1996; Burleson, 2003; Shrout, Herman and Bolger, 2006; Orth, 2002) which is consistent with findings about the effects of OES on police officers' emotional well-

being (Latscha, 2005; Page and Jacobs, 2011; Morash, Kwak, Hoffman, Lee, Cho and Moon, 2008) particularly after violent encounters (Klinger, 2002; Artwohl and Christensen, 1997). OES was found to be of high importance when it comes to the development and maintenance of work relationships (Burleson, 2008) so that officers who did not receive OES from their police management or supervisors after traumatic incidents reported feelings of betrayal and desertion (Shane, 2010).

However, there is some evidence that these feelings can be buffered by talking to peer colleagues instead (He et al., 2002) which some officers seem to prefer in the first place (Levenson and Dwyer, 2003; Page and Jacobs, 2011). This was also confirmed in a study conducted by Van Emmerik et al. (2007) with 2,782 Dutch police officers. Beyond that, Van Emmerik and colleagues found that officers who received OES from their peers were more willing to invest in their jobs. Based on this finding, the researchers suggested that OES from peers might enhance levels of trust among peer colleagues and serve as a compensation measure for those who feel let down by their organisation's management. These important buffering effects of OES are consistent with earlier research in that field (LaRocco, House and French, 1980; Graf, 1986) and show that many police officers prefer to emotionally open up to others working at their organisation. However, these desires are not applicable to all officers. Some do not want to talk about traumas they have experienced (Pienaar and Rothmann, 2003; Stanton, Parsa and Austenfeld, 2002) as they favour avoiding emotional confrontation (Dwyer, 1992; Page and Jacobs, 2011), consider OES as insensitive (Burleson, 2008) or ineffective (Latscha, 2005).

Notwithstanding, research on the effects of OES on SGs is rare (Leino et al., 2011). Declercq et al. (2007) and Vanheule et al. (2008) explored the effects of different support types on SGs after the experience of a critical incident which mostly applied to WV in their study. Interestingly, emotional support exacerbated the negative effects on SGs' emotional well-being as it was found that reassurance, assisting in clarifying problems and encouraging SGs to hold on was positively related with both the development of PTSD (Declercq et al., 2007) and burnout (Vanheule et al., 2008). The researchers presumed that victimised SGs try very hard to repress any negative

emotions and memories concerning critical incidents and that emotional support creates a risk of bringing the incident to their unwanted attention again. However, an important limitation of their studies is that the researchers were not clear about the source of emotional support. That is, the researchers included the SGs' organisations as a provider of emotional support but also SGs' family and friends. Consequently, the impact of *organisational* emotional support on SGs after WV victimisation was not measured discretely so its effects remain unclear. In addition, a study conducted by Gill (2004) revealed that RSGs wished for better support from their retail store managers (SMs). Gill's finding is supported by Terpstra (2016) who showed that a lack of management support can cause stress in SGs employed in security sectors others than retail. Unfortunately, Gill's study does not reveal what type of support his sample meant and in what situations the RSGs wished for support so his findings are of little help to this research. Lastly, Porter et al. (2015) found that the experience of WV made the majority (75%, n=550) of SGs in their study (100%, n=733) want more support from the security industry. This desire was expressed particularly by those SGs who worked in retail. Even though Porter et al.'s study indicates that support was desired by SGs after violent incidents, it does not reveal what support type their SG sample wished for.

To the author's knowledge, only one study has been published so far which explicitly aimed to explore the effects of OES on SGs' emotional well-being. Poisat et al. (2014: 316) investigated the impact of OES on SGs' susceptibility to burnout after robbery victimisation ('willing to listen to their [SGs'] personal problems'). The researchers distributed a quantitative questionnaire to a small sample of SGs (100%, n=65) and found that the majority felt let down by their supervisors (60%, n=39) and co-workers (58%, n=38) when they needed to talk about their victimisation experience. This made SGs draw on the help of relatives and friends instead whose support contributed in reducing the susceptibility to burnout. However, in those cases in which SGs did receive emotional support from co-workers, an improvement in emotional well-being and lower levels of burnout were detected. Poisat and colleagues' finding is in line with other research indicating that work-related distress is more likely to be reduced by *organisational* emotional support rather than by sources of informal emotional

support (e.g. family or friends) (Moynihan and Pandey, 2008; Kaufman and Beehr, 1989; Rosen and Moghadam 1988; Rosen and Moghadam, 1990). One reason which has been suggested is that intra-organisational emotional support could better assist victims in developing and sustaining problem-focused coping strategies than extra-organisational emotional support (Leather et al., 1998). Still, little is known as to why SGs seem to prefer organisational over informal emotional support. Therefore, Poisat et al. (2014), De Puy et al. (2015) and Nalla and Cobbina (2016) emphasise the importance of further research on the effects of OES on security personnel.

Notwithstanding, OES requires employees' willingness to accept the offered support or to seek OES (Levant, 2011). Such willingness presupposes that SGs perceive themselves as victims but this status can be associated with weakness or physical inferiority to perpetrators. As already discussed under section 2.3.1.2 ('Emotional Consequences'), these attributes might conflict with SGs' masculine role expectations in their particular occupational culture which implies the willingness to engage in dangerous situations or to accept violence (Button, 2007). Not observing these cultural norms might endanger SGs' status within (and possibly beyond) their occupational group. Thus, social constraints might have led to the situation that not all of the SGs who participated in the aforementioned studies admitted to their need for OES (Reilly et al., 2014). Lastly, it is possible that some of those SGs developed resilience towards violence during their (occupational) life-time or might have been unable to express their emotions properly as a result of what is called 'alexithymia' (also referred to as 'emotional illiteracy') which is 'the lack of significant vocabulary to describe feelings' (Knight, 2014: 26) and can affect how individuals understand and express their emotions. These phenomena also need to be considered in this study.

To conclude, the majority of literature suggests that organisational support and particularly organisational *emotional* support reduces the emotional distress caused by WV incidents which is why it is often of high importance to victims (Dunn, 2011). This applies to employees in the general workforce but also to employees in the police service. However, research on the effects of OES on victimised SGs is minimal and their results are rather inconsistent. Beyond that, nothing could be found on the effects of

OES on RSGs. However, knowing more about the perceived effects of OES on RSGs would help to better understand what factors are important to them in a support situation and consequently might help to enhance the effectiveness of organisational support networks. The next section considers previous research in relation to WV victims' motivations for using different types of self-protection strategies.

2.5 Workplace Violence Victims' Motivations and Efforts to Avoid Repeat Victimization

Since the 1960s, research into the phenomenon of fear of crime has been well established in criminology (Guedes, Domingos and Cardoso, 2018; Brunton-Smith, 2011; Hale, 1996). Defined as 'a rational or irrational state of alarm or anxiety engendered by the belief that one is in danger of criminal victimization' (McLaughlin, 2013: 175), fear of crime has been repeatedly found to be linked to people's perceptions of disorder (Brunton-Smith, 2011; Farrall, Jackson and Gray, 2009; Goodey, 2005; Vanderveen, 2006; Smolej and Kivivuori, 2006). In particular, people's own experience of crime can be a powerful predictor of fear of crime (Roccato, 2007; Fox, Nobles and Piquero, 2009; Dull and Wint, 1997; Weinrath and Gartrell, 1996; Kilias and Clerici, 2000) so that the experience of violence victimisation is capable of having a negative impact on fear of crime (Roccato, 2007; Collins, 2011; Gates et al., 2011; Barnish, 2004).

Fear of crime, in turn, was often found to evoke self-protection behaviour in form of avoidance in the hope of reducing the likelihood of repeat victimisation (Rader, 2017; Doran and Burgess, 2012; Gilchrist, Bannister, Ditton and Farrall, 1998; Skogan, 2011). Avoidance behaviour can take different forms. Some victims avoid certain types of activities (Stanko and Hobdell, 1993; Mitchell and Everly, 1997; Spry, 1998), whereas others avoid the area where the crime took place or venues and areas which appear similar (Dinisman and Moroz, 2017; Doerner and Lab, 2012; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Stutzenberger and Fisher, 2014; Maguire, 2010). Some victims were even found to withdraw from the community entirely (Skogan,

1986) and many people left their jobs when they were assaulted at their workplace (De Puy, Romain-Glassey, Gut, Wild, Del'Eva and Asal, 2012; Di Martino et al., 2003; SHRM, 2004; LeBlanc and Barling, 2005; Stutzenberger and Fisher, 2014; Tucker and Loughlin, 2006).

In relation to the security industry, it is known that this occupational group suffers from a considerably high staff turnover with figures between 100% and 400% (Nalla and Cobbina, 2016; Security Magazine, 2004; Zisner, 2011; Wakefield, 2003; Celayix Workforce Management Solutions, 2015; Fickes, 2006; Löfstrand et al., 2016), meaning that a security company's workforce is entirely exchanged between one and four times in the course of one year. Button (2007) as well as Hainmüller and Lemnitzer (2003) identified low levels of commitment in their SG sample, expressed by a lack of loyalty, decreased work motivation and increased employee turnover. The researchers also found that their samples' poor commitment seemed to originate from reasons such as long working hours, lack of breaks or low pay. However, Porter et al.'s (2015) research revealed that the experience of WV can also be a driving-factor for SGs to leave their jobs. The qualitative data in their research shows that a few SGs thought about leaving the security industry and some SGs actively sought less dangerous security jobs whereas most of their interviewees gave the impression that they were still motivated to do the job. Interestingly, the interview data in Porter et al.'s study differed strongly to the quantitative data. Their survey showed that only 16% (n=117) of all respondents (100%, n=733) felt that experiencing WV makes no difference but 34% (n=249) believed that WV makes SGs think about changing to a less dangerous security job and 65% (n=476) thought that WV makes SGs want to leave the security industry. In addition, Löfstrand et al. (2016) found that some of their sample of RSGs showed some form of avoidance behaviour as they refrained from intervening in violent situations out of the fear of catching an infectious disease. Still, despite Löfstrand et al.'s and Porter et al.'s efforts, not much is known about if and to what extent fear attributable to WV experiences can trigger different forms of avoidance behaviours in SGs, and particularly in RSGs, which is why further research in that area is required (Asencio, Merrill and Steiner, 2014).

Notwithstanding, some victims develop a 'self-protection mentality' (Hopkins and Fox, 2013: 12) showing that fear can also drive victims to apply more active forms of self-protection behaviour (Allen, 2018; Rader, 2017; Doran and Burgess, 2012; Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). In that respect, victims' acquisition of personal protective equipment (PPE) such as weapons was often observed (Asencio et al. 2014; Schwarzer, 2016; Nansel, Overpeck, Haynie, Ruan and Scheidt, 2003; Maguire, 2010; Kleck, Kovandzic, Saber and Hauser, 2011; Hopkins and Fox, 2013; Khoury-Kassabri, Astor and Benbenishty, 2007; Stanko and Hobdell, 1993). On the other hand, there also exists a substantial amount of literature which could not find any link between former victimisation and weapon acquisition (DeFronzo, 1979; Stinchcombe, Adams, Heimer, Scheppele, Smith and Taylor, 1978; Williams and McGrath, 1978; Cao, Cullen and Link, 1997; Jiobu and Curry, 2001).

When it comes to usage of weapons within the security profession, Jenkins et al. (2012) found that a high amount of their sample of protective service workers (100%, n=1,158) carried weapons at work for self-protection purposes. The data went on to reveal that 72% (n=834) carried firearms, 41% (n=475) maces, 26% (n=302) knives and 65% (n=753) weapons used to hit. Beyond that, Jenkins and colleagues showed that 4% (n=2,206) of their overall sample (100%, n=55,158 US workers) had experienced WV. Unfortunately, the researchers do not reveal whether any of the protective service employees worked in the retail security industry and, if so, how many of those had experiences of WV. Furthermore, they missed the opportunity to investigate the reasons as to why some of their sample felt the need to undertake active forms of SPMs whilst others did not. In addition, even though the usage of weapons is not permitted for security personnel in the UK (Button and Park, 2009), Porter et al. (2015) found that many of their sample of British door staff expressed the desire to be equipped with pepper-spray and batons and Monaghan (2003) revealed that some door staff are already equipped with concealed weapons, such as expandable batons and knuckle-dusters. Beyond that, more than half of Button's (2007) sample of frontline RSGs were in favour of being equipped with non-lethal weapons such as truncheons, CS gas or pepper sprays in order to better defend themselves. Conversely, a large number were concerned that such weapons might be used against them or

lead to an escalation in violence and one participant held the belief that security staff should be capable of dealing with perpetrators unarmed.

Although not officially classified as weapons, certain legal tools can be misused as weapons and thus be similarly dangerous if used against a person. Button (2007) discovered that some of his RSGs were carrying torches in an unofficial capacity in order to use them as defensive weapons. The potential misuse of legal tools as weapons was also observed by Monaghan (2003) whose sample of door staff considered using their radios to hit perpetrators in violent situations. Beyond that, one of Button's (2007: 108) participants indicated that some guards carry tools other than torches for self-protection purposes by mentioning that he encountered guards who came 'to work with everything bar a sawn-off shotgun'. Unfortunately, Button's study does not reveal what other tools were carried by RSGs and if or to what extent RSGs' equipping themselves with defensive tools was attributable to personally experienced violence.

However, the acquisition of weapons or legal tools are not the only active security responses which can be taken. Jenkins et al. (2012) found that more than a quarter (27%, n=313) of their sample of protective service workers (100%, n=1,158) carried personal alarm devices at work and some of Nalla and Cobbina's (2016) SG sample expressed their desire for equipment such as bulletproof vests, whereas Monaghan's (2003) sample of door staff were already using protective clothing during their shifts. Protection gear in the form of stab vests was also requested by a few SGs in Porter et al.'s (2015) study but more wished for radios, body/head cams, red-dye sprays and handcuffs. This is consistent with other research which already observed the carrying of handcuffs in some UK security personnel (Ralph, 2004; Walker, 2004) and even in the retail security industry (Button, 2007). Some of Löfstrand et al.'s (2016) RSG sample wore hand gloves at work in order to be better protected from contagious diseases. Furthermore, it was observed that some people start participating in self-defence courses in response to violence victimisation (Cubbage and Smith, 2009; Monaghan, 2000; Liska, Sanchirico and Reed, 1988; Krahn and Kennedy, 1985). A number of Nalla and Cobbina's (2016) SG sample expressed the desire to receive self-

defence training in order to be better prepared for violent incidents. The literature on door staff shows that acquiring fighting skills through martial arts helped them to gain confidence and self-assurance (Monaghan, 2000). Aside from fighting skills, Tomkins (2003) found that door staff emphasise the importance of physically large bodies in order to deter aggressive customers. This is consistent with Monaghan's (2000) research whose sample of door staff emphasised the importance of thoroughly trained, muscular bodies as fighting skills are suspected by potential opponents. Monaghan concluded that door staff's well-trained bodies seemed to help them to maintain control in the venues they were working at which is why they often considered body size and physical strength to be important protective factors against WV (Winlow et al., 2001; DeMichele and Tewksbury, 2004; Swords, 2012). Lastly, two-thirds of Porter et al.'s (2015) SG sample (66%, n=465) expressed the need for more SG backup at their workplaces in order to be better protected from WV.

However, again, SGs' occupational culture and the concept of resilience must be considered when evaluating the results of the studies above as they might have had an impact on SGs' security responses. Also, the concept of hegemonic masculinity might have played a role when SGs were being asked to reveal their SPMs. Following the masculinity stereotype, men are discouraged from being vulnerable or fearful (Davies, 2011; Goodey, 1997) as such emotions are attributable to women only (Goodey, 2005). As a result, some SGs might have been reluctant to admit to any SPMs following WV victimisation as 'real men' are not worried about future assaults and do not need anything but their fists to defend themselves. Furthermore, due to personality traits or habituation effects, some SGs might not have experienced much fear (anymore) after violent encounters which might have inhibited their desire for security responses of any kind.

Ultimately, this section has illustrated the effects of fear of repeat violence victimisation on people's self-protection behaviour. It was shown that fear can be a powerful motivator in exercising avoidance or withdrawal behaviours but also for more active forms of self-protection. Different types of SPMs were also observed in security personnel. However, little is known about RSGs' avoidance and withdrawal

behaviours at work as well as about their misuse of legal tools as weapons or their application of other types of PPE. Furthermore, nothing is known about RSGs' use of weapons for self-protection purposes or their application of security responses other than physical protection devices, which is why research on SGs' range of responses to WV victimisation is demanded (Porter et al., 2015). In addition, nothing is known regarding to what extent RSGs' self-protection behaviour is attributable to fear of repeat WV victimisation and about their motivations to choose some SPMs above others (Schreck, Berg, Fisher and Wilcox, 2018). Knowing more about RSGs' usage of SPMs seems important as it might help to better understand their motivations for such measures and consequently might assist in improving RSG training.

2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, this literature review was segmented in four parts which dealt with victims' experiences of, and reactions to, WV. In the first part, the scope of WV for this thesis was determined which is the exploration of physical, external violence that occurs whilst RSGs are on duty. Furthermore, it was illustrated that only little research has explored the extent of WV victimisation against RSGs and that they are at high risk of WV. The second part showed that WV can have serious physical and emotional consequences and that not solely the violent act but also a number of CFs can shape WV victims' emotional well-being. Part number three outlined that OES can be of high importance to WV victims. However, research on the effects of OES on victimised SGs is minimal and their results are rather inconsistent. Beyond that, no existing literature could be found on the effects of OES on RSGs. The last section demonstrated the power of fear of repeat violence victimisation as a driving-factor for violence victims' self-protection behaviour. It was identified that both proactive and inactive forms of SPMs are used by violence victims, but only little could be found on RSGs' avoidance and withdrawal behaviours at work as well as their misuse of legal tools as weapons or their application of other types of PPE. Furthermore, no literature could be found on RSGs' use of weapons for self-protection purposes or on their application of security responses other than physical protection devices. No literature was found in relation

to what extent RSGs' self-protection behaviour is attributable to fear of repeat WV victimisation and nothing about their motivations to choose some SPMs above others. However, knowing more about the range of factors that have an impact on RSGs' emotional well-being during an assault, the perceived effects of OES on RSGs and about RSGs' usage of SPMs is seen as important. Further knowledge in that field might not only help to better understand where the focus of RSG training and support networks should be but it may also enhance the effectiveness of organisational support networks. Having reviewed the literature around victims' experiences of, and reactions to, WV, the next chapter develops an explanatory framework to guide the development and analysis of RSGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV in this thesis.

Chapter 3

Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

The following chapter presents the theoretical framework which guides this thesis. The chapter begins by outlining cognitive appraisal theory (CAT) which helps to better understand differences in the development of retail security guards' (RSGs) emotions after a workplace violence (WV) event by considering their subjective appraisals and interpretation of the event. This is followed by an introduction of social exchange theory (SET) which focuses on the motivations and rules of social interactions between individuals and helps to understand the processes behind RSGs' behavioural reactions to their companies' treatment. Afterwards, this chapter presents organisational support theory (OST) which is inextricably linked with SET and assists in understanding RSGs' emotional and occupational reactions to their employers' lack or provision of support. Chapter 3 closes by introducing the concept of functional and dysfunctional worry of crime (CFDWC) which helps to better allocate RSGs' different types of self-protection behaviours to RSGs' different types of worries.

3.2 Cognitive Appraisal Theory: Explaining the Linkage between Cognition and the Development of Emotions

Emotions form a principal component of human daily life and are defined as 'any short-term evaluative, affective, intentional, psychological state, including happiness, sadness, disgust, and other inner feelings' (Oxford Dictionary of Psychology, 2015: 244). Positive and negative emotions determine whether relationships are initiated, maintained or terminated which is why they are seen as a fundamental feature of humanity (K S Aune and R K Aune, 1999). For centuries, academics have had numerous

debates about how emotions emerge and whether they are subjected to cognition or are uncontrollable forces (Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts, 2002; Dalgleish and Bramham, 1999). In recent years it has been the cognitive approach which has gained most attention by psychologists. In 1960, Magda Arnold was the first academic who assumed an appraisal component in the study of emotions (Scherer, Schorr and Johnstone, 2001; Reisenzein, 2006). Her cognitive appraisal approach suggests 'that emotions do not arise automatically from particular events but rather are based on individuals' cognitive processing of those experiences' (Bippus and Young, 2012: 177). Therefore, people might appraise and interpret events differently and thus experience different emotional outcomes (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985). Moreover, according to Lazarus (1991), differences in appraisals are attributable to variations in environmental as well as personality factors. Hence, the two main assumptions of this approach are '(1) that emotion follows cognition, and (2) that appraisals express a relation between person and external environment' (Matthews et al., 2002: 256).

Based on Arnold's idea, Lazarus (1966) presented probably the most famous and influential theory in the field of cognitive appraisal research (Power and Dalgleish, 1997; Scherer, 1999a). In his original work Lazarus assumes that the appraisal process occurs in two stages. In the primary stage, the individual appraises whether the event has any meaning for its sense of self, goals or values (Bippo and Young, 2012). For example, if the event is appraised as threatening or harmful, the individual might evaluate the event initially as stressful. In the secondary stage, the individual evaluates the sufficiency of its coping resources. However, both appraisal processes work in conjunction with each other: an event which has been initially evaluated as stressful will be emotionally less significant to the individual if they evaluate their coping resources as sufficient whereas a stressful event will be emotionally more significant if it is thought to overwhelm the individual's coping resources (Power and Dalgleish, 2007).

Cognitive appraisal theorists have applied different methodologies in order to investigate the relationship between appraisal and emotion. Some researchers tend to ask their participants to rate their experienced emotions on a set of scales (Mauro,

Sato and Tucker, 1992), whereas others prefer to observe their participants in naturally occurring situations or conduct experiments (Scherer and Ceschi, 1997). However, Scherer (1999a) reviewed a vast number of studies in that field and found that the most frequently used method was to ask participants about their emotional perceptions of past events and let them talk openly about their experienced appraisal processes during these events. Regardless of the applied method, many studies which examined cognitive elements in emotional development have provided substantial evidence for the cognitive appraisal approach (Manthiou, Kang and Hyun, 2017; Moors, 2017; Devonport and Lane, 2006; Schmidt, Tinti, Levine and Testa, 2010; Bippus and Young, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012; Scherer, 1999a; Scherer, 1999b; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Ellsworth and Smith, 1988).

However, CATs are open to some criticism. The main criticism is the difficulty in testing CATs empirically as the appraisal process can only be measured *after* the appraisal process has finished. As the time interval between appraisal and emotion appears too short to observe, researchers tend to rely on self-reports so that participants can only provide information on their appraisals when the emotion has already been evoked (Reisenzein, 1995). Closely related to this, researchers have to rely on participants' memory in such cases which might be biased by distortions and shaped by unconscious processes (Parkinson and Manstead, 1992). Furthermore, Watson and Spence (2005) criticise Lazarus' CAT as too rigid as emotions could be cognitively re-constructed. In that context, Hofmann, Asnaani, Vonk, Sawyer and Fang (2012) reviewed 269 meta-analyses examining the efficacy of cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT) which aims to alleviate mental, psychological and emotional distress in humans by changing their cognitive and behavioural responses (Arch and Craske, 2009). Hofmann and colleagues (2012: 436) concluded that the 'evidence-base of CBT is very strong' showing that many humans are able to re-appraise past events and change their emotions concerning past experiences even years after the event. The aforementioned criticism needs to be considered when exploring participants' development of emotional responses.

To conclude, Lazarus' CAT aims to explore the development of social emotions by acknowledging subjective appraisals as well as personal meanings (Garcia-Prieto and Scherer, 2006). In addition, this theory aims to understand and predict differences in emotional states and behaviours among different individuals who experienced similar events (Matthews et al., 2002). For these reasons, CAT seems to constitute a particularly useful theoretical approach when exploring differences in RSGs' emotional responses to similar events (WV incidents). Additionally, CAT is believed to be of help when answering the first sub-research question of this thesis asking: how do cognitive appraisals shape the development of emotional responses in victimised RSGs? Even though CAT has often been applied to police officers (e.g. Esteves and Gomes, 2013; Colwell, Lyons, Bruce, Garner and Miller, 2011; Paulsen, 2008; Tong, Bishop, Enkelmann, Why, Diong, Khader and Ang, 2007), no studies could be identified which made use of this theory when researching SGs and RSGs in particular. This is surprising as SGs can be exposed to similar work situations as police officers (Van Steden et al., 2015; Nalla and Cobbina, 2016). Thus, applying CAT to the security profession might produce further evidence on the appraisal processes of an under-researched occupational group.

3.3 Social Exchange Theory and Organisational Support

Theory: Explaining the Linkage between

Organisational Support and Employee Commitment

The next section introduces social exchange theory (SET) and organisational support theory (OST) which are closely linked with each other. These theories aim to explain the motivations behind and the effects of social exchange processes between employees and the organisations they are working for. SET and OST will guide this research when focusing on RSGs' perceptions of, and reactions to, organisational emotional support (OES).

3.3.1 Social Exchange Theory

The literature on OES (Chapter 2, section 2.4) shows that organisations' provision (or lack) of emotional support after WV incidents seem to cause an emotional and behavioural response in victimised employees. Thus, it appears as if companies' behaviours in these cases trigger an exchange process between an organisation and its victimised worker. In 1958, the sociologist George Homans developed social exchange theory (SET) which tries to explain the motivations and rules of social interactions between individuals. However, at a later stage, SET developed and was also used to explain the motivations and rules of social interactions between employees and their employer (Van Knippenberg and Sleebos, 2006). The basic assumption of SET is that parties conduct a trade of social resources such as love, status, information or services in order to receive some kind of reward out of this social exchange (Cole, Schaninger and Harris, 2002; U G Foa and E B Foa, 1974; 1980). This view is supported by Blau (1968) who states that the desire to satisfy some want is involved in most social exchange processes regardless of whether the desire is conscious or unconscious. This is why SET is also called 'individual self-interest theory' (Homans, 1958).

According to SET, social exchange has to follow certain exchange rules in order to achieve a trustful and loyal relationship (Emerson, 1976). The most important rule in exchange processes is reciprocity which means that the action of one individual is contingent on the behaviour of another individual. One action carried out by one person leads to a reaction by the counterpart so that *something which has been received has to be returned*. This is why the reciprocity process is assumed to generate moral obligations (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). These moral obligations are rather vague as it is not clearly specified what social resource has to be returned and when. This decision must be left to the discretion of the other party (Blau, 1968). However, reciprocation is expected by both parties and serves as a sanction tool by indirectly threatening the other party with being accused of ingratitude where social resources are not returned. If and to what extent failure in reciprocation is punished depends on the parties' standpoints but Zafirovski (2005) states that it certainly jeopardises the relationship in the long-run. When presenting OST below, it will be shown that the

concept of reciprocity is strongly supported by research evidence. Social exchange requires trust. One party needs to rely on the other by trusting that an appropriate reciprocation takes place in an appropriate time. As trust must be built over time, social exchange between parties starts slowly with minor transactions involving only little risk. Once both parties have proven their trustworthiness often enough, the initially reserved relationship develops more and more into a trustful relationship (Zafirovski, 2005).

In sum, SET is concerned with the examination of social relations between individuals. This theory assumes that social exchange parties enter relationships for conscious or unconscious reasons with the expectation of gaining an advantage for themselves. In order to achieve their goal, social resources are exchanged. By reciprocating these social resources, moral obligations are created. In cases of successful social exchange processes, relationships grow and become more trustful as the exchange parties observe that their social 'investment' pays off, which is why SET is said to focus on long-term social relations (Cook, 2000). Thus, SET assists in explaining the growth and decline of exchange-based relations (Lawler and Thye, 1999) and according to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) it is one of the most influential theoretical concepts in helping to understand workplace behaviour. For that reason, SET is of particular relevance to this research as it helps to understand the processes behind RSGs' reaction to their companies' treatment. In order to illustrate SET more effectively, its main thoughts are visualised in **Figure 1**.

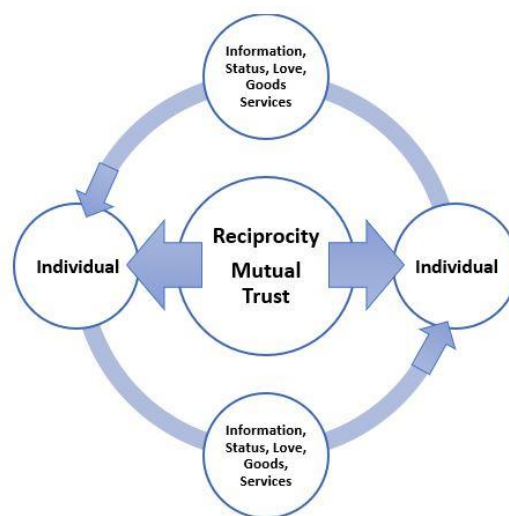


Figure 1. Social Exchange Process (Homans, 1958)

3.3.2 Organisational Support Theory

The concept of SET is deeply rooted in organisational support theory (OST) which proposes that 'employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being' (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa, 1986: 501). These 'global beliefs' constitute the central construct of the theory and are referred to as perceived organisational support (POS) (Baran, Rhoades-Shanock and Miller, 2012). In other words, POS is *the degree* to which employees *subjectively believe* their work organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being. Employees' belief in their organisation's support is evoked when they feel their organisation's readiness to reward increased work effort or its willingness to provide help in overcharging or stressful situations (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). In sum, the central aim of OST is the development, nature and the outcomes of POS (Baran et al., 2012).

In 2002, Rhoades and Eisenberger reviewed more than 70 studies published between 1986 and 2001 in order to identify the main antecedents of POS. Subsequently, Baran et al. (2012) continued Rhoades and Eisenberger's work by focusing on the time span between 2002 and 2011 which resulted in the analysis of 147 studies. Lastly, Ahmed, Ismail, Amin, Ramzan and Khan (2012) screened the POS literature and worked through 43 studies. Overall, these reviews show that the main antecedents of POS are (1) organisational rewards and job conditions, (2) fairness and (3) supervisor support. Once one or more of these antecedents are present, employees perceive their organisation as supportive. As a consequence, employees are believed to develop higher levels of 'commitment' towards their supportive workplaces which is the bond between an employee and the employing organisation (Lambert and Hogan, 2009).

According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), there exist two major views on how commitment is created. Either through 'continuance commitment' where the bond is based on rather tangible investments (e.g. fringe benefits or pay levels) or through 'affective commitment' which 'stems from an emotional attachment to the organization and is especially sensitive to work experiences' (Griffin and Hepburn,

2005: 612). Affective commitment expresses itself in employees' increased levels of *loyalty* and *identification* with their organisation ('i.e. pride in the organization and internalization of the goals of the organization') and a desire for *involvement* in the organisation ('i.e. the willingness to make a personal effort for the sake of the organization') (Lambert, Hogan and Keenan, 2015: 6). This research focuses on RSGs' affective commitment towards their employing security company and the retail client because this study is interested in RSGs' reactions to organisational *emotional* support following violent work experiences.

Research frequently shows that POS results in increased levels of loyalty (Wong, 2017; Ahmed et al., 2012), feelings of organisational identification (He and Brown, 2013; Edwards, 2009) and involvement of employees. Employees' involvement expressed itself in the desire (C R Darolia, Kumari and S Darolia, 2010; Wayne, Shore and Liden, 1997) as well as in the feeling of personal obligation (Marique, Stinglhamber, Desmette, Caesens and De Zanet, 2012; Arshadi, 2011) to take care of their organisation's welfare by achieving its goals and objectives (Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart and Adis, 2015; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades, 2001). Employees' caring was often reflected in positive job attitudes (Ahmed et al., 2012; Seetton, Bennett and Liden, 1996), increased work performance (Caesens, Marique, Hanin and Stinglhamber, 2016; Riketta, 2005; Boateng, 2014), reduced absenteeism (Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Hellman, Witt and Hilton, 1993; Meyer and Allen, 1997), reduced withdrawal behaviour (Krishnan and Mary, 2012), reduced employee turnover (Kalidass and Bahron, 2015; Yun, Hwang and Lynch, 2015; S Malik and G Malik, 2015; Riketta, 2005) and led to a high-quality relationship between employee and employer (Kurtessis et al., 2015; S Malik and G Malik, 2015). Hence, there exists conclusive evidence showing that employees reciprocate the receipt of one or more main antecedents of POS with higher levels of organisational commitment resulting in positive work attitudes and positive work behaviours. Due to the frequently observed reciprocal effect between POS and commitment in OST, there is weight to Baran et al.'s (2012: 124) view that OST is 'an application of social-exchange theory to the employer-employee relationship'.

In this thesis, the focus is on the POS antecedent 'supervisor support' and on the question of the perceived effects of this support type on employees' affective commitment. The term 'supervisor support' in OST raises two challenges: firstly, who counts as a *supervisor* and secondly, what types of *support* the term comprises in OST. To begin with, according to Greenglass, Burke and Konarski (1997) and Woo and Chelladurai (2012), the term *supervisor* refers to the emotional, informational and/or instrumental support that comes from only supervisors and co-workers. However, recent research on OST suggests that the constructs 'management', 'supervisors' and 'co-workers' cannot exist in isolation and that all contribute to the employee's perception of organisational support (Ahmed, Ismail, Amin and Ramzan, 2012; Chou and Robert, 2008; Cole et al., 2002; Woo, 2009). This interpretation is adapted so that all three organisational components (management, supervisors and co-workers) are subsumed under the OST term 'supervisor' and are considered when OST is applied in this thesis.

Moreover, it is essential to clarify the term *support* in light of OST. Baran et al. (2012) and Yoon and Lim (1999) state that in OST the term 'social support' must be seen in separation from organisational support (and POS). However, their view appears too hasty and too categorical due to the following reasons: OST literature lacks a definition of the term 'supervisor support' so the extent and meaning of 'support' is not determined. The theory simply reveals that perceived supervisor support is 'the degree to which supervisors value their [employees'] contributions and care about their [employees'] well-being (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades, 2002: 565). Hence, the absence of a proper definition leaves space for interpretation. This view is shared by other researchers in that field who do consider 'social support' as part of organisational support (and perceived organisational support) and thus applied this approach in their studies, too (Woo and Chelladurai, 2012; Greenglass et al., 1997).

Lastly, and most importantly, 'social support' within the organisation was frequently found to have the same impact on employees' job satisfaction and commitment as other antecedents of POS (Wang, 2014; Um and Harison, 1998; Lobburi and

Kokkrabue, 2012; Woo and Chelladurai, 2012; Mor Barak, Nissly and Levin, 2001). Several researchers theorised that 'social support' has the potential to reduce levels of work-related stress, to improve physical and emotional well-being and to buffer the relationship between stressor and strain (Beehr, 1995; Burke and Greenglass, 1993; Marcelissen, Winnubst, Bunk and De Wolff, 1988). Consequently, the term 'social support' is subsumed under the OST term 'support' and is considered when OST is applied in this thesis. Taken together, based on findings in the OST literature, the POS antecedent 'supervisor support' comprises management, supervisors and peer-colleagues, who exercise social support (emotional social support).

To conclude, this section has illustrated the theoretical concepts behind the social dynamics between employee and employer as related to organisational support. OST – as well as its underlying components of SET – are considered to be of prime importance for this research as it explores RSGs' perception of OES and their attitudinal and behavioural responses towards their organisations. Components of SET and OST are believed to be essential elements in understanding differences in RSGs' work behaviours and work attitudes. In addition, OST is believed to help answer the second sub-research question of this thesis which asks: how do RSGs who are in need of OES experience (a lack of) support and what does this experience mean for their organisational commitment? Even though OST has been extensively researched in a variety of occupations, it has received only minimal scholarly attention in security professions such as the police (Boateng, 2014). However, the author is not aware that OST has ever been applied to the security industry and to the retail security industry in particular. This is surprising as the literature review has shown that the industry suffers from a high staff turnover. Thus, a closer qualitative examination of RSGs' reasons for their development of high or low levels of organisational commitment appears necessary (Yun et al., 2015; S Malik and G Malik, 2015), in order to find out to what extent organisational support networks influence RSGs' loyalty and work motivation. The next section presents the CFDWC which aims to allocate people's different types of self-protection behaviours to different types of worry groups.

3.4 Concept of Functional and Dysfunctional Worry of Crime: A Categorisation of Worry and different Types of Self-Protection Behaviours

The literature on the development of security responses (Chapter 2, section 2.5) suggests fear to be a strong driving-factor for people's self-protection behaviour. Fear as a motivating force (or often referred to as *worry*) constitutes the main element in Jackson and Gray's (2010) concept of functional and dysfunctional worry of crime (CFDWC). Their concept challenges the conceptualisation of worry as a solely adverse emotion and argues that it can trigger not only negative but also positive self-protection behaviours. Based on that idea, Jackson and Gray identified three worry-groups. The first worry-group is formed by *functionally* worried individuals. This group (a) worries about crime, (b) takes precautions that make them feel safer and (c) judge their quality of life as unaffected by either their worries or their precautions. The researchers argue that worry can be seen as functional if it motivates individuals to develop a 'defence against crime involving straightforward adaptations and behaviours', a problem-solving strategy that helps them to 'exert control over perceived risks' and prepare for a threat (Gray, Jackson and Farrall, 2011: 78). As this type of worry motivates a protective activity against future harm and promotes beneficial action, Jackson and Gray (2010: 2) consider functional worry to be a 'good thing' and define it as 'an experience that motivates precaution' (Jackson and Gray, 2010: 16). At this point it has to be noted that, according to the authors, avoidance behaviours (e.g. avoiding certain streets at night) are considered as a proactive precautionary measure against crime because people 'do' something about it. The second worry-group consists of *dysfunctionally* worried individuals who (a) are worried about crime (like the functional worry-group) but (b) have their quality of life reduced by either their worries, their precautions or both. The worry experienced by this group stands in contrast to the functionally worried group as it is defined as 'an experience that, in and of itself, damages quality of life' (Jackson and Gray, 2010: 16). This is why Jackson and Gray (2010: 2) consider this worry as a 'bad thing' because it motivates individuals to withdraw or disengage from normal routine activities (Hopkins and Fox, 2013). The

third and last worry-group contains *unworried* individuals who are not worried about crime regardless of whether they take precautions or not or if they judge their quality of life to be affected or not.

Jackson and Gray (2010) tested their concept empirically and found that the experience of crime made victims withdraw (dysfunctional worry) rather than making them develop a self-protection strategy in order to avoid repeat victimisation (functional worry). This finding was confirmed a year later when Gray et al. (2011) re-tested the concept. Similarly, Quach (2016) discovered that worry about future crime seemed to make some burglary victims implement self-protection measures (SPMs) (e.g. locks) but also found that these precautions increased these victims' worries and thus reduced their quality of life (dysfunctional worry). In contrast, Hopkins and Fox (2013) found that the experience of crime made their sample of shop owners implement physical security measures and apply precautionary measures (functional worry). However, concerning protective service occupations, no study could be found.

Jackson and Gray's theoretical concept appears very useful for the current thesis as it aims to explain self-protection behaviour from an emotional standpoint. However, it also holds some limitations which must be addressed. To begin with, Jackson and Gray focus exclusively on *worry* as an emotional driving-factor for self-protection behaviour. Notwithstanding, other studies found that victimisation can cause many other emotions such as sadness, frustration, helplessness, grief or guilt (Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime, 2005; Di Martino et al., 2003; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010; Wasserman and Ellis, 2007; Mayhew, 2000; Warshaw, 2011). In particular, aggression was often identified as an emotional response to violent victimisation (Reijntjes, Kamphuis, Prinzie, Boelen, Van der Schoot and Telch, 2011; Flannery, Singer and Wester, 2001; Salmivalli and Nieminen, 2002; Flannery, Wester and Singer, 2004; Mitchell and Everly, 1997; Scaramella et al., 2011). Moreover, some researchers argue that even if worry is found to be the initial emotional reaction in victims, it might transform into other emotions or trigger their production (Doran and Burgess, 2012; Dalglish and Bramham, 1999). Most importantly, some studies observed the application of SPMs in victims of crime but

could not find any signs of worry (Lane, Cunningham and Ellen, 2004; Kuntsche and Klingeman, 2004). Instead, some security responses were driven by anger and indignation as these emotions produced the desire for revenge (Garland, 1990; Hartnagel and Templeton, 2012; Anderson and Hunter, 2012). This is in line with the literature on emotions emphasising that motivational energy derives from all emotions, not just worry (Turner and Stets, 2005). Consequently, victimisation seems to hold the potential to create emotions other than worry, which raises the question as to whether crime victims' usage of SPMs is only triggered by worry.

To conclude, this section has illustrated how the experience of crime elicits different types of worry (functional, dysfunctional and unworried) which can be accompanied by the adaptation of proactive and avoidance (functional) or inactive (dysfunctional) self-protection behaviours. To date, only a few studies could be identified using Jackson and Gray's CFDWC and those studies which exist applied that concept exclusively to community settings, with the exception of Hopkins and Fox (2013). Thus, extending the CFDWC to an organisational setting appears reasonable. Also, by exploring RSGs' self-protection behaviour through the lens of CFDWC it is expected to gain further knowledge on the cognitive and behavioural processes involved in the construction of emotional responses to crime and how they are mobilised and expressed; an area which has been widely overlooked by the criminological literature so far (Gray et al., 2011; Hopkins and Fox, 2013). Lastly, it is believed that making use of the CFDWC helps to answer sub-research question number three, which asks: how does worry attributable to WV incidents shape the development of functional and dysfunctional security responses in RSGs?

3.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has introduced the four theories which guide this thesis. Firstly, CAT seems to constitute a particularly useful theoretical approach when exploring differences in RSGs' emotional responses to similar events (WV incidents) and is believed to be of help when answering sub-research question number one.

Secondly, OST – as well as its underlying components of SET – is considered to be of prime importance for this research as it investigates RSGs' perception of OES and their attitudinal and behavioural responses towards their organisations and is expected to help in answering sub-research question number two. Thirdly, the CFDWC appears valuable when examining RSGs' self-protection behaviour from an emotional standpoint and is believed to be of help when answering sub-research question number three. The next chapter outlines the methodology of this study.

Chapter 4

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The following chapter presents the methodology used in this research. The outline begins with the research design and explains why relativism was determined as the suitable ontological, and constructivism as the appropriate epistemological stance. Subsequently, it demonstrates why interpretivism was selected as the study's theoretical perspective. Afterwards, it is shown that both an inductive and deductive as well as a qualitatively-driven mixed method approach were most suitable to conduct this interpretive phenomenological research. An explanation is then provided as to why an online questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were the most useful data collection methods to investigate a sample of victimised retail security guards (RSGs). The chapter continues with details about how the data collection was planned, prepared and conducted inclusive of all the difficulties encountered during the recruitment phase. Lastly, the importance of ethics and the study's limitations are highlighted before presenting frequency counts, bivariate analysis and chi-square test (quantitative) but also thematic analysis (qualitative) as the pillars of the data analysis process.

4.2 Research Design

According to Bordage and Dawson (2003), the most important component after a study's research questions is its research design as this is the means which are used to answer the research question. A research design comprises the philosophical stance, theoretical perspective, research paradigm, methods of reasoning, methodological approach and methodological paradigm. These aspects were considered in relation to the present research's design.

4.2.1 Philosophical Stance

The philosophical stance was of particular importance because it had an impact on how the research was undertaken. Following Crotty (1998), the philosophical foundations comprise two frameworks: ontology and epistemology. Ontology is 'the science or study of being' (Blaikie, 1993: 6) and 'is concerned with what constitutes reality, in other words *what is*' (Scotland, 2012: 9). Being clear about the study's ontological stance was of importance as the whole investigation was guided by the researcher's basic beliefs of what constitutes 'reality' and 'truth' (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). The major ontological debate is between realists and idealists (Crotty, 1998). Realists hold the philosophical view 'that reality exists independent of the human mind' (Cohen, 1999: 2) whereas idealists believe 'that what is real is somehow confined to what is in the mind, that is, it consists only of 'ideas'' (Crotty, 1998: 64). Following a realist ontology, the researcher would have believed that WV exists whether RSGs were aware of it or not. On the contrary, following an idealist ontology, the researcher would have assumed that WV was only created by RSGs' mind. Neither ontological view on what constitutes reality could be shared by the researcher because the researcher neither believes that 'assaults at work' had an inherent meaning *per se* (realism), nor did he reduce reality to pure creations of his and participants' minds (idealism) (Bem and De Jong, 2006).

However, there exist some intermediate positions on the scale between these contrasting positions. An intermediate philosophical perspective with a tendency to idealism is relativism. Relativism is 'a general principle that places the meaning of experiential and physical events in the relationships that exist among them' (Schuh and Barab, 2007: 72). Proponents of this philosophy believe that reality is socially and experientially dependent on individual and context (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The RSGs in this study as well as the researcher were individuals with individual life paths and backgrounds which shaped their personalities. Furthermore, it was assumed that social and other circumstances might have been similar but never identical when WV events had taken place. The amalgamation of both different individuals and contexts was believed to intrinsically lead to the experience of different realities. Conclusively, it was

suggested that there was no absolute truth to the world, that multiple interpretations of reality were possible and acceptable. As a result, 'reality' and 'truth' were considered from a relativist ontological stance.

Furthermore, the study's epistemological stance needed to be determined which is defined as 'the nature of knowledge, its possibility, scope and general basis' (Hamlyn, 1995: 242) and deals with the question 'how we know what we know' (Crotty, 1998: 8). According to Crotty (1998), epistemology is subdivided into objectivism, subjectivism and constructivism. Objectivism assumes that one world exists which is *independent* of social actors. Things and phenomena exist as they are and an objective truth can be discovered (Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy and Perry, 1995). Applied to the current study this meant that the meaning of WV (phenomenon) would have existed as it was and could have been discovered without any relation to RSGs (social actors). As the researcher believed that RSGs play a substantial role in the creation and expression of what WV means to them, this approach appeared to be incompatible. For that reason, the objectivistic view was discarded. Objectivism stands in strong contrast to subjectivism which assumes that meaning is only generated by the subject *without reference* to any objects. Subjectivists believe that reality is internally created and recreated (Pendlebury, 2011). Concerning this study, this would mean that the meaning of the phenomenon WV would have been generated by RSGs (subjects) exclusively without any reference to assailants (objects). As the researcher believed that assailants' actions are intrinsically linked to how RSGs create and express meaning, also this view could not be shared which is why the subjectivist stance was rejected.

A middle course between objectivism and subjectivism is constructivism which harmonises well with ontological relativism (Crotty, 1998). In constructivism, knowledge is understood as a socially and culturally constructed human product (Ernest, 1999). Meanings are socially produced and reproduced (Braun and Clarke, 2006) and constructed by social actors *when interacting with* others and with the environment they live in (Amineh and Asl, 2015; Crotty, 1998). The criminological literature suggests that many phenomena around WV are social constructs because

they are believed to become only meaningful through the social interaction between RSGs, assailants and people at RSGs' workplaces and include violence (Granter, McCann and Boyle, 2015), victimisation, vulnerability (Green, 2007) and masculinity (Levant, 2011). In addition, it is believed that the meanings derived from these social interactions are shaped by cultural characteristics ascribed to security work (e.g. organisational culture). Hence, constructivism was determined as the appropriate epistemological stance as it acknowledges the social circumstances accompanying the WV incident as well as RSGs' cultural background. However, by viewing the research through a constructivist lens the researcher had to be aware that also he was socially interacting with RSGs and that not all of his cultural background could be hidden during the research process. For example, the researcher's gender and certain aspects of his cultural background (e.g. academic) were obvious. This might have had an impact on the social relationship with RSGs and how they constructed meanings when producing the data. Consequently, the researcher attempted to reveal only the most basic information about himself.

4.2.2 Theoretical Perspective

The next step was to determine the theoretical perspective, which is a study's philosophical stance trying to ground its research's criteria and logic (Gray, 2014). One important offshoot of constructivism is interpretivism which approaches phenomena by interpreting their social life-world in a cultural and historical context. This theoretical perspective holds the view that the way the world is being researched is dependent on how the world is seen by the researcher (Hartsock, 1983; Crotty, 1998). This approach required the researcher to take his own personal, historical and cultural background into account (Creswell, 2009). Most importantly, the researcher used to work in a frontline security occupation (patrol work at the police) prior to his PhD studies and had to deal with participants who worked as RSGs during this project. In this context, the researcher might have construed questions and interpreted answers differently than somebody who had a background unrelated to practical security work (Bryman, 2012). However, it was believed that the researcher's own experiences of assaults, organisational emotional support (OES) and self-protection behaviour helped

to better understand and evaluate RSGs' subjective realities and the meanings they ascribed to their experiences (Saunders et al., 2012). Notwithstanding, the researcher's interpretations of RSGs' constructed meanings was seen as an inevitable component of this research and for this reason interpretivism is the most suitable theoretical perspective in this work.

4.2.3 Research Paradigm

Furthermore, a research paradigm needed to be chosen. This research dealt with RSGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV. According to Willig and Wheeler (2016), individuals' reactions count as human experiences which means that experiences constitute the main part in this study. The research paradigm phenomenology focuses on people's lived experiences, how they perceive the world in which they live and what this means to them (Gray, 2014; Langdridge, 2007). Following Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie (2015: 92-93), the phenomenological paradigm is the 'ideal method for experiential work' when a research project is based on an interpretive theoretical perspective because phenomenology aims 'to describe or interpret human experience as lived by the experiencer'. Conclusively, this study was conducted from an interpretivist point of view and its main focus lay on the exploration of RSGs' experiences which have been neglected by research so far (Porter et al., 2015). Hence, phenomenology was the most suitable research paradigm.

Phenomenology can be divided into Husserl's descriptive (transcendental) and Heidegger's interpretive (hermeneutic) phenomenology (Willig, 2013; Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie, 2015). The aim of descriptive phenomenology is 'to return to the things themselves' (Langdridge, 2007: 86). In order to achieve this goal, researchers are required to bracket or set aside their past knowledge (everyday knowledge, expert knowledge and theories) as well as their preconceived opinions, personal prejudices and biases so that the essence of the phenomenon can be reached (Brewer, 2003; Willig, 2013; Baker, Wuest and Stern, 1992; Reiners, 2012). This process is called 'bracketing' which 'is a method used in qualitative research to mitigate the potentially deleterious effects of preconceptions that may taint the research process' (Tufford and

Newman, 2010: 80). Hence, proponents of the descriptive approach focus on merely describing phenomena (Langdridge, 2007). In contrast to this is interpretive phenomenology, which moves far beyond descriptions. Inspired by hermeneutics – which is the philosophy of interpretation – interpretive phenomenologists seek to identify and describe experiences but also aim *to understand* their meanings for the individual (Ajjawi and Higgs, 2007; Kafle, 2011; Reiners, 2012). In order to understand the meanings of experiences, users of this approach need to be aware of the hermeneutic circle which is the process of understanding (May, 2009). This process begins with the researcher entering the text (in this research the interview transcripts) and trying to make sense of it by interpreting text parts step by step. This sense-making, however, presupposes prior knowledge and acknowledges the reader’s life experience and personal background. Bearing this in mind, the principle of bracketing – as performed by descriptive phenomenologists – is seen as unfeasible by interpretive phenomenologists. In sum, the hermeneutic circle constitutes a ‘circularity of interpretation’ (Mantzavinos, 2009: 300) in which readers’ understanding of each text part affects their understanding of the whole text and their understanding of the whole text affects their understanding of each text part (May, 2009; Dennies, 2012). This circulating and continuing examination of the transcript is expected to generate an understanding of experiences and to increase knowledge concerning their meanings (Von Zweck, Paterson and Pentland, 2008) (see Figure 2).

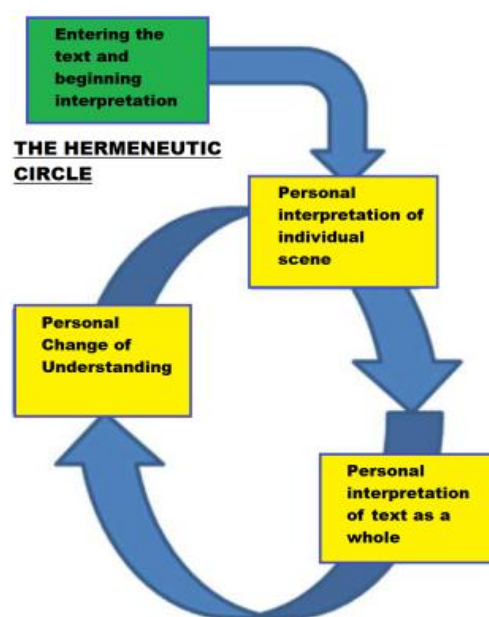


Figure 2. ‘The Hermeneutic Circle’ (Dennies, 2012)

To facilitate the decision concerning whether to use a descriptive or interpretive phenomenological approach, the literature reveals some identifying features. According to Reiners (2012) and Langdridge (2007), interpretive phenomenology is applied when the research question focuses on the *experience* and the *meaning* of phenomena and if prior engagement with the phenomena is not bracketed by the researcher. This study explored (1) how RSGs *experience* WV and (2) what the experience of WV *means* for RSGs' self-protection behaviour. In addition, having experienced WV himself on several occasions during his career as a police officer, the researcher believed it was impossible to fully bracket these experiences and their meanings. Beyond that, the researcher held the view that particularly this prior knowledge (own experiences of WV and familiarity with the literature (Von Zweck et al., 2008)) was of importance when trying to understand RSGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV. This, however, did not constitute a bias (Willig, 2013; Willig and Wheeler, 2016). Actually, the application of initial categories of meaning enabled knowledge which in turn was modified by interacting with the data. Furthermore, Butler (1998) recommends the application of an interpretive paradigm if the study is based on a constructivist foundation. Constructivism was determined as the study's epistemological stance earlier in this chapter. Lastly, it was believed that the plain description of phenomena would have been insufficient and that the data needed to be interpreted in order to answer both research questions. Consequently, interpretive phenomenology was considered to be the most suitable research paradigm.

4.2.4 Methods of Reasoning

It was essential to decide the study's methods of reasoning by categorising the research according to either a deductive or inductive research approach (Trochim, 2006). Deductive research draws on pre-existing theories or concepts in order to develop hypotheses which are empirically tested (Bryman, 2016). Inductive research, on the other hand, is a process in which theories or theoretical models are developed after the data has been collected and observed (Crotty, 1998). The latter approach makes only use of pre-existing theories for orientation purposes and to compare the fit between participants' understanding and constructs in the literature (Smith, Flowers

and Larkin, 2009; Gray, 2014). As RSGs are generally under-researched, very little was known about how they experience WV, what security responses they develop in order to protect themselves from victimisation and why. A theory which could have been tested deductively did not exist so the deductive approach initially appeared unsuitable for this research. The theoretical literature on emotions, organisational support and self-protection revealed important information and helped to develop a theoretical framework which guided the data collection process as illustrated in Chapters 2 and 3. As this theoretical framework was only used for orientation purposes, the methods of reasoning pointed to an inductive approach. After careful interpretation of the collected data it was intended to discover patterns in the data which suggest relationships between variables. Here, the aim was to produce a theoretical model (Alhojailan, 2012; Gray, 2014; Barnett-Page and Thomas, 2009; Willig and Wheeler, 2016) but *not* to *build* theory as this term is wedded to Grounded Theory (Partington, 2002; Willig and Wheeler, 2016; Braun and Clarke, 2017). However, the empirical literature around the aforementioned topics resulted in the development of *a priori* codes which also had a strong influence on the data collection and analytical process. Conclusively, even though the aim of this study was to produce a theoretical model (inductive) the researcher also drew on pre-existing codes when approaching and analysing the data (deductive). Hence, the study followed both an inductive and deductive approach.

4.2.5 Methodological Approach

The methodological approach also needed to be determined because it influenced the purpose and manner of the study as well as the interpretation and results. Methodological approaches can be segmented into a quantitative, qualitative or mixed-method approach (Bryman, 1988). According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007), quantitative research aims to gain knowledge about frequency, amount or intensity of phenomena by measuring or describing them as numerical quantity. Hence, quantitative research aims to *explain* or *describe* phenomena by answering questions such as *how much* or *how many* (Brikci, 2007). Qualitative researchers, on the other hand, attempt 'to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the

meanings people bring to them' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011: 3). Thus, qualitative research aims to understand phenomena by exploring '*why* people behave the way they do, *how* opinions and attitudes are formed' and '*how* people are affected by the events that go on around them' (Hancock, Ockleford and Windridge, 2007: 7).

In line with Hancock et al.'s (2007) definition of qualitative research, this study seeks to understand *how* RSGs are affected by WV and CFs, *how* the experience of WV and CFs formed their opinions and attitudes as well as *how* and *why* their security responses have developed in the way they have. Scherer (2005) states that there is no objective method of measuring subjective experiences and indeed, it appeared as if valuable information might have been lost if RSGs' experiences, emotions, opinions, attitudes and behaviours were measured exclusively in quantifiable, measurable terms. This danger, paired with the types of research questions, constituted the justification for choosing a qualitative approach as the study's core component. In addition to the dominant qualitative approach, a subordinate quantitative data collection method was used to gain knowledge on *if* and *to what extent* certain phenomena were present. Hence, this research applied a qualitatively-driven mixed-method approach (Morse and Cheek, 2014). Mixed-method approach is defined as the 'collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study' (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson, 2003: 212) and was required when studying the consequences of WV on victims (De Puy et al., 2015).

However, the application of a mixed-method approach is heavily debated in the literature. To begin with, a mixed-method approach elicits pragmatic obstacles for researchers as this approach is criticised for being more time-consuming, expensive and difficult than applying a single method approach (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Burt and Pitchforth, 2014). The researcher decided that the opportunity to produce a sound phenomenological data set was worth the extra effort. In order to achieve this goal, he had to make sure that participants were chosen for the qualitative data collection-phase that were able to 'provide information rich experiential accounts' (Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie, 2015: 99). Questionnaires have been applied as a sampling tool by many phenomenological researchers because they were found to be

very useful and effective (Miles, 2012; Hogarth, 2016; Briscoe Campbell, 2007). Hence, the first justification to apply a mixed-method approach was to identify an appropriate sample for the qualitative interviews.

Equally important was the identification of specific areas of interest prior to the qualitative data collection phase. In order to maximise the outcome of the phenomenological inquiry, it is advantageous to gain a broad idea about what participants' experiences, behaviours and actions are before the inquiry commences. In phenomenological research it is important to give 'voice to the other' which also enables the emergence of unanticipated topics (Smith, 2004; Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012; Willig, 2013). Consequently, it has to be clear that the researcher's intention was not to direct interviewees in specific directions which would have contradicted the fundamental idea of phenomenology. Rather, a broad range of topics had to be predetermined which guided the interviews as talking about them was essential in order to answer the research questions (Smith and Osborn, 2015). This kind of preparation is what Sandelowksi (2000: 252) calls 'elicitation device' which serves the purpose of providing orientation in phenomenological research (Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie, 2015; Hogarth, 2016). Ultimately, this phenomenological orientation is what constituted the second justification.

Furthermore, mixed-method approaches raise philosophical concerns. Following the incompatibility thesis, methodological purists argue that mixing qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study is epistemologically incoherent (Howe, 1988). Indeed, the interaction of different epistemologies would be a dangerous contradiction and thus had to be avoided. However, according to Bryman (2012) and Greene and Caracelli (2003), a combination of different methods which have their origin in different philosophies is legitimate. The researchers argue that there is merely a *tendency* for philosophical positions to be associated with certain methodological approaches but these associations are far from being deterministic. This point of view appears reasonable as approaching phenomena methodologically diversely constitutes a powerful tool to capture knowledge, explore reality in different ways and minimise the danger of overlooking phenomena (Ansari, Panhwar and Mahesar, 2016).

Consequently, even though the proposed research was conducted from a constructivist perspective, it follows Latour (2000) who emphasises the importance of researching phenomena from different angles in order to achieve the highest level of knowledge. Conclusively, two justifications were pointed out which justified the application of a mixed-method approach in this research: sample identification and phenomenological orientation. These two justifications had to match at least one of the five key motivations for applying a mixed- method approach which Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie (2015: 91.92) identified on the basis of Greene, Caracelli and Graham's (1989) work:

- (1) Triangulation, 'to increase the validity of data and minimize bias',
- (2) Complementarity, 'to enhance the strengths and minimize the weakness of individual methods',
- (3) Development, 'to help use the results of one method to enhance another',
- (4) Initiation, 'to allow for analysis of data from different perspectives',
- (5) Expansion, 'to increase the overall scope of research'.

Following these definitions, the two identified justifications are in line with the key motivations 'triangulation' and 'development'. Moreover, in recent years the application of a mixed-method approach in phenomenological research has grown in popularity as this combination has been found to 'work extremely well' (Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie, 2015: 92; McNeil, 2015; Cordes, 2014; Davison, 2014; Evans, 2014). This growth in popularity paired with the two justifications based on the key motivations 'triangulation' and 'development' warrants the application of a mixed-method approach in this phenomenological study as it was believed that a quantitative element would help to increase the validity of the qualitative data and minimise the occurrence of social bias (triangulation) but also because the combination of quantitative and qualitative results would help to enhance one another (development). There exist four major types of mixed-method approaches: triangulation design, embedded design, exploratory design and explanatory design. In order to make a choice about what approach is the most suitable one for the current project, it had to be decided (1) *when* the data was used in the study, (2) whether the

emphasis of the research was on a quantitative or a qualitative approach and (3) *how* the datasets were mixed (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2006). The researcher decided that (1) the data was used *concurrently* as opposed to sequentially (Morse, 1991), (2) the *qualitative approach* considerably outweighed the quantitative approach and (3) the data was brought together and integrated in the interpretation stage so that the quantitative and qualitative data set were 'merged' instead of 'embedded' or 'connected' (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2006). This combination pointed to the 'concurrent triangulation design model' which was used in this study.

4.3 Data Collection Methods

Different data collection methods are available which can be divided into quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. An online questionnaire with predominantly closed questions was used as a quantitative data collection method for the following reasons. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2013), questionnaires can help to identify the sample for the subsequent qualitative data collection method. Due to its anonymous nature, it was expected to obtain valuable data on the existence and frequency of certain phenomena. Also, questionnaires were assumed to increase the likelihood of participants making honest statements because they did not have to fear judgement, organisational or legal consequences. Questionnaires tend to be of a quantitative nature as commonly closed questions are being asked but they can also contain open-ended questions and thus generate qualitative data, too (McLeod, 2008). The researcher largely refrained from adding open-ended questions to the questionnaire as prior research (e.g. Reja, Manfreda, Hlebec and Vehovar, 2003) and the researcher's personal experience (Koeppen, 2013) have shown that these types of questions are likely to have a large item non-response. For the purpose of easier distribution and lower costs, the questionnaire was distributed online.

However, a necessary requirement in phenomenological research is extensive and prolonged engagement with subjects. In this process, the notion of conversational inquiry and open-ended questions is of high importance as it enables participants to

talk without any constraints (Guest et al., 2012). For that reason, semi-structured interviews were used as a qualitative data collection method. In addition, interviews were seen as an effective qualitative method for getting RSGs to talk about their personal feelings, opinions and experiences; particularly when a sensitive topic such as WV was addressed. Interviews can be structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Structured interviews hold a more quantitative character and were not suitable for this aspect of the research as they offer insufficient scope for further questioning. Unstructured interviews were not used in this study as they hold the danger of the researcher overlooking important topics unintentionally (Holloway, 1997; Lester, 1999). Semi-structured interviews, however, enabled the researcher to ask some prepared questions about essential topics in the research but offered variation in the sequence of questions and allowed the identification and exploration of further topics which developed during the interviews (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006; Bryman, 2012). This method was also in line with the constructivist epistemology used in this study as this data could not simply be treated as scientific fact. By doing so the researcher provided a voice to the research participants and received responses in their 'own words and native cognitive constructs' (Guest et al., 2012: 13). Conclusively, quantitative online questionnaires and qualitative semi-structured face-to-face interviews were chosen as data collection methods.

4.4 Pilot Testing

To make sure that both the questionnaire and interview questions were absolutely clear to RSGs the researcher decided to conduct a pilot-test prior to the fieldwork. The findings of the pilot-test were not incorporated into the findings of the study. According to Taylor-Powell (1998), questionnaires should ideally be piloted with (1) *potential users of the data*, (2) *professional colleagues* and (3) a small cross section of the *population to be surveyed*.

Firstly, in February and March 2016, the researcher met up with managers of two security companies (*potential users of the data*). Both security managers were given a

paper copy of the online questionnaire version and asked to comment on the questions. This process is referred to as cognitive testing and serves the purpose to identify misinterpretations of or confusions about formulated questions (Goldenberg, 1996; Courage and Baxter, 2005). The managers' most important suggestions were to use less academic language, to replace the term 'security guard' with the term 'security officer' throughout the whole questionnaire¹ and to rephrase two questions when asking respondents about their self-protection behaviour. Both managers' suggestions were taken on board. However, the most important insight was that both managers interpreted several questions about contextual factors (CFs) incorrectly. As a result, it was decided to delete these questions from the questionnaire and to address CFs in the interviews only. Additionally, the researcher conducted a pilot-interview with both managers.

Secondly, after revising the questionnaire, the researcher arranged a meeting with eight PhD colleagues (*professional colleagues*) from his Criminology Department in April 2016. In this meeting, the professional colleagues were asked to serve as a pilot sample and to fill-out a paper-copy of the online questionnaire. In addition, the researcher conducted a joint pilot-interview with the whole group. In this interview the researcher was made aware of confusing or ambiguous questions and potential difficulties in the order of certain questions.

Thirdly, in mid-July 2016, the researcher met up with five active RSGs (*population to be surveyed*) who had experienced WV at least once in their lifetime. These RSGs were recruited by one of the security managers mentioned at the beginning of this section. As a first step, these RSGs were asked to 'parrot back the questionnaire questions using different words' and to point out unclear or unambiguous formulations (Taylor-Powell, 2008: 1). This had the purpose to examine whether 'real-life-participants' would understand the questions as they were intended to be. As a second step, pilot-interviews were conducted in order to test the interview questions. Whilst there were

¹ Apparently, the majority of frontline security personnel seem to associate the term 'security guard' with somebody who is less active and provides security only due to his/her physical presence whereas a 'security officer' takes a more proactive approach and intervenes when observing a wrong-doing.

no major problems with the pilot-interviews, some flaws with the questionnaire were identified. All five RSGs were confused by four questions so these questions had to be rephrased (RSGs were encouraged to make suggestions). Also, single terms had to be changed. For example, the term 'line manager' at RSGs' security company was replaced with the term 'area manager' and the 'supervisor' at RSGs' retail store became the 'store manager'. All guards were given a £5.00 voucher for the coffee-chain Costa as a token of appreciation. This gesture was seen as ethically unproblematic because the RSGs had agreed to participate in the retrospective interviews without knowing that they were going to be provided with a voucher.

Lastly, after having undertaken a third major revision of the questionnaire, the functionality and logic structure of the questionnaire was tested. In mid-July 2016, the link to the online pilot-questionnaire was sent to further five RSGs who had been a victim of WV at least once in their career (*population to be surveyed*). These guards were asked to fill out the pilot-version online and to provide the researcher with any criticism or suggestions via email. In addition, the pilot-version was sent to seven PhD colleagues from the Criminology Department also asking them for feedback and constructive criticism (*professional colleagues*). Thus, the overall sample of pilot-test number 4 consisted of twelve persons. The vast majority of the criticism addressed the visibility of instructions. It was also suggested to provide respondents with victim support service details on the last page of the questionnaire and not on the first page only. Most suggestions were taken on board.

4.5 Final Data Collection

4.5.1 Questionnaire Design

The final questionnaire was created with the questionnaire software Qualtrics. The online questionnaire had an attractive and uncomplicated layout and began with a brief introductory statement followed by the researcher's contact details. Questions were numbered and allocated to the topics which were dealt with in the questionnaire. According to the pilot-study samples, the questionnaire was structured

logically and used clear wording. As respondents are more likely to answer a short questionnaire than a long one (Phellas, Bloch and Seale, 2011), the questionnaire was kept as short as possible. The majority of questions appeared to be easy to answer in the pilot-test so the expected completion time for the final study was below the recommended 10 minutes (Audience Dialogue, 2002; Smart Survey, 2015). A variety of closed, open, multiple-choice and open-ended questions as well as one rating scale were used. The questions were preceded by clear instructions. Critical questions (e.g. questions which asked respondents to reveal their use of weapons) were put at the end. All questions were created concisely and unambiguously. Double questions, leading questions and questions involving negatives were avoided and precise answers were requested. Also, a so-called 'progress bar' was added to the questionnaire as it can encourage respondents to complete the task and can thus lead to a higher response rate (Burgess, Nicholas and Gulliford, 2012; Crawford, Couper and Lamias, 2001). The final version of the questionnaire is located at **Appendix 2**.

4.5.2 Questionnaire Questions

The questionnaire began with six demographic questions before respondents were categorised into victims and non-victims of WV. Victims were asked to answer two questions about their WV experiences, eleven about OES, three about their self-protection measures (SPMs) and three closing questions (e.g. interview participation). Non-victims, on the other hand, were not able to answer questions on any WV or OES experiences. Thus, non-victims were automatically led to questions about future OES and their current self-protection behaviour. The questionnaire was structured as follows:

Section 1 – Demographics: This section asked respondents about their gender (*Question 1*), ethnicity (*Question 2*), age (*Question 3*), educational attainment (*Question 4*), the locations they were working at by the time they filled out the questionnaire (*Question 5*) and their years of work experience as a RSG working with the public (*Question 6*).

Section 2 – Experiences of WV: This section tried to gain information on the frequency of respondents' WV victimisation experiences by asking if they had ever been assaulted by a member of the public in their time as a RSG (*Question 7*) and how often in the past twelve months (*Question 8*). Beyond that, the questions in this section served the purpose to categorise respondents into victims and non-victims of WV which helped to identify the sample for the subsequent interview stage. The questionnaire continued with asking questions about the respondents' most severe injury they had after their last experience of physical assault (*Question 9*).

Section 3 – Perception of experienced OES: This section sought to gather data on OES. It was asked whether anybody from the respondents' workplaces knew about the physical assault (*Question 10*). This question linked with *Question 11* which asked if anybody from the respondents' security company offered any OES, followed by asking for the support source within the company (*Question 12*), the type of OES provided (*Question 13*) and respondents' perceived levels of loyalty following (a lack of) OES (*Question 14*). The subsequent four questions were a replication of the last four ones but asked about OES (not) provided by the retail company the respondents were working for at that time (*Question 15 to 18*). This seemed necessary because RSGs worked for the security company but spent their working time with people from the retail company.

Section 4 – Future OES: The questionnaire continued with asking respondents about their preferred support source (*Question 19*) and preferred support type (*Question 20*) in cases of future WV.

Section 5 – Self-Protection Behaviour: Here, the questionnaire asked respondents about their application of certain types of proactive SPMs and inactive SPMs (*Questions 21 to 23*).

Section 6 – Participation in Further Research: This section consisted of one question only and asked respondents whether they would be willing to participate in further research by giving a face-to face interview. This question served as a sampling method

for the subsequent qualitative data-collection method. Here, respondents had the possibility to voluntarily provide the researcher with their contact details (*Question 24*).

Section 7 – Optional: The last section of the questionnaire consisted of two optional questions. Firstly, respondents had the opportunity to raise new topics not covered in the questionnaire or to deepen a topic which had not been covered sufficiently in their opinion (*Question 25*). Secondly, respondents were asked to include their email-address in case they wished to participate in the prize draw (*Question 26*).

4.5.3 Interview Design

The in-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted by asking prepared key questions. To allow for the opportunity of probing areas of interest in more detail, questions were easily changeable (Davies, Francis and Jupp, 2011). To avoid gathering invalid data, all questions were asked in a non-leading way and in a manner that was easily understood (Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick, 2008). A digital voice recorder was used to capture the interviewees' answers in the most accurate way (Hancock et al., 2007). The researcher tried to limit the interviews to two hours, which was sufficient in a phenomenological study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013; Laforest, 2009) and minimised the risk of a lapse in interviewees' concentration (Heisteringer, 2007). It was expected that this amount of time would be sufficient to go through all questions relevant to the research topic. The interviews were structured as follows:

4.5.4 Interview Questions

Section 1 – WV and CFs: In order to understand the role of violent acts and CFs for victimised RSGs' emotional well-being, interviewees were asked:

- To describe the violent incident which they considered to be the most significant.

It was intended to identify the most poignant positive or negative WV incidents experienced by the victimised RSGs.

- To describe, if applicable, how the presence or absence of CFs identified in the literature made them feel.

It was intended to find out to what extent these (and potentially other) CFs mitigated or exacerbated the violent incident for RSGs and why.

Section 2 – OES: In order to understand the perceived effects of (a lack of) OES on RSGs' emotional well-being, interviewees were asked:

- To give insights into their emotional experiences of OES after WV victimisation.
It was intended to identify the most poignant positive or negative experiences of OES.

- To explain in detail whose care they perceived as (un)supportive and why.
It was intended to gain knowledge about the importance of different OES sources and different components of the support type OES for RSGs' development of perceived organisational support (POS).

- To give insights into their emotional and behavioural reactions to the received, absent or insufficient OES.
It was intended to gain information on the development and levels of RSGs' perceived organisational commitment.

Section 3 – SPMs: In order to understand the emotional and rational driving-factors behind RSGs' self-protection behaviours, interviewees were asked:

- To reveal the types of SPMs used to protect against WV.
It was intended to gain knowledge about proactive SPMs, avoidance and withdrawal behaviours applied by victimised RSGs.

- To talk through the emotions and considerations which drove them to apply their chosen SPMs.

It was intended to gain knowledge about any link between emotions derived from RSGs' experiences of CFs and their decision to use (certain) SPMs.

For an overview of the interview questions please see the Interview Topic Guides Schedule (**Appendix 3**).

4.6 Issues of Access

In order to organise an appropriate and sufficient sample of security companies, the researcher contacted the British Security Industry Association (BSIA) and the Security Industry Authority (SIA). The BSIA is the trade association for the professional security industry in the UK and is responsible for 90 security companies offering security guarding services nationwide (BSIA, 2016: n.p.). The SIA, on the other hand, is an independent organisation which is responsible for regulating the private security industry within the UK and holds 754 approved contractors offering security guarding services within the UK (SIA, 2016: n.p.). In November and December 2015, the researcher met up with representatives of the BSIA and SIA who both displayed their willingness to serve as a gatekeeper and to help identify and contact an appropriate sample of security companies. However, despite the BSIA's and SIA's efforts, only very few companies had agreed to participate in the study by February 2016. Hence, the researcher decided to take a more proactive approach.

In February 2016, the researcher presented his project at a meeting of the BSIA and HSE in London in front of practitioners within the security industry which resulted in the recruitment of one retail security company. Beyond that, the researcher found a document on the SIA website listing all of their 754 approved contractors offering security guarding services within the UK (SIA, 2016). A letter of invitation to participate was prepared and sent out to all companies offering retail security services (**Appendix 4**) which included the promise to provide companies with a research report once the

study was finished. A total of 630 security companies were contacted manually via email by the end of June 2016 and companies received a reminder two weeks after the first email. In addition, the researcher was allowed to publish his research request in the newsletter of the 'Police and Security Group Initiative' at the beginning of July 2016 (**Appendix 5**). However, this attempt was unsuccessful as nobody responded to the publication. Furthermore, at the beginning of July 2016 the researcher contacted the trade union for security staff members but did not receive a response.

Conclusively, 41 (6.5%) out of 630 (100%) security companies replied. Out of these 41 companies, 24 rejected the research request. In most cases the companies stated that they do not offer retail security services anymore. In other cases, they informed the researcher that they 'don't fill out online questionnaires', were 'not interested in participating' or were 'inundated with these requests to assist MSc and PhD students (...) and (...) just don't have the time to deal with them'. 17 companies initially agreed to participate in the research. However, two companies suddenly stopped responding to the researcher's emails, so 15 security companies ultimately participated. In order to gain some background information about security companies the researcher sent an email request to all 15 participating companies. In the request, companies were asked amongst other questions how long they had been operating for, where they were operating in the country, how many RSGs worked for their company in the UK and to how many RSGs the questionnaire was going to be sent. However, not all of the 15 security companies replied to the request so some information, if available, had to be gathered from the companies' websites:

- three of the participating security companies were established between the 1930s and 1960s,
- one in the 1990s,
- six in the 2000s, and
- three in the 2010s.
- The founding year of the two remaining companies could not be identified.

This shows that most participating companies were not recently founded which increased the chance of exploring properly established support networks. Furthermore:

- six of the companies were operating all over the UK,
- one in England and Scotland,
- one in England and Northern Ireland,
- one was covering all parts of England,
- one was operating in the North, Midlands and South of England,
- two predominantly in the North of England,
- one mainly in the London area, and
- one mainly in the East Midlands.
- The operation areas of the remaining company could not be identified.

Taken together, the participating companies were distributed all over the country which increased the chance of collecting credible data. According to the researcher's contact persons within the companies and companies' websites, the 15 security companies employed a total of 4,906 RSGs. The online questionnaire, however, was sent out to only 2,778 RSGs for reasons which are unknown to the researcher. The participating security companies received an update on the research progress on 1 February 2017, 26 July 2017, 3 January 2018, 2 July 2018 and 1 October 2018. As previously agreed, security companies were provided with the research report on 14 October 2018.

4.7 Sampling

4.7.1 Quantitative Sample

The criterion for being included in the quantitative sample was being a so-called 'frontline' RSG in the UK working for a security company. Such broad criteria held the benefit that a wider audience could be reached in the first instance: victimised and non-victimised RSGs, those who reported the incident and those who did not.

Furthermore, by focusing on so-called 'contract RSGs', the perceived effects of OES of both the employing security company and the contractor (retailer) could be examined. In order to ensure credibility, a substantial number of RSGs needed to be included in the study. This was done by using a simple random sampling method: security companies were found to hold the email-addresses of most of their employed frontline RSGs. A letter of invitation to participate, which included a link to the online questionnaire, was sent to companies' HR departments via email who in turn circulated the email to their employed frontline RSG personnel (**Appendix 6**) (Fox, Hunn and Mathers, 2009). The option 'Prevent Ballot Box Stuffing' was selected which prevented participants from completing the questionnaire more than once. The online questionnaire was accessible to RSGs for four months; from 16 August 2016 to 16 December 2016. The first response was recorded on 16 August 2016 and the last response on 4 December 2016. Once participants started filling out the questionnaire they had one month to complete the remaining questions. Incomplete questionnaires were closed after the elapse of one month and the answered questions recorded.

Out of the 2,778 recipients of the online questionnaire, 515 (18.5%) agreed to participate. However, out of these 515 RSGs 27 did not fill out the questionnaire beyond the 'demographics-section'. As a consequence, these 27 responses were deleted which reduced the quantitative sample to a number of 488. Further, out of these 488 responses, 52 responses were incomplete. Still, some of the incomplete responses were of value for this research (e.g. information on the prevalence of WV victimisation), thus it was decided to keep them. Notwithstanding, when discussing the frequency of responses in the results/discussion chapters it will be made clear how many RSGs answered each question. As a total, the questionnaire resulted in a final sample of 488 which constitutes a response rate of 17.5%. This sample size exceeds that of the only quantitative study which evidently included RSGs by far (Porter et al., 2015). However, as no quantitative study could be found which dealt exclusively with RSGs, the value of the response rate on this study is difficult to grasp. When considering other quantitative research which did not differentiate between different types of SGs, the response rate in this study appears comparatively low as response rate figures in other studies varied between 25% (Declercq et al., 2007) and 65%

(Poisat et al., 2014). Two factors could be identified which might have had an impact on the relatively low response rate. Firstly, following Tourangeau and Yan (2007), the sensitivity of the research topics might have deterred some recipients of the questionnaire. Secondly, at a later stage of the fieldwork a comment from one interviewee revealed that some of his RSG colleagues doubted the anonymity of the questionnaire which prevented them from participating. Thus, it cannot be ruled out that also other RSGs at other companies had similar doubts. However, the 488 respondents (436 complete plus 52 incomplete questionnaires) who did participate in the questionnaire are composed of the following demographics:

Gender

96% (n=469) were male and 4% (n=19) female (**Table 1**). Such a high proportion of male RSGs is consistent with other quantitative research in the security industry where the proportion of male SGs range from 68% (Poisat et al., 2014) to 96% (De Puy et al., 2015).

Table 1. Gender within the Quantitative Sample

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	469	96%
Female	19	4%
Total	N=488	100%

Ethnicity

70% (n=343) of the respondents were white, 12% (n=58) black or black British, 15.5% (n=76) Asian or Asian British, 0.5% (n=2) Arab and 2% (n=9) mixed (**Table 2**). Unfortunately, no quantitative study could be found which provided some comparison data on ethnicity.

Table 2. Ethnicity within the Quantitative Sample

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage
White	343	70%
Black or Black British	58	12%
Asian or Asian British	76	15.5%
Arab	2	0.5%
Mixed	9	2%
Total	N=488	100%

Age

12.5% (n=61) of the sample were between 18 and 25 years of age, 32% (n=157) between 26 and 35 years, 25% (n=121) between 36 and 45 years, 19% (n=94) between 46 and 55 years, 11% (n=53) between 56 and 65 years and 0.5% (n=2) older than 65 years meaning that 44.5% (n=218) of the sample were between 18 and 35 years old and 55.5% (n=270) between 36 and 65 years or older (**Table 3**). This is consistent with the majority of other quantitative studies in the security industry where most SGs were 36 years and older (Declercq et al., 2007; Plotka, et al., 2015; Poisat et al., 2014; Paese et al., 2014) as compared to those where most were below 36 years old (Flynn, 1997; Leino, 2013).

Table 3. Age within the Quantitative Sample

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18 to 25	61	12.5%
26 to 35	157	32%
36 to 45	121	25%
46 to 55	94	19%
56 to 65	53	11%
Older than 65	2	0.5%
Total	N=488	100%

Highest level of educational attainment

19% (n=93) of the sample had no qualifications, 46% (n=225) graduated with GCSE/O Levels, 15% (n=74) with A-Levels, 4% (n=18) stated that they had completed an advanced education such as the Higher National Diploma (HND) or Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC) and 14.5% (n=70) held a university degree. 1.5% (n=8), however, could not be identified as their comments did not reveal anything about their education (e.g. 'Royal Navy school of life') (**Table 4**). Here, only little comparison data could be found but those quantitative studies in the security industry revealed different figures as more than half of the SG samples in these studies had no qualifications (Flynn, 1997; Paese et al., 2014) as compared with only 19% in this research.

Table 4. Highest Level of Educational Attainment within the Quantitative Sample

Educational Attainment	Frequency	Percentage
No Qualifications	93	19%
GCSE/O Levels	225	46%
A-Levels	74	15%
Advanced Education	18	4%
University Degree	70	14.5%
Unidentifiable	8	1.5%
Total	N=488	100%

Current work locations

8% (n=38) worked in the North East of England, 26.5% (n=129) in the North West, 10.5% (n=52) in Yorkshire and the Humber, 7% (n=37) in the East Midlands, 6% (n=31) in the West Midlands, 1% (n=4) in the East of the country, 12% (n=58) in London, 3.5% (n=17) in the South East, 4% (n=18) in the South West, 2% (n=11) in Wales, 15.5% (n=75) in Scotland, 1% (n=4) in Northern Ireland and 3% (n=14) in mixed areas which shows that respondents worked in all parts of the UK (**Table 5**). Comparing these figures with those of other quantitative SG studies proved to be difficult as most were conducted abroad (Declercq et al., 2007; Plotka et al., 2015; Leino, 2013; Poisat et al., 2014; Paese et al., 2014). However, the figures in this study differ from one study which provided quantitative data on the UK where London and the South East (28%) as well as the East (14%) and the South West of England (12%) were better represented but the number of participants from the North West (13%) and Scotland (13%) was lower (Porter et al., 2015).

Table 5. Current Work Locations of the Quantitative Sample

Work Locations	Frequency	Percentage
North East	38	8%
North West	129	26.5%
Yorkshire and the Humber	52	10.5%
East Midlands	37	7%
West Midlands	31	6%
East	4	1%
London	58	12%
South East	17	3.5%
South West	18	4%
Wales	11	2%
Scotland	75	15.5%
Northern Ireland	4	1%
Mixed Areas	14	3%
Total	N=488	100%

Years of work experience as a RSG working with the public

18% (n=88) of respondents had less than 1 year of work experience, 35% (n=171) between 1 and 5 years, 29% (n=142) between 6 and 10 years, 9.5% (n=46) between 11 and 15 years, 4.5% (n=21) between 16 and 20 years and 4% (n=20) more than 20 years (**Table 6**). In other words, 53.5% (n=260) of the sample were relatively new to the job with work experience between 0 and 5 years, whereas 38.5% (n=187) had a medium level of work experience having worked between 6 and 15 years and 8% (n=41) were highly experienced with work experience between 16 and more than 20 years. This data differs from the only quantitative SG study which was found to reveal its sample's level of work experience. In that study, the majority could draw on experience between 5 and 10 years on average and thus were more experienced than the sample in this research (Flynn, 1997).

Table 6. Years of Work Experience within the Frontline Retail Security Industry of the Quantitative Sample

Work Experience	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 year	88	18%
1 to 5	171	35%
6 to 10	142	29%
11 to 15	46	9.5%
16 to 20	21	4.5%
More than 20 years	20	4%
Total	N=488	100%

4.7.2 Qualitative Sample

Once willing interviewees were identified, their eligibility needed to be checked. Only RSGs who had been a victim of actual or attempted WV were of interest as only they could provide information on their experiences of, and reactions to, WV victimisation. Thus, a purposive sampling as a form of non-probability sampling (also called non-random sampling) method was applied as the sample was selected with a particular purpose in mind (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013). Regarding the required sample size for qualitative in-depth interviews, the literature is vague and figures vary between 5 and 50 participants (Dworkin, 2012). For a phenomenological study, some suggest 6 (Creswell, 2007), whereas others recommend 6 to 8 (Kuzel, 1999), 6 to 10 (Morse, 2000) or 5 to 25 participants (Leedy and Ormrod, 2013) to gain sufficient insights.

Thus, by aiming for between 10 and 20 semi-structured in-depth interviews, the recommended amount for a phenomenological PhD study appeared to be adequately covered.

Out of those 436 (100%) respondents who provided an answer to the question about participation in further research, 167 (38%) expressed an interest in being interviewed whereas 269 (62%) were not interested. However, out of the 167 only 93 (56%) were eligible for the study (victimised RSG). A purposive sampling method was applied in order to organise an interview sample with certain key characteristics so that different victims could be represented (Fox et al., 2009). However, being deterministic about certain key characteristics proved to be very difficult and endangered the final qualitative sample size (for example, choosing ten interviewees who received OES and ten who did not etc.). Hence, it was decided to change the sampling method from purposive sampling to simple random sampling, selecting victimised RSGs purely by chance (Fox et al., 2009). These efforts resulted in the recruitment of twenty volunteers. Conclusively, twenty male 'frontline' RSGs were interviewed who worked for a security company in the UK and had been a victim of physical WV. This approach ensured a certain homogeneity which is required when applying the qualitative analytic method which was used in this study (thematic analysis; please see below) (Braun, Clarke and Hayfield, 2015). This sample homogeneity helped the researcher to focus on similarities and narrow variations (Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan and Hoagwood, 2015). Out of the 93 suitable respondents, 64 (69%) were contacted **(Appendix 9)**. Out of these 64 volunteers, 23 (36%) replied to the researcher's request and agreed to meet for an interview. As the researcher received a sufficient number of confirmations, the remaining 29 suitable respondents were not contacted. However, 3 out of the 23 volunteers withdrew from the interview by not responding to the researcher's date proposals, by cancelling the interview and by not showing up to the agreed interview venue. Consequently, the final interview sample consisted of 20 victimised RSGs. The 20 interviews took place between 4 November and 15 December 2016. The 20 interviewees were composed of the following demographics:

Gender

Despite the researcher's efforts to gain a qualitative sample consisting of both men and women, all interviewees were male (100%, n=20) (**Table 7**). Here it has to be noted that it is quite unusual to draw on data from an exclusive male sample. When comparing this data with other qualitative studies in the security industry, the female population was low but at least existent; ranging from 10% (Button and Park, 2009) up to 26% (Nalla and Cobbina, 2017).

Table 7. Gender within the Qualitative Sample

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	20	100%
Female	0	0%
Total	N=20	100%

Ethnicity

80% (n=16) of the interviewees were white, 15% (n=3) black or black British and 5% (n=1) Asian or Asian British (**Table 8**). This is consistent with data in other qualitative SG research where the majority was white British (Flynn, 1997) but the figure in this study is lower than the 94% identified by Button (2007).

Table 8. Ethnicity within the Qualitative Sample

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage
White	16	80%
Black or Black British	3	15%
Asian or Asian British	1	5%
Arab	0	0%
Mixed	0	0%
Total	N=20	100%

Age

15% (n=3) were between 18 and 25 years, 20% (n=4) between 26 and 35 years, 25% (n=5) between 36 and 45 years, 30% (n=6) between 46 and 55 years, 5% (n=1) between 56 and 65 years and 5% (n=1) older than 65 meaning that 35% (n=7) of the interviewees were between 18 and 35 years and 65% (n=13) between 36 and 65 years or older (**Table 9**). This finding differs from other qualitative RSG research where the vast majority (95%) were in the age group 22-40 years (Button and Park, 2009). A

comparison with other qualitative studies in the security industry is difficult due to differences in the chosen age categories (Wakefield, 2003; Button, 2007).

Table 9. Age within the Qualitative Sample

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18 to 25	3	15%
26 to 35	4	20%
36 to 45	5	25%
46 to 55	6	30%
56 to 65	1	5%
Older than 65	1	5%
Total	N=20	100%

Highest level of educational attainment

15% (n=3) had no qualifications, 60% (n=12) graduated with GCSE/O Levels, 20% (n=4) with A-Levels and 5% (n=1) had completed an advanced education (**Table 10**). The number of interviewees with no qualifications in this study is much lower than the one in Button's (2007) study (35%). However, whilst only 5% in this study had completed an advanced education, 20% of Button and Park's (2009) RSG sample held a postgraduate or university degree. Still, the number of RSGs who graduated with A-levels within the retail security industry seemed to be consistent with rates of 20% (Button and Park, 2009) and 21% (Button, 2007).

Table 10. Highest Level of Educational Attainment within the Qualitative Sample

Educational Attainment	Frequency	Percentage
No Qualifications	3	15%
GCSE/O Levels	12	60%
A-Levels	4	20%
Advanced Education	1	5%
University Degree	0	0%
Total	N=20	100%

Current work locations

The work locations of the interviewees were distributed all over the country with 10% (n=2) working in the West Midlands, 20% (n=4) in the East Midlands, 5% (n=1) in the North West of the country, 10% (n=2) in the South West, 10% (n=2) in the South East, 5% (n=1) in the North East, 20% (n=4) in Yorkshire and the Humber, 15% (n=3) in Scotland and 5% (n=1) in mixed areas (**Table 11**). This data is difficult to compare with

other qualitative data sets in that field as they were collected in South Korea (Button and Park, 2009) or only reveal that they had been conducted in the UK (Wakefield, 2003). However, when comparing the data with (R)SG studies which provide more detailed information on the locations within the UK (Porter et al., 2015; Button, 2007), this study could gain insights from interviewees working in comparable areas of the country.

Table 11. Current Work Locations of the Qualitative Sample

Work Locations	Frequency	Percentage
North East	1	5%
North West	1	5%
Yorkshire and the Humber	4	20%
East Midlands	4	20%
West Midlands	2	10%
East	0	0%
London	0	0%
South East	2	10%
South West	2	10%
Wales	0	0%
Scotland	3	15%
Northern Ireland	0	0%
Mixed Areas	1	5%
Total	N=20	100%

Years of work experience as a RSG working with the public

55% (n=11) of the interviewees worked between 1 and 5 years as a RSG, 15% (n=3) between 6 and 10 years, 10% (n=2) between 11 and 15 years, 10% (n=2) between 16 and 20 years and 10% (n=2) more than 20 years (**Table 12**). In other words, 55% (n=11) of the interview sample were relatively new to the job with work experience between 0 and 5 years, whereas 25% (n=5) were experienced on a medium-scale with work experience between 6 and 15 years and 20% (n=4) highly experienced with work experience between 16 and more than 20 years. Whilst this data is comparable with one study (Wakefield, 2003), this sample's level of work experience was higher than the sample interviewed by Button (2007) where the vast majority had between 1 and 5 years work experience (94.1%).

Table 12. Years of Work Experience within the Frontline Retail Security Industry of the Qualitative Sample

Work Experience	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 year	0	0%
1 to 5	11	55%
6 to 10	3	15%
11 to 15	2	10%
16 to 20	2	10%
More than 20 years	2	10%
Total	N=20	100%

The interview sample turned out to be very widespread geographically. The interviews took place in the English cities/towns of Ashford, Barnsley, Birmingham, Cheltenham Spa, Hereford, Leicester, Lincoln, Middlesbrough, Rotherham, Sheffield, Southampton and Stockport as well as in the Scottish cities/towns of Edinburgh, Glasgow and Stirling. The locations have been visualised in **Figure 3**. The interviewees received an update on the progress of the research project on 26 July 2017, 3 January 2018, 2 July 2018 and 1 October 2018, followed by a copy of the research report on 14 October 2018. Overall, the data in this section might help to close a research gap as very little is known about the profiles of SGs in the UK (Button, 2007).

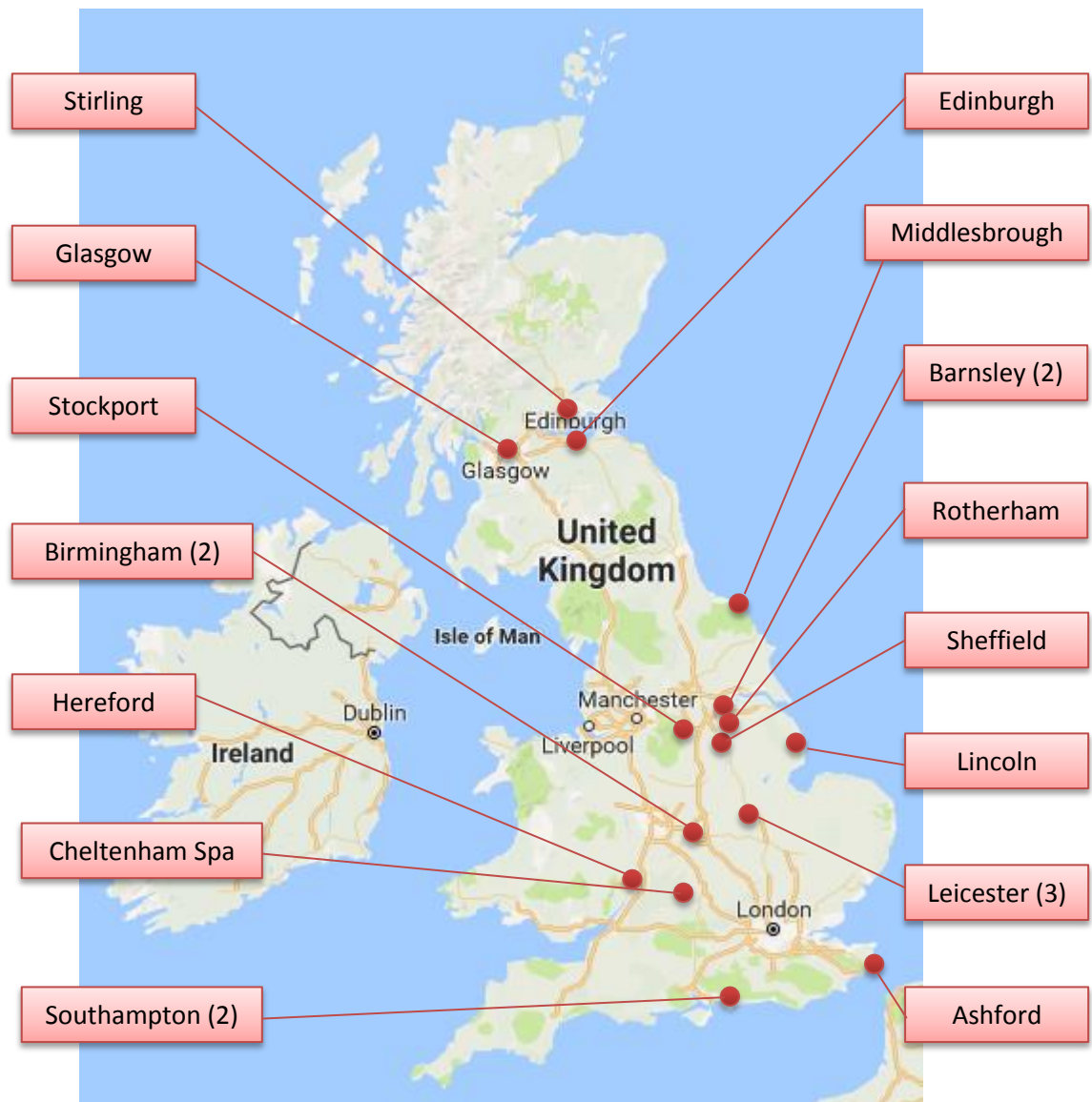


Figure 3. Map of Interview Locations (Google Maps, 2017)

4.8 Practical and Ethical Considerations

The observance of ethical regulations in research is of paramount importance as it means to consider social and moral values such as human rights, health and safety, social responsibility and compliance with the law (Resnik, 2015). In this study, the following ethical and practical aspects had to be considered:

1. Legal or Other Implications

It was assumed that some interviewees or their colleagues might have defended themselves against perpetrators by making use of unreasonable force. Thus, interviewees were asked already prior to the interview to omit or distort any details (e.g. names of people involved). Interviewees observed this request with the outcome being that no legally questionable behaviours could be linked to any particular cases. The online questionnaire, on the other hand, was totally anonymous so it was not possible to link any information to respondents' identities. Furthermore, after a very difficult and time-consuming pilot-testing phase, the researcher decided to offer incentives to his participants in the form of gift vouchers (questionnaire respondents) and cash money (interview participants). Incentives – and financial inducements in particular – can raise ethical questions (Grant and Sugarman, 2004) so the guidelines developed by Wendler, Rackoff, Emanuel and Grady (2002) were considered:

a) Guidelines on when and how vouchers are distributed/payment is made

Potential questionnaire participants were informed about the possibility to take part in a so-called 'prize draw'. The prize was one of ten £20.00 Amazon vouchers or one £50.00 Amazon gift voucher. At the end of the questionnaire, respondents had the option to include their email-address in case they wanted to take part in the prize draw. The closing date for receipt of entry was stated (16 December 2016). After the closing date, eleven questionnaire participants (10x £20.00 Amazon vouchers and 1x £50.00 Amazon voucher) were picked by applying a systematic sampling strategy. Winners were selected using a fixed sampling interval ($204 \text{ respondents} \div 11 \text{ vouchers} = \text{every } 19^{\text{th}} \text{ respondent}$), were informed about their winnings via email on 16 January 2017 (**Appendix 7**) (Fox et al., 2009) and received an email from Amazon including the

voucher shortly after (**Appendix 8**). Each interview participant, on the other hand, was given £15.00 cash money in an unsealed envelope prior to the start of the interview on the interview day. The ten £20.00 Amazon vouchers, the £50.00 Amazon voucher and the £15.00 cash money could be considered as a so-called 'one-off payment' so that these payments were exempt from tax and other regulations such as the 2005 Gambling Act.

b) Justification for offering vouchers/paying participants

It has been suggested that incentives encourage higher levels of participation and that they can be considered as an appropriate token of appreciation for participants' help or as compensation for lost time (Mental Health Research Network and INVOLVE, 2013). Also, by compensating interviewees for such expenses, a number of individuals for whom being involved was not a priority may have been reached.

c) Participation in prize draw/payment in cases of withdrawal

Questionnaire participants were informed prior to the data collection process that only *completed* questionnaires would be considered for the participation in the prize draw. Interviewees, on the other hand, were informed that they could refuse to answer questions or withdraw from the study at any time without losing their £15.00 cash payment.

d) Cases of potential coercion

Incentives might have been interpreted as coercive, leading to a not 'freely-given' consent. Participants were in employment and thus unlikely to be financially dependent on the offered incentives. Furthermore, considering the average wage of £7.55 per hour for RSGs (PayScale, 2016), the offered inducement of £15.00 appeared proportionate and not so high that it would have distorted their judgements of the risks and benefits of participation. Furthermore, due to the risks involved in retail security work it could be assumed that participants were experienced in calculating risks and making well-thought out decisions. Thus, it was believed that the offered inducements did not invalidate participants' informed consent.

e) Explanation of prize/payment policy in the consent process

Both questionnaire and interview participants were clearly informed about the prize/payment policy prior to participation (e.g. closing date for receipt of entry or winning chance).

2. Protection of Participants

The RSGs in this research had experienced violence. Consequently, appropriate measures had to be taken in order to protect them from further emotional harm. Thus, participants had to be informed about the content of the study and were required to give consent. Questionnaire respondents were informed about the purpose of the study via email (**Appendix 6**) and had to agree to the conditions stated in the Certificate of Consent in the questionnaire before participating. Also, interviewees were informed about the study via email (**Appendix 9**), had to read through an Information Sheet and sign a Certificate of Consent before participating (**Appendix 10**). Interviewees received a copy of the aforementioned documents. All interviewees were capable of reading. Only RSGs participating voluntarily were considered and participants were made aware that they could withdraw from the research at any point in time – including during and after the data collection process – without having to fear any disadvantages (Elwood and Martin, 2000).

3. Confidentiality and Privacy of Participants

All information provided by participants had to be kept confidential and their privacy had to be maintained. The questionnaire was anonymous. Concerning the interviews, five were conducted in interviewees' homes, a further six in public places (cafés) and the remaining nine at interviewees' workplaces (staff rooms). The interviews in public places were conducted in isolation from other members of the public and those conducted at interviewees' workplaces proceeded without any interruptions from retail staff. The researcher did not share and will not be sharing any information with anybody outside of the research team which consists of himself and his supervisors. This thesis does not contain any data through which the reader could identify participating companies or 'human participants' (Elwood and Martin, 2000).

4. Discussion of Sensitive Topics

In order to provide the most comfortable environment for the interviewees, it was left to the participants to decide where exactly the interviews were going to take place as long as the chosen venues were considered to be relatively quiet and safe for the researcher (Brikci, 2007; Elwood and Martin, 2000). The researcher used to work as a police officer for seven years. Hence, the researcher was very experienced in talking to victims of violence and received extensive police training on how to deal with violence victims in the most sensitive way. The interviews began with questions which were unlikely to cause any distress before talking about more sensitive topics.

5. Potential Identification of Participants

Only questionnaire respondents who decided to participate in further research and who voluntarily added their contact details were identifiable to the researcher. However, a digital voice recorder was used for the interviews. This held the danger that interviewees could be identified based on their recorded voices or stories. Hence, it was essential that this recorded material could not be accessed by anybody outside of the research team. For that reason, the data was transferred from the recorder to the researcher's laptop immediately after the interviews. Subsequently, the data was deleted from the recorder. Afterwards, the data was transferred from the researcher's laptop to an encrypted stick and deleted from the laptop. The encrypted stick was stored in a safe place (locked cupboard in the researcher's home address) so that it could only be accessed by the researcher himself. After graduation, the data will be destroyed by deleting the recorded material from the encrypted stick and by shredding the consent forms.

6. Inducement of Psychological Stress, Anxiety or Negative Consequences

In order to minimise the risks of inducing psychological stress, anxiety or other negative consequences, participants were provided with contact details of a victim support service. Furthermore, interviewees were debriefed by the researcher afterwards to help alleviate any uncomfortable reactions to certain questions. Moreover, in order to protect participants from any occupational consequences, all interview data in this thesis was kept absolutely confidential and presented in a way

that ensured anonymity. Also, security company and retail company names are anonymised in this thesis to prevent potential future perpetrators of WV from discovering potential lapses in security. In February 2016, the online application for ethical approval was submitted through the University's ethical approval system. All of the issues mentioned above were raised. The researcher was familiar with the University's Research Ethics Code of Practice (University of Leicester, 2016) and strictly observed the key principles provided by the Economic and Social Research Council (2012) (*Framework for Research Ethics*) and the British Society of Criminology (2015) (*Statement of Ethics*) throughout the whole research process. At the beginning of March 2016, the researcher's application was approved (**Appendix 11A and 11B**).

4.9 Limitations

This research faced a number of limitations. Firstly, some issues were identified in the sampling process. Due to practical difficulties, a simple random technique was applied to identify the qualitative sample. This held the danger of collecting only one-sided data (e.g. only positive or only negative experiences with OES) (Porter et al., 2015). Thus, it is questionable whether the study sample provides a representative picture of UK RSGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV. However, this limitation was difficult to avoid and it was felt that the interviews produced a mixture of very different experiences and covered all explored phenomena sufficiently. Furthermore, this study could only reach active RSGs who had access to a computer and who had an email address. Moreover, a representative number of participants would have ideally stemmed from each company in order to explore a range of experiences in different work environments. However, due to the anonymity of the research, participants could not be allocated to particular companies so companies might be unevenly represented. This issue could only have been avoided by requesting details about respondents' employers. This in turn would have endangered respondents' anonymity and might have led to a low response and/or high misreporting rate. Thus, for ethical and practical reasons, this limitation was inevitable. Notwithstanding, the researcher observed that interviewees were wearing different uniforms or badges meaning that

the qualitative data demonstrably captured information from a variety of security companies. Moreover, the sensitivity of the survey questions might have led to RSGs (1) not taking part in the research in the first place, (2) refusing to fill out certain questions or ending the questionnaire prematurely or (3) answering certain questions untruthfully (Tourangeau and Yan, 2007). Notwithstanding, the study's sensitive questions were inextricably linked with the study's topic so that this limitation could not be avoided. Further, the whole interview sample consisted of only male RSGs. The author sought to recruit female RSGs for this research which was impossible. Out of the nine female RSGs who agreed to participate in an interview only three were eligible as the remaining six had never been physically assaulted at work. All three female RSGs were contacted multiple times but only one replied agreeing to participate in an interview. However, this one female RSG did not turn up at the interview location and ignored subsequent telephone calls and emails.

Secondly, some interviewees' native language was not English and the researcher is not a native speaker either. It is assumed that languages contain typical subtleties which can only be accurately expressed and understood in the mother tongue. It is possible that this language barrier led to some miscommunication which would constitute a limitation. However, in order to minimise this limitation, the researcher briefly repeated the core statements of interviewees' responses to give them the chance to rectify any misinterpretations during the interviews.

Thirdly, this study had to rely on self-report data which is wedded to a number of problems. Questionnaire respondents were mainly asked to give information on their *last experience* of WV. This entailed the risk that the quantitative data provided only a snapshot overlooking respondents' former experiences of OES and former self-protection behaviours. However, this limitation could be partly offset as interviewees were encouraged to talk about those WV incidents they considered to be the *most significant*. Furthermore, both questionnaire respondents and interviewees had to remember incidents which sometimes were a long time ago. This held the danger of memory distortion and false recollections (Vezyridis et al., 2014; Budd, Arvey and Lawless, 1996) as victims' recall reliability can decrease significantly after the elapse of

a few months (Dex, 2003; Doerner and Lab, 2012). However, contacting exclusively volunteers who had been assaulted a few weeks ago would have produced an extremely low interview sample (nil actually). Also, asking interviewees solely about the most recent WV experiences would not have produced a usable data set. In addition, interviewees had to be allowed to 'jump between' different WV experiences as meaningful CFs were scattered over different incidents. By allowing participants this freedom, the restrictive character of the questionnaire could be offset. Also, social desirability bias such as the Hawthorne Effect may have been present potentially resulting in some interviewees having the desire to fulfil certain expectations (e.g. high occupational loyalty) as they felt influenced by the researcher's presence (Shaw, Pease and Heberton, 2011; Barnes, 2009). A few interviewees appeared very reserved at the beginning of the interviews. However, these interviewees were found to open up once the interviews progressed, particularly after the researcher reassured them of the anonymity and confidentiality of the research.

Fourthly, qualitative data is sometimes criticised for not representing what participants 'really' experienced but a filtered and modified version of the 'truth' (Dean and Whyte, 2003). However, as already discussed in the philosophical part of this chapter, subjectivity cannot be avoided in qualitative research and – based on a constructivist view of the researcher – was accepted as part of human interaction. Hence, subjectivity was considered to be an inevitable companion of this study.

Fifthly, the external validity, reliability and generalisability of this research is questionable because 20 interviewees are unlikely to be representative for all RSGs in the UK, let alone for all RSGs worldwide. However, two points are of relevance in that context. Firstly, according to Noble and Smith (2015), the aforementioned concepts cannot be applied to qualitatively-driven research because the philosophical position and purpose of qualitative methods is innately different from quantitative methods. Even though no universally accepted guidelines exist, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest the adoption of a set of alternative criteria to ensure credibility in qualitative research. These criteria are *truth value* (an equivalent of validity), *consistency* and *neutrality* (equivalents of reliability) and *applicability* (an equivalent of generalisability). By

following a constructivist approach, this study recognised that multiple realities exist (*truth value*). Further, the author believes that he made his decisions clear and transparent (*consistency*) and that he acknowledged his own philosophical stance, experiences and perspectives when engaging with participants and the data (*neutrality*). Lastly, the researcher is aware that the qualitative findings of this study must be treated with caution when they are applied to non-UK RSGs, other security industry branches within the UK (e.g. event security) and particularly to occupations outside the security industry (*applicability*). As a consequence, it is believed that the qualitative findings of this study are credible. Secondly, as already discussed earlier (see section 4.2.5 'Methodological Approach'), the qualitative nature of this study was dominant and the purpose of the quantitative element was to increase the credibility of the qualitative data (triangulation) and to use its results to enhance the qualitative results (development). Insofar, generalisations were not intended from the beginning. The quantitative data also served as a control mechanism for some general knowledge claims derived from the qualitative findings which may have helped to improve the study's credibility.

4.10 Data Analysis

4.10.1 Quantitative Analysis

Finally, it needs to be illustrated how the quantitative and qualitative data has been analysed in this research. As already mentioned under the section 'Methodological Approach' (section 4.2.5), questionnaires had been distributed in this study in order to identify the qualitative sample and to identify areas of interest for the purpose of triangulating the qualitative findings.

Sample Identification

Once respondents voluntarily agreed to give an interview and provided their contact details (*Question 24*), their email address or telephone number was recorded. At the end of the quantitative data collection, the questionnaire software had created a list of contact details which were used to contact the interview volunteers.

Phenomenological Orientation

The recorded answers of the questionnaire respondents were visible to the researcher in Qualtrics in the form of frequency tables. These tables summarised ‘the data by counting the number of times each value or category of a particular variable occurs’ (Miller, Acton, Fullerton and Maltby, 2002: 60). Prior to the interviews, the data was examined for any conspicuous features such as suspiciously high or low values. These identified conspicuous features were kept in mind in order to probe certain topics during the interviews.

Triangulation

Questionnaire responses were saved as an Excel file and converted into numeric codes (**Appendix 12**). Subsequently, the numeric codes were transferred electronically from the Excel file to the statistical analysis software package SPSS. Some responses were then recoded to create broader categories. Mostly, descriptive analysis was conducted in order to observe frequencies. Therefore, the frequencies of demographics (e.g. proportions male/female) and variables relevant to the research questions/research gaps (e.g. victimisation rate) were identified. Relevant results were presented in frequency counts tables or pie charts. Beyond that, bivariate analysis was conducted (cross-tabulations) to observe relationships between factors such as organisations’ provision of OES and respondents’ level of perceived loyalty towards their organisations. Non-parametric tests were also used in the form of a chi-square (χ^2) test for independence. This test provides information on the difference between the expected number of cases in a table and the actual number that appear. Thus, chi-square is a measure of that difference – the higher it is, the greater the difference, which indicates the existence of a relationship. This test was used because the researcher was interested in the relationship between two categorical variables when analysing respondents’ answers concerning organisational support (Pallant, 2013).

4.10.2 Qualitative Analysis

Thematic analysis was chosen as a qualitative analytic method which is a ‘method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 79). Due to its theoretical flexibility (Joffe, 2012), thematic analysis is perfectly combinable with phenomenological research paradigms (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Willig, 2016; Braun and Clarke, 2017) such as interpretive (hermeneutic) phenomenology (Goble and Yin, 2014; Van Manen, 2014). This flexibility encouraged researchers to increasingly apply this combination (e.g. Van Manen, 2014; Malik, 2015). Consequently, thematic analysis was considered for this research and ultimately chosen for the following three reasons. Firstly, thematic analysis appeared suitable for exploring the research questions of this study as it investigated RSGs’ experiences, feelings, views, opinions and practices (Braun and Clarke, 2017). Secondly, the focal point of this research lay on patterning of meaning *across* participants (the occupational *group* RSGs) as opposed to deep individual insights (Braun and Clarke, 2017). This was the reason for exploring a larger number of cases (Braun et al., 2015) instead of a smaller number as suggested for alternative phenomenological analytic methods with a more ideographic focus (Smith and Osborn, 2015). Thirdly, following Husserl’s original notion of phenomenology, phenomenologists traditionally aim to ‘let the data speak for themselves’ when it comes to the analysing stage (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2014: 8). Therefore, the researcher is encouraged to ‘lay back’ (Crotty, 1998: 78) and to look ‘at the experience with wide-open eyes, with knowledge, facts, theories held at bay’ (Oiler, 1982: 180) assuming that data can be discovered as long as the researcher looks close enough (Ely, Vinz, Downing and Anzul, 1997). This suggests that analysing is a passive process (Braun and Clarke, 2017). However, the researcher agrees with Gould (1981) and Baptiste (2001) who state that data can never speak for themselves as analysts always approach them with some kind of conceptual framework in mind. Data collection and analysis are inevitably informed by researchers’ preconceptions, disciplinary knowledge and experience (Braun et al., 2015; Taylor and Ussher, 2001) so that themes do not simply emerge (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Consequently, thematic analysis was applied because it acknowledges the *active* role of the researcher in the analysis process.

Prior to the start of the analysis, the researcher had to make a number of decisions as to how he intended to approach the qualitative data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Firstly, the thematic analysis approach in this study searched for *specific aspects* of the data (e.g. CFs or SPMs) instead of a rich description of the entire data set (Willig and Wheeler, 2016). Secondly, as discussed under the heading ‘Methods of Reasoning’ in this chapter (section 4.2.4), the analysis served both an *inductive* and *deductive* objective. Thirdly, the analysis focused on both *semantic themes* (what an interviewee has clearly said) and *latent themes* (which goes beyond what has been said by interpreting the underlying ideas); a mixture which is quite common (Braun, Clark and Hayfield, 2015). Lastly, as already determined under the heading ‘Philosophical Stance’ (section 4.2.1), this research was conducted from a *constructivist* perspective. These decisions were in line with Braun and Clarke (2006: 86) who concluded that ‘Those approaches which consider specific aspects, latent themes and are constructivist tend to often cluster together.’ When it came to the application of thematic analysis, the researcher made use of the 6-phase guide suggested by Braun and Clark (2006) which is presented below. The analysis was conducted manually. The researcher had previously been trained in using the qualitative data analysis computer programme NVivo but agrees with Van Manen (2011) who stated that the analysis of qualitative data is too complex and creative a process to allow it to be conducted by a machine.

(1) Familiarisation

To begin with, the audio-recordings were transcribed verbatim by a professional transcription service who is legally obliged to keep the data confidential (**Appendix 13**). As the interviews were transcribed by another, the researcher had to examine the transcripts for accuracy and to immerse himself with the data by repeated reading of the transcripts. Initial analytic thoughts were captured by taking handwritten notes alongside the texts.

(2) Coding

Extracts from the text which were considered useful in answering the research questions were underlined (Braun et al., 2015) and put together in a new document.

Features of the data which appeared interesting to the researcher (codes) were generated and written alongside the data excerpts (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

(3) Searching for Themes

Subsequently, the identified codes were analysed by considering how different codes might combine to shape different types of themes (Braun et al., 2015). Themes were allocated a unique colour and highlighted.

(4) Reviewing Themes

Furthermore, the data excerpts associated with the code for each theme were re-read multiple times to ensure they formed a coherent pattern. Subsequently, the researcher reviewed all themes including their data excerpts and checked whether they reflected the meanings evident in the overall data set.

(5) Defining and Naming Themes

Afterwards, themes were further refined. For that purpose, all collated data excerpts for each theme were reviewed and ordered so that they were coherent and internally consistent. This step helped to develop the researcher's analytical commentary.

(6) Producing the Report

Lastly, the report (results/discussion chapters) was produced. As pointed out by Braun et al. (2015: 241), 'there is no clear separation between analysis and writing' in thematic analysis so data analysis and production of the report went hand in hand. Vivid excerpts were chosen in order to underpin the key observations. The presentation of the data excerpts was followed by the researcher's analytical commentaries.

4.11 Conclusion

In this chapter the study's research design was explained showing that relativism was the most suitable ontological stance and constructivism the most appropriate epistemological stance. Further, it was demonstrated why interpretivism was selected as the study's theoretical perspective before it was shown that both an inductive and deductive as well as a qualitatively-driven mixed-method approach were most appropriate in order to conduct this interpretive phenomenological research. Further, it was explained why an online questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were the most suitable data collection methods to investigate a sample of victimised RSGs. The chapter continued with details about how the data collection was planned, prepared and conducted, including all difficulties which the researcher had to face when organising the research participants. Lastly, the importance of ethics and the study's limitations were pointed out before showing that frequency counts, bivariate analysis and a chi-square test helped to analyse the quantitative data and thematic analysis assisted in analysing the qualitative data. The next chapter presents the results of the fieldwork alongside an extensive discussion and interpretation of the findings in light of the previous literature.

Chapter 5

Results and Discussion (1):

Participants' Experiences of, and Emotional Reactions to, Workplace Violence

5.1 Introduction

It was decided to combine the study's results with the discussion and to present them in three chapters: (1) participants' experiences of, and emotional reactions to, workplace violence (WV), (2) participants' perceptions of, and occupational reactions to, organisational emotional support (OES) and (3) participants' behavioural reactions to WV. Following the approach taken in the literature review, the first results/discussion chapter is divided into two parts – participants' experience of the violent act and participants' experience of contextual factors (CFs) which accompany the violent act. The first part focuses on participants' experience of a violent act. It begins with an investigation of the extent of WV amongst participants before exploring the physical as well as emotional consequences of an assault for them. The second part examines a number of CFs which can occur during WV incidents. This exploration aims to better understand what factors other than the actual violence RSGs have to deal with when being attacked and what these CFs mean for their emotional well-being. This is in line with the first aim of this thesis which is to investigate the role of CFs accompanying the violent act in order to identify their perceived impact on RSGs' emotional well-being.

5.2 The Violent Act

5.2.1 Extent of Workplace Violence within the Sample

To begin with, a quantitative measure was made of the extent of assaults against RSGs. For that reason, the questionnaire asked respondents whether they had ever been assaulted by a member of the public in their time as a RSG (*Question 7*). All 488 respondents answered this question out of which slightly more than half (52.7%, $n=257$) had experienced physical violence at some point in their career (**Table 13**).

Table 13. Respondents' Experience of Workplace Violence during their Retail Security Career (100%, $N=488$)

Ever WV Victimisation (Retail Security)	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	257	52.7%
No	231	47.3%
Total	$N=488$	100%

This high prevalence of incidents was confirmed by the qualitative data. Overall, the 20 victimised interviewees gave detailed insights into 37 WV experiences (**Table 15**). However, interviewees differed strongly when it came to the number of experienced incidents. Some reported to have been involved in 'only' a few incidents throughout their whole retail security career whereas others stated to have been involved in several, reportedly up to hundreds of incidents. Concerning the latter cases, it is possible that participants exaggerated the number of incidents as they may have wanted to impress the researcher; a phenomenon which has already been identified in RSGs by Button (2007), Rigakos (2002), Monaghan (2003) and Farrimond et al. (2018). Further, out of those victimised questionnaire respondents who provided an answer regarding their WV victimisation experience in the past 12 months ($n=254$), more than three-quarters (79.5%, $n=202$) had been assaulted between December 2015 and December 2016 (**Table 14**).

Table 14. Respondents' Experience of Workplace Violence in the past 12 Months (100%, $N=254$)

WV Victimisation past 12 months	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	202	79.5%
No	52	20.5%
Total	$N=254$	100%

This quantitative data also matched the qualitative data as many of the interviewees had experienced some form of physical WV within the course of the last 12 months preceding the start of the interviews. Out of these incidents, two happened within the same month the interview took place and one even occurred within the same week. However, in this study, interviewees' most poignant WV experiences were of interest which were not always their most recent ones. This resulted in interviewees giving accounts of incidents that occurred between two days and nine years prior to the interview (**Table 15**).

The quantitative findings in particular, but also many of the qualitative findings, suggest a very high prevalence of WV within the retail security industry which matches the figures previously identified in the literature review. However, a direct comparison proved to be difficult. This study focused on RSGs, defined WV as 'incidents of physical, external violence that occur while the victim (RSG) is on duty' (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.1) and provided respondents with the following examples of physical assault: 'hitting, kicking, scratching, pushing, shoving, grabbing or trying to do so' (**Appendix 2**). In contrast, the studies identified in the literature review included various types of SGs (Larsson et al., 2010; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009; Ferguson et al., 2011; Leino et al., 2011; Declercq et al., 2007; Porter et al., 2015) or were not clear on how 'assault' was measured (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009; Porter et al., 2015; Ferguson et al., 2011; Button, 2007; Button and Park, 2009) so 'attempted assault' or assaults which did not result in an injury (e.g. pushing) might have been missed. In addition, the research period was sometimes unknown (Declercq et al., 2007) or comprised several years (Larsson et al., 2010; Ferguson et al., 2011). Still, when comparing the findings with those of the few studies which focused on RSGs (Button, 2007; Button and Park, 2009), they support the high violence rate within the retail security industry as some of the samples in these studies reported that WV occurred on a monthly basis. Most importantly, the fact that four out of five of the victimised respondents had been assaulted within the course of the last 12 months indicates that violence against retail security personnel is a current problem which deserves attention from decision-makers in policy and industry. However, it could be argued that the quantitative sample was not typical: the majority responded within the first few days after the

questionnaire had been sent out which could mean that the sample had a particular interest in participating in the study; potentially motivated by strong feelings (Porter et al., 2015). On the other hand, nearly 50% of the sample had never been victimised during their retail security career and almost 20% did not have such an experience between December 2015 and December 2016. This indicates that victimisation was probably not the sole driver for participation.

5.2.2 Physical Consequences of the Violent Act

5.2.2.1 Type of Assault

The quantitative analysis continued with an exploration of how participants were assaulted. For that purpose, those 254 respondents who had experienced WV victimisation at some point in their career were asked how many times they had been assaulted *with* a weapon or object within the past 12 months (*Question 8a*). As a reminder, ‘offensive weapon’ was defined in this research as ‘any object that is made, adapted, or intended to be used to cause physical injury to a person’ (Oxford Dictionary of Law, 2013: 379-380). 254 respondents answered that question. Almost three-quarters (72%, n=183) were not assaulted with a weapon or object within that period whilst 15.7% (n=40) experienced such an assault once, 11.4% (n=29) two to five times and 0.8% (n=2) even more than five times. This means that out of the 254 respondents, more than a quarter (28%, n=71) had been physically assaulted *with* a weapon or object within the past 12 months, whereas almost three-quarters (72%, n=183) did not report such an experience (**Table 16**).

Table 16. Respondents’ Experience of Assault *with* a Weapon in the past 12 Months (100%, N=254)

Assault <i>with</i> Weapon past 12 months	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	71	28%
No	183	72%
Total	N=254	100%

In that context, interviewees’ accounts helped to understand what types of weapons or objects RSGs have to deal with (**Table 15**). Many accounts included assaults where interviewees were hit with bottles, furniture, bags or stock (e.g. frozen meat). The

most severe cases involved an attempted running over with a car and attempted or successful stabbings with a syringe or a knife as reported by Interviewee 16:

Interviewee: (...) he reached into his pocket, pulled out a craft blade (...) and he went like that, you know? [Interviewee is making a swinging motion with his arm] To try and cut me and I just moved out of the way in time.

Researcher: *So he aimed at your face?*

Interviewee: Yeah, he aimed at the face.

Table 15. Interviewees' Accounts of Workplace Violence Experiences

Interviewee	Overall Number of Incidents	Time of Most Significant Incident	Type of Assault
1	1	6-7 years	Grabbed around the neck, strangled
2	1	5-6 years	Punched and kicked by two people
3	1	6 months	Grabbed, shirt ripped, wrestled
4	1	4 weeks	Attempted stabbing with syringe
5	1	1 year	Punched on the chin
6	3	5 years	Kicked
7	1	8 months	Hit over the head with a bottle
8	1	1.5 years	Stabbed with a syringe (knowledge of Hepatitis C)
9	1	9 years	Punched
10	1	2 months	Punched on the chest
11	3	No mention	Spat at, attempted punch and hit with furniture
12	6	No mention	Attempted runover with car, pushed and wrestled
13	2	No mention	Hit over the head with a bottle, punched, spat at
14	5	No mention	Attempted stabbing (syringe), punched, kicked, bitten
15	1	2 months	Attempted hit; scratched, bitten, spat at (Hepatitis C)
16	1	3 years	Hit, wrestled and attempted stabbing with a knife
17	1	7 months	Punched, kicked and bitten
18	1	2 weeks	Wrestled
19	4	2 days	Spat at, hit, stock thrown at him (axes)
20	1	9 years	Attempted stabbing with a syringe

In addition, the aforementioned 254 victimised respondents were asked how many times they had been assaulted *without* a weapon or object within the past 12 months (*Question 8b*). Again, 254 answered that question. A quarter (25.2%, n=64) did not experience an assault *without* a weapon or object within that time frame whereas 27.6% (n=70) had that experience once, 36.6% (n=93) two to five times and 10.6%

(n=27) more than five times. This means that out of the 254 (100%) victimised respondents, three-quarters (74.8%, n=190) had been physically assaulted *without* a weapon or object within the past 12 months, whereas one quarter (25.2%, n=64) did not report such an experience (**Table 17**).

Table 17. Respondents' Experience of Workplace Violence *without* a Weapon in the past 12 Months (100%, N=254)

Assault <i>without</i> Weapon past 12 months	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	64	25.2%
No	190	74.8%
Total	N=254	100%

Also, most interview accounts included incidents where weapons or objects had *not* been involved (**Table 15**). These accounts included being punched, kicked, wrestled and spat at (in one case by a perpetrator who was infected with hepatitis) but also being pushed, bitten, scratched and grabbed such as Interviewee 1: "I got grabbed around the neck (...) And I remember the podium, it became detached from the ground so all I remember is being strangled (...)".

The findings on types of assault in this study are higher than Leino's (2013) results by far who revealed that only 15% (n=152) of his Finnish SG sample experienced *unarmed* assaults in a period of seven years. However, the findings are consistent with a recent study conducted in the UK by Porter et al. (2015) across the whole security industry. Concerning assaults *without* a weapon or object against SGs (past 12 months), their findings (74%) are almost identical with the results of the current study (74.8%) and regarding assaults *with* a weapon or object (past 12 months) their findings (34%) are very similar to this research (28%). The similarity with Porter et al.'s study enhances the credibility of the findings in this study and shows that RSGs are as frequently exposed to WV as their colleagues in other areas of the security industry. In addition, as participants mostly experienced assaults including 'personal weapons' such as hands and feet (Leino et al., 2012: 691), the results of this study support those of Schat and Kelloway (2005) and Smith et al. (2015) who concluded that WV victims are

predominantly exposed to assaults *not* involving weapons or objects; a finding which has been confirmed by Button (2007) with respect to the retail security industry.

Overall, the quantitative data suggests that RSGs are mostly exposed to unarmed assaults. However, interviewees' accounts show that 'unarmed' should not be equated with 'not dangerous' as the intensity of some assaults (e.g. Interviewee 2 who was punched and kicked by two people) or some of the participants' assaulted body parts (e.g. Interviewee 1 who was strangled) clearly held the potential of serious injury. Beyond that, the questionnaire data shows that participants still often had to face assaults involving 'offensive weapons' because items were used against them which were '(...) intended to be used to cause physical injury to a person' (Oxford Dictionary of Law, 2013: 379-380). The fact that more than a quarter of respondents (28%, n=71) had been assaulted *with* a weapon or object within the past 12 months underlines the hazardousness of the types of assaults RSGs are exposed to. The findings in this section suggest that both assault including but also not including weapons or objects are nothing trivial and should be taken seriously when being reported.

5.2.2.2 Injury Patterns

As the type of assault is often closely related to the physical consequences of an assault, the quantitative analysis focused on the injury patterns received by participants. In that context, questionnaire respondents were asked about the most severe injury they received after their last experience of WV (*Question 9*). 246 respondents answered that question. Almost two-thirds (60.6%, n=149) received an injury (**Table 18**).

Table 18. Injury vs. No Injury (100%, N=246)

Receipt of Injury	Frequency	Percentage
Injured	149	60.6%
Not injured	97	39.4%
Total	N=246	100%

Out of these 149 injured respondents, the majority (77.2%, n=115) received scratches, bruises and/or red marks or slight bleeding, 12.6% (n=19) received a cut or heavy bleeding, 0.7% (n=1) a joint injury, 5.4% (n=8) broken bones, 3.4% (n=5) a stab wound following a syringe or knife attack and 0.7% (n=1) skin and breathing irritation due to a CS gas attack (**Table 19**).

Table 19. Level of Injury

Level of Injury	Frequency	Percentage
Scratch/bruise/slight bleeding	115	77.2%
Cut, heavy bleeding	19	12.6%
Joint injury	1	0.7%
Broken bone(s)	8	5.4%
Stab wound	5	3.4%
Skin and breathing irritation	1	0.7%
Total	N=149	100%

In this research, scratches, bruises and/or red marks or slight bleeding were categorised as minor injuries whereas the remaining types of injuries were categorised as major injuries. Thus, out of the 149 injured RSGs, more than three-quarters (77.2%, n=115) received minor injuries and almost one quarter (22.8%, n=34) major injuries (**Table 20**).

Table 20. Severity of Injury Patterns (100%, N=149)

Severity of Injury Patterns	Frequency	Percentage
Minor Injuries	115	77.2%
Major Injuries	34	22.8%
Total	N=149	100%

Even though most interviewees described WV experiences where they did not receive an injury or only minor injuries, some talked about incidents where they received a major injury (**Table 21**). These interviewees' accounts included the receipt of physical injuries such as a broken leg, a chipped tooth, temporary fractured vision in one eye, burst blood vessels in one leg which resulted in inflammation, a dislocated shoulder as well as deep cuts and flesh wounds following a knife attack as reported by Interviewee 9:

He [perpetrator] actually pulled a knife from his back belt and went to stab me, first down in movements (...) I put my hands up (...) it went right into my finger and then when he pulled it out he went again and it scraped the back of my hand and then he ran. Thank God, he could have gone further.

Table 21. Interviewees' Level of Injuries

Interviewee	Level of Injury
1	No injury
2	Cuts and bruises, eyes and lips were bleeding
3	No injury
4	No injury
5	No injury
6	Scratches and bruises, assault reopened recently healed wound on leg
7	A lump and bruising on the head
8	Needle puncture following a syringe attack
9	One leg broken – the other badly injured, cuts and stab wound from knife attack
10	No injury
11	No injury
12	Sprained ankle
13	Temporary fractured vision in one eye, concussion, bruises and one chipped tooth
14	Burst blood vessels in calf and red marks
15	Scratches and bruises
16	No injury
17	No injury
18	No injury
19	Dislocated shoulder
20	No injury

In sum, both the quantitative and qualitative findings are in line with those which identified minor injuries, such as bruises, to be the most common injury pattern experienced by WV victims within the general workforce (Warshaw, 2011) and within the retail security industry (Button, 2007). The quantitative data suggests that almost two out of three RSGs are injured following a WV incident and that every fifth injury is a serious injury. This conclusion is cause for grave concern and raises the question as to whether more should be done to enhance the physical protection of workers in the retail security industry.

5.2.3 Emotional Consequences of the Violent Act

The analysis continued by focusing on the qualitative data and explored interviewees' emotional consequences. However, in order to be able to make a statement about the emotional consequences of violence, interviewees' accounts of their emotional experiences had to be categorised. Here it was important to reduce the author's subjective judgement as much as possible. For that reason, the concept of emotion prototypes and their semantic sub-categories developed by Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, O'Connor and Steven (1987) was used as guidance. Shaver et al. identified 135 emotions which they allocated to six broad categories: love, joy, surprise, anger, sadness and fear. For a full review of the hierarchical cluster analysis of 135 emotion names please see **Appendix 14**. In this research, emotions under the categories 'love' and 'joy' were named 'positive emotions', whereas emotions under the categories 'anger', 'sadness' and 'fear' were called 'negative emotions'. Emotions under the category 'surprise' and all emotions associated with 'indifference' were named 'neutral emotions'. Consequently, participants' emotional experiences were allocated to the three categories positive, negative and neutral emotions. If interviewees articulated emotions clearly (e.g. interviewee reported to feel 'sad') and these emotions were listed under one of Shaver et al.'s (1987) categories, they were allocated accordingly whereas latent expressions of emotions such as euphemisms or descriptions of emotions (e.g. interviewee reported to feel 'down') required the author's interpretation and were allocated to these categories subjectively. However, here it has to be noted that the author was dependent on participants' ability to describe their emotions accurately. It is possible, that some participants had difficulties to do so due their 'emotional illiteracy' or constraints borne out of the phenomenon of hegemonic masculinity. This had to be borne in mind when analysing interviewees' accounts as it underlined the importance of following an *interpretive* phenomenology research paradigm and of focusing not only on semantic but also on *latent* themes when applying thematic analysis.

To begin with, when interviewees talked about their emotional experiences of WV, the vast majority reported to have felt scared, afraid, stressed, anxious, worried and

experienced panic or fear [sub-categories of fear] such as Interviewee 2: “(...) I felt afraid then, that is the most afraid I've ever felt” or Interviewee 14 who said: “My heart was racing, I got really clammy hands. I was scared”. In addition, interviewees felt disgusted and angry [sub-categories of anger] but also unhappy, down, suffered during the incident, blamed themselves, felt uncomfortable, were hurt, felt awful, upset and embarrassed [sub-categories of sadness] like a comment from Interviewee 16 shows: “He grabbed the wine bottle, come chasing me with that (...) and then you feel embarrassed again, you know, because somebody chased you (...) because you were scared (...)”. Thus, the vast majority of interviewees experienced negative emotions when being assaulted. These findings mirror what researchers have identified in WV victims within the general workforce (e.g. Dinisman and Moroz, 2017; Langton and Truman, 2014) and support the few studies on SGs which identified a relationship between the experience of WV and distress (Leino et al., 2011), burnout (Vanheule et al., 2008) and PTSD (Declercq et al., 2007).

However, more than three-quarters of interviewees were also able to describe assaults they felt indifferent about, such as Interviewee 4 who said: “(...) it don't bother me” or Interviewee 20: “(...) it is always off a duck's back now”. These interviewees often considered WV as ‘part of their job’ like Interviewee 12 who mentioned: “(...) you exchange punches but nothing that sticks in my mind because (...) I just see it as part of the job (...)”. This attitude reflects the ‘tolerance of violence’ which Lister et al. (2000: 389) identified in their sample of door staff and matches further research on SGs in the night-time economy (NTE) where violence has been described as ‘normal’ or as an ‘everyday encounter’ (Hobbs, Hadfield, Lister and Winlow, 2002; Hobbs et al., 2007: 33; Farrimond et al., 2018).

Indifference seemed to occur for two reasons. Firstly, most of these interviewees thought that they had got used to violence. In that context, they admitted to emotional suffering in the past such as Interviewee 18:

“When I first started doing security (...) I was more fearful for my life, more fearful for myself (...)”.

However, this emotional suffering seemed to subside over time which made them get “quite immune to it [violence] after a while” (Interviewee 14) as illustrated in a comment made by Interviewees 16:

“(…) the more incidents have happened (…) I think you become (…) more used to it, you know, over the years”.

Secondly, some interviewees thought that their indifference towards violence was part of their personality such as Interviewee 20: “Some people can deal with getting assaulted (…) and some people just generally don't like it (…) so everyone is different”. Notwithstanding, a comment made by Interviewee 14 suggests that this form of indifference still comes down to habituation effects which occurred outside of their retail security job:

“I'm pretty much immune to being punched or whatever because me and my brother used to fight quite a bit when we were younger so it did prepare me.”

This comment mirrors Hobbs et al.'s (2007) findings on door staff who found that their sample's upbringing in a violent environment prepared them physically and emotionally for assaults they had to deal with when working in the NTE. Hence, the qualitative data revealed that for some interviewees frequent exposure to violence can lead to habituation effects as suggested by Muldoon (2013) and Murali and Chen (2005) whilst for others indifference towards violence appeared to be an inherent personality trait as identified by Fayombo (2010) and Eley et al. (2013) but the two phenomena seem to be linked with each other. This suggests that some RSGs hold the ability to ‘bounce back’ and are able ‘to maintain relatively stable, healthy levels of psychological and physical functioning’ after the exposure to WV (Bonanno, 2004: 20) what is often described as ‘resilience’. This supports the findings of Armeli et al. (2001) and Pollock et al. (2003) who revealed that protective service workers are emotionally less affected by WV than employees in less dangerous occupations.

Notwithstanding, a few of those interviewees who expressed indifference stated that they “hold it in” and “don’t allow it to spoil the day” (Interviewee 10) which suggests that some participants did experience negative emotions but suppressed them. A few comments suggest that some interviewees’ indifference might be a result of the phenomenon of hegemonic masculinity. Some extracts suggest that participants tried to downplay the adverse emotional effects of WV possibly out of the worry of being perceived as ‘unmanly’ by the researcher when admitting to any form of distress. The desire to be perceived as a fearless protector (Goodey, 1997) and as being in (emotional) control of the situation (Prokos and Padavic, 2002) would not be unusual in such a male-dominated (Prokos and Padavic, 2002) and high-risk occupation (Stergiou-Kita et al., 2015) and match Button’s (2007) findings on RSGs.

Also, in this study some comments suggest that some interviewees tried to avoid any signs of weakness and/or tried to maintain the expectation that ‘real men’ seek risk and adventure, which includes the acceptance of violence and points to the hallmarks of masculinity identified by David and Brannon (1976). Thus, it must be assumed that some of those interviewees who expressed indifference towards violent experiences at work did so because they were reluctant in reporting any feeling which could be associated with weakness as suggested, for example, by Dunn (2011). This would be in line with Porter et al.’s (2015) study whose SG sample was also found to downplay experienced assaults. However, it must be borne in mind that still the vast majority of interviewees described at least one assault in which they admitted to negative emotions. This also matches the findings of Porter et al. who identified the RSGs out of their SG sample as less tolerant towards WV and more worried as a result of victimisation than their colleagues in other security areas. Consequently, the qualitative data on indifference suggests that some RSGs develop resilience towards WV over time whereas others only *pretend* to have become resilient or are *unable* to express their true emotions for reasons of masculinity. However, distinguishing clearly between these differences was difficult.

In stark contrast to the experience of negative or indifferent emotions, a quarter of interviewees had experienced violent encounters they felt positive about. These

incidents evoked pride or involved a component which was considered to be funny [sub-categories of joy] as experienced by Interviewee 12:

We put him [perpetrator] on the floor and he was like (...) 'Get the sticks out!' (...) and for some reason (...) long lengths of dowels were down his bottom (...) so obviously they were irritating his arse and they were just sticking out! That was funny. You couldn't help but laugh (...). Yeah, there are so many funny stories (...).

Furthermore, a fifth of interviewees had experiences they considered as "really exciting" (Interviewee 4) and thrilling [sub-categories of joy] which was captured in a comment made by Interviewee 15:

During the moment, just as it's starting to escalate, I can think '(...) I need to stop like smiling' because you get that feeling as if to say 'Oh, something is going to happen here' (...) which I do enjoy. I do like that feeling.

In this context, all interviewees were asked whether they ever came across any RSG colleagues who appeared to enjoy violent situations at work. Interviewees' answers to that question were possibly shaped by speculation as they could only make assumptions about their colleagues' emotional experiences. Still, it was interesting to hear that almost half of the interviewees had the feeling "that there are people out there who do it [retail security] for the violence" (Interviewee 15) and who find violent encounters enjoyable, exciting or take pride out of it [sub-categories of joy] which is mirrored in a comment made by Interviewee 7:

(...) you just get some people who are not supposed to be in the job, that, you know? They like trouble, they like causing... they like to draw attention to themselves, you know? And they do it... do it through violence (...).

Experiencing positive emotions when being in violent situations was interpreted as the most severe form of workplace edgework (Lyng, 1990; Milovanovic, 2005) because the joy experienced in such situations seemed to be inseparably linked with harming others and/or a very high risk of getting harmed. This finding shows parallels to Monaghan's (2003: 23) study on NTE security work where his door staff sample's attitudes towards violence was observed as a 'quest for excitement'. Alternatively, the concept of masculinity might also apply if some interviewees felt the need to prove their risk- and adventure-seeking behaviour to the researcher (David and Brannon, 1976). Consequently, some participants seemed to enjoy WV but this conclusion might be biased by masculine role expectations inherent in a male-dominated occupation such as the retail security industry (Button, 2007).

In sum, even though the qualitative data suggests that the vast majority of violent acts seem to be perceived as negative by RSGs, many incidents were identified which caused neutral emotions and some even positive emotions. The qualitative data suggest that RSGs who experience rather neutral emotions appraised violent acts as something mundane (resilience) whereas RSGs who experience rather positive emotions seem to associate violent acts with adventure or experience them as bizarre. On the other hand, RSGs who experience rather negative emotions do not seem to make any of these associations. However, whilst some of those participants who experienced neutral or positive emotions were assumed to have truly developed resilience throughout their career, others gave the impression that the admittance to vulnerable feelings can be difficult for reasons of conforming to hegemonic masculinity. For that reason, it is suggested that *all* incident reports should be taken seriously by workplaces as one can never be sure whether the emotion expressed by victimised RSGs is consistent with what they truly feel.

5.3 Contextual Factors

As a next step, the qualitative analysis turned to the CFs interviewees were exposed to when entering a violent situation. In that context, interviewees gave insights into feelings and experiences where the violence was imminent (CF Facing the Unknown), where they perceived their opponent as unusual (CF Type of Perpetrator), where customers were present (CF Customer Reactions), where police assisted (CF Police Response), where the presence of equipment (CF Equipment) or RSG backup was required (CF Manpower) and where retail staff were involved (CF Staff Reactions).

5.3.1 Facing the Unknown

To begin with, it was explored qualitatively how participants felt when it was unknown whether a tense situation would turn violent. Such uncertainty was experienced as negative by a majority of the interviewees as it made them feel defeated, bad (unhappy) or uncomfortable [sub-categories of sadness] but also concerned, worried, afraid, scared, frightened, nervous, stressed and anxious [sub-categories of fear] which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 17: “You get a bit anxious, yeah. You wonder what is going to happen (...)”. This mirrors the findings of, for example, Perrott and Kelloway (2006) or He et al. (2002) whose sample of police officers experienced high levels of emotional stress when being exposed to unpredictable situations. Additionally, it supports the finding of Rigakos (2002) whose SG sample expressed frustration and anxiety as a result of facing the unknown. Such negative emotions seemed to stem from interviewees’ uncertainty as to *if* they were going to be attacked and *what* was going to happen to them as reported by Interviewee 17: “You can’t look at a person and say ‘He is going to be trouble, he is going to assault me’. Anybody can. (...) You can’t tell with a person what they are going to do” and Interviewee 7 added: “(...) it does make you suffer from anxiety. I mean I suffer from anxiety in my job because you just don’t know what’s going to happen. Anything could happen”.

However, a fifth of the interviewees stated that they experienced neutral emotions in uncertain situations by saying that they “didn't feel nothing (...) didn't feel different”

(Interviewee 4) when facing the unknown or by mentioning that they “don't have a problem with that” (Interviewee 18). Further, even though only a quarter of interviewees were found to experience positive emotions *during* violent incidents (see section 5.2.3), more than half reported to have experienced assaults where the uncertainty of violence had evoked positive emotions *prior* to violent encounters. This was captured in an extract with Interviewee 15:

Researcher: *Has there ever been a time you enjoyed the danger involved in the job when approaching...* [Interviewee interrupts the researcher]

Interviewee: Every single time.

Researcher: *Yeah? Can you tell me more about that?*

Interviewee: It's an adrenaline rush – that is what it is. I love it. I always have (...).

In that context, Interviewee 11 provided an interesting comparison which enables the reader to better understand how the exposure to uncertain and tense work situations makes these interviewees feel:

Researcher: *Can you explain to me what you enjoy exactly?*

Interviewee: Have you ever been on a roller coaster?

Researcher: *Yeah.*

Interviewee: You're in a big hole, and the next minute your stomach's up here [Interviewee is pointing on his chest], that's the feeling you get. Aye. Excitement, buzz, loads of names for it, aye.

This finding is consistent with Jermier et al. (1989) and Crank and Caldero (1991) whose sample of police officers described the exposure to unpredictable situations as meaningful, exhilarating and exciting. Also, it mirrors what Nalla and Cobbina (2016) discovered in their SG sample as some reported to enjoy the thrill and excitement in their job but the researchers did not specify what situations in particular their SGs found exciting and whether the exposure to imminent WV situations was part of it.

However, the finding in this study contradicts that of Van Steden et al. (2015) who found that only a minority of their SG sample considered elements such as tension, threat and danger in their work as important. In addition, only one of the interviewees in Button's (2007) study described his retail security job as stimulating but here it is also unknown whether this participant meant the exposure to dangerous situations in his job. Overall, the qualitative data suggests that the majority of unpredictable situations are experienced as negative by RSGs, but also that many are experienced as positive and some as indifferent (neutral emotions).

In sum, both the section on emotional consequences of the violent act (5.2.3) and this section are closely related to emotions attributable to the immediate experience of violent acts and thus appear similar at first glance. However, the important difference is that the former section dealt with RSGs' emotions *during* a violent experience whilst the current section aims to identify RSGs' emotions *in anticipation of* the (potential) outbreak of violence. When comparing these two sections, an interesting observation can be made. Whilst more than half of the participants seemed to experience positive emotions *prior* to a violence incident, fewer participants appeared to maintain this emotional state when actually being *involved* in violence. This suggests that many RSGs enjoy flirting with the danger of violence but fewer enjoy the actual violence itself. This means that the majority of RSGs can be considered as socially acceptable 'workplace edgeworkers' (Milovanovic, 2005: 57) as they do not seem to pose a threat to others. It is further suggested that RSGs who associate unpredictability in tense situations with adventure experience rather positive emotions whereas RSGs who associate unpredictability with danger experience more negative emotions. Hence, the qualitative data in this section shows that RSGs' emotional well-being in violent situations is also shaped by desire for excitement.

5.3.2 Type of Perpetrator

Beyond that, it was examined qualitatively whether different types of perpetrator affected participants' emotional response. Initially, nearly all interviewees replied that "assault is assault" (Interviewee 18), that "a perpetrator is a perpetrator" (Interviewee

10) and that they do not “think there is any difference because anyone can throw a punch” (Interviewee 20). As a result, the vast majority of interviewees stated that the emotional impact of violence would have always been the same independent of who committed the violence against them. Interestingly, once the interviews progressed it became obvious that most of these interviewees did seem to have certain preferences or dislikes in their past opponents which could be grouped by the characteristics gender, age and whether opponents were intoxicated/had been using drugs.

Perpetrators’ Gender

Almost half of the interviewees indicated that fighting women was problematic for them for masculinity reasons (David and Brannon, 1976). These interviewees saw themselves as physically superior to women so that WV experiences with females caused them negative emotions such as embarrassment [sub-category of sadness] when *receiving* violence as reported by Interviewee 14: “I felt a little bit of an idiot. I felt... I think I went pretty red to be fair. Quite embarrassed because for about a week it was ‘You got hit by a woman’, you know?”. However, women’s assumed physical inferiority also caused interviewees negative emotions such as irritation [sub-category of anger], despair [sub-category of sadness] but also worry [sub-category of fear] when *using* violence as reported by Interviewee 12:

I don't want to hurt them [females] but, you know, if it's a matter between her hurting me I would rather make sure that doesn't happen so, you know, treat her like I would a man. It's not very nice (...).

Such negative emotions seemed to accrue from interviewees’ socialisation where they internalised the dogma that women are particularly worthy of protection which can be seen in a comment made by Interviewee 13: “I was brought up and taught to respect everybody but also that you didn’t lay a hand on a female (...)”. Thus, by using violence against females, interviewees had to violate their internalised dogmas. However, this contradicts Buttons (2007) findings. Indeed, his RSG sample also expressed negative emotions when having to deal with female perpetrators but for different reasons. Button’s sample disliked violent encounters with women as the female perpetrators in

his study were experienced as particularly defiling and troublesome. In addition, in contrast to Stanko and Hobdell (1993) and Löfstrand et al. (2016), male perpetrators were not particularly emphasised as a source of danger. However, all interviewees reported to have experienced assaults committed by male perpetrators. For that reason, it could be that interviewees considered male assailants to be the norm and did not think of mentioning them when being asked whether they experienced violent incidents with perpetrators they considered to be special.

Perpetrators' Age

Nearly half of the interviewees indicated that the perpetrator's age had an impact on their emotional response. In that context, interviewees described violent experiences with minors and elderly persons. Having violent encounters with minors caused negative emotions throughout such as sadness and disappointment [sub-categories of sadness]. Such emotions seemed to stem from the attitude that the younger people are, the more innocent they are, so being assaulted by a minor appeared to shake interviewees' world view as expressed by Interviewee 13: "(...) I've been assaulted by fifteen-year-old girls and (...) it is a sense of... an overwhelming sense of sadness (...)". This finding might provide an explanation for why the police officers in Violanti and Aron's (1994) research felt very distressed when having to deal with aggressive children. However, other interviewees seemed to equate youth with weakness. In these cases, assaults committed by minors caused negative emotions in the form of embarrassment [sub-categories of sadness] which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 17: "(...) he was only fifteen. I might have been slightly embarrassed actually that, you know, he nearly got the upper hand of me, you know?". This contrasts with Stanko and Hobdell (1993) and Löfstrand et al. (2016) whose interviewees emphasised the dangerousness of young perpetrators. It also contradicts the findings of Monaghan (2003) whose sample of door staff further underlined the dangerousness of young people as they had the benefit of fitness and youth during violent encounters. It is possible that interviewees were either too embarrassed to admit to that or they really did not consider young perpetrators particularly threatening.

Elderly persons, on the other hand, were found to cause mixed emotions. Similar to minors, one interviewee felt negative emotions in the form of disappointment [sub-category of sadness], as for him old age seemed to be wedded to wisdom and elderly persons “should know better” (Interviewee 19) whereas a few interviewees experienced more positive emotions. One interviewee felt relief [sub-category of joy] as elderly persons were perceived as weak and thus less threatening. However, this lack of perceived threat seemed to cause Interviewee 20 to feel shocked [sub-category of fear] when being hit by an elderly lady but the weak physical impact of her violent action also caused amusement [sub-category of joy]:

I’ve been hit by an old lady before (...) she slapped me across the face
(...) if this was a bloke I would have took this quite offensive or
someone younger but I had to laugh it off because it was laughable (...).

Drug Use and Alcoholic Intoxication

Also, three-quarters of interviewees described experiences when perpetrators’ drug use and/or alcoholic intoxication had an impact on their emotional reactions. Most of these interviewees associated drug users with carrying diseases and/or syringes with infected needles which implied the danger of contamination as already identified by Löfstrand et al. (2016). These associations caused predominantly negative emotions in violent situations. Interviewees were mostly worried and afraid [sub-categories of fear] but also disgusted [sub-category of anger], like Interviewee 19: “(...) they want to scratch you, bite you, kick you, spit at you and fight you and you just think ‘You look dirty, don’t spit at me, bite me or anything’.” This finding is consistent with Violanti and Aron (1994) and might explain why their sample of police officers found it very distressing when having to deal with drug addicts. In addition, this finding mirrors one of Button’s (2007) interviewed RSGs who reported that they experienced disgust when fighting a drug user. Furthermore, as already identified by Monaghan (2003) in a sample of door staff, some interviewees believed that drug users and drunk perpetrators were stronger, more aggressive and less predictable as well as having a limited pain sensation leading to more resistance. This belief seemed to cause worry [sub-category of fear] as suggested by a comment from Interviewee 7: “(...) so if

they're on drugs, on drink... yeah, it's very hard to calm them down. Or stop them doing whatever they're trying to do, you know?". On the other hand, a few interviewees had positive experiences with drug users and drunk perpetrators in violent situations. In these cases, interviewees experienced perpetrators as being physically weaker and thus less threatening. Such experiences appeared to elicit feelings of relief [sub-category of joy] as indicated by Interviewee 9: "(...) most of them can't do you any harm because of what the drugs have done to their bodies (...)".

In sum, the qualitative data shows that interviewees experienced rather negative emotions when having to fight female or minor perpetrators because these groups were seen as physically weak, innocent and worthy of protection. This suggests that RSGs who have a traditional worldview on women prefer to deal with adult male perpetrators. However, once perpetrators were perceived as 'elderly', the data is less clear as this type of perpetrator could cause mixed emotions. Older age can be associated with wisdom so that getting assaulted does not correspond with some RSGs' worldview whereas the elderly can also be associated with physical weakness and thus as less threatening. This suggests that RSGs who associate age with wisdom experience assaults by elderly perpetrators as negative whereas RSGs who associate age with physical weakness experience rather positive emotions. Thus, the data in this section indicates that RSGs' emotional well-being during a violent situation is also shaped by the type of perpetrator they have to deal with.

5.3.3 Customer Reactions

Furthermore, it was explored qualitatively how the behaviour of third-party customers made participants feel during WV situations. Customer behaviour could be allocated to three categories: customers who assisted *interviewees* physically; customers who assisted *perpetrators* physically; and customers who did not intervene.

Customers who assisted interviewees physically

A quarter of interviewees experienced incidents where other customers intervened physically on their behalf. Mostly, interviewees experienced positive emotions in these

situations in the form of gratitude (pleasure) [sub-categories of joy] like Interviewee 4: “(...) I've never had that before either, so I felt really good, whoah (...)”. Such positive emotions seemed to stem from interviewees’ appreciation that customers were willing to put themselves in danger for the interviewees’ sake as suggested by Interviewee 4: “It felt nice. It felt good in the respect of the way people go out of their way to help you. That is where it felt nice, yeah (...)”. However, Interviewee 16 had mixed emotions about customers who step in. On one hand, he also appreciated customers’ help but on the other hand their assistance caused extra stress (tenseness) as their involvement meant that he had to worry [sub-categories of fear] about customers’ physical well-being, too:

(...) it probably adds to the hassle really because they have put their self forward and they are in the picture as well, you know, but they could come to harm. It’s a help (...) but a hindrance as well (...).

For Interviewee 13, customers’ ability to take care of themselves seemed to make the difference in whether he experienced customer intervention as positive or negative:

(...) [if] an off-duty police officer [intervenes] (...) That’s fine [because] they know exactly what they are doing (...) you have got somebody that is capable (...) you know they are not putting themselves at risk so (...) you don’t have to worry about them (...).

Customers who assisted perpetrators physically

One interviewee experienced that customers turned against him physically which caused negative emotions in form of annoyance and anger [sub-categories of anger] but also disappointment [sub-category of sadness]:

(...) they [customers] were saying ‘Let him go, let him go!’ (...) they just kept pulling and pulling and they pulled us apart and this guy got away. So yeah, that did annoy me (...) I was stood looking disappointed and probably angry (...). (Interviewee 19)

In such situations, customers were assumed to “just see that person [perpetrator] as being the victim” (Interviewee 19) so that this interviewee’s negative emotions appeared to stem from the perception of being misunderstood and unfairly treated.

Customers who did not intervene

The majority of interviewees had not experienced any physical customer support in their career. A lack of customer intervention on participants’ behalf made most interviewees experience negative emotions such as Interviewee 3 who seemed to feel frustration [sub-category of anger] as he compared customers’ physical passivity with “watching a show”. Others were “shocked that nobody got involved” (Interviewee 2) [sub-category of fear] which mirrors the finding of Amaranto et al. (2003) and Burke and Mikkelsen (2006) whose sample of police officers felt distressed when they experienced a lack of citizen support. Such negative emotions seemed to stem from the world view that ‘society’ should help humans in need as a comment by Interviewees 8 suggests: “I would like someone to step in, a customer, just on a humanitarian point. I would do it if someone was in danger”. Thus, not experiencing any physical assistance from ‘the society’ seemed to give the impression of being let down and isolated resulting in disappointment [sub-category of sadness] as indicated by Interviewees 1: “(...) there was other people around. Nobody helped, nobody came to my rescue” and Interviewee 9 added: “(...) as society is... as it is, nobody wants to get involved (...) so I was on my own. (...) Nobody came to my aid”. However, again other interviewees preferred customers to not intervene as they worried about customers’ physical well-being (see sub-section ‘customers who assisted interviewees physically’). As a consequence, customers’ passivity caused more positive emotions in these cases.

In sum, unsurprisingly, the qualitative data shows that customers who physically assisted perpetrators caused negative emotions in all participants which suggests that RSGs generally dislike customer intervention if it is directed at them. However, interviewees experienced mixed emotions when customers tried to provide physical support on the interviewees’ behalf but also when customers did not intervene at all. Whilst help from ‘the society’ was wanted on the one hand, interviewees worried

about customers' well-being at the same time. Some evidence was found which indicates that this dilemma seemed to vanish if customers were perceived as physically capable. This suggests that RSGs experience rather positive emotions if they receive physical support from customers who they appraise as capable and experience rather negative emotions if customers are perceived as incapable. Thus, the data in this section shows that RSGs' emotional well-being during violent situations is also shaped by the way customers behave.

5.3.4 Police Response

A qualitative examination investigated how help from the police made participants feel in WV situations. A few interviewees experienced having police backup whilst the violent incident was still in progress. Experiencing rapid police assistance evoked positive emotions in interviewees such as relief, satisfaction and happiness [sub-categories of joy]: "(...) they were with me in about two minutes. Come screeching into the car park (...) fantastic!" (Interviewee 16). This is consistent with Mulvihill et al.'s (2018) sample of violence victims who experienced feelings of relief when the police turned up during an assault. The reason for positive emotions seemed to be that, with the police, a superior crime-fighting force was present which in turn enabled interviewees to step back and delegate the danger as suggested by a comment made by Interviewee 14: "(...) there was a police car driving past at the same time that a guy was kicking off so the police got out and helped me out. So it was good timing for me, bad timing for him (...)." However, also a few interviewees described an experience when police backup was delayed:

(...) he was still punching and kicking me but I managed to pin him up against the wall and obviously... I mean, the police still hadn't arrived. It was twenty-seven minutes and they had still not come (...).
(Interviewee 17)

Long waits for police backup in violent situations seemed to elicit negative emotions which were expressed as disappointment, feelings of being let down [sub-categories of

sadness] and worry [sub-category of fear]. This is consistent with the finding of Porter et al. (2015) whose sample of SGs saw a slow police response in dangerous situations as problematic. Such emotions seemed to stem from the perception that the interviewees' situations were not being taken seriously by the police. In addition, the longer interviewees had to fight, the higher the likelihood was that they would lose physical strength which in turn enhanced the danger of losing the fight and increased the risk of physical injury as suggested by Interviewees 14:

I've never been let down so much in my life. They [police officers] could see us fighting (...) and (...) they casually walked across the road. (...) just taking a casual stroll like you would in a park and that is what ticked me (...) off at the time. It was 'Take your time. (...) we are struggling. We have been doing it [fighting] to ten minutes. We are tired we have used every ounce of energy'.

This reason is in line with Mulvihill et al.'s (2018) and Porter et al.'s (2015) samples who thought that quick police backup provides safety from further physical harm as it stops the fight between the victim and the perpetrator and decreases the risk of further attacks. In addition, it might be that these interviewees' negative emotions were exacerbated by the fact that many participants were working alone and thus were more dependent on quick police backup as suggested by Porter et al. (2015).

In sum, the qualitative data shows that quick police arrival was experienced as positive by participants as it delegated the danger to a superordinate crime-fighting force and significantly decreased the danger of physical injury. For these reasons, slow or no police response evoked negative emotions in participants. This suggests that RSGs who appraise police response as fast experience rather positive emotions whilst RSGs who perceive police response as slow experience rather negative emotions. Hence, the data in this section shows that RSGs' emotional well-being during violent situations is also shaped by the speed of police response.

5.3.5 Equipment

A qualitative exploration revealed how the presence or absence of equipment made participants feel during WV incidents. In total, almost three-quarters of interviewees were able to provide information on the topic. These interviewees had experiences with communication devices, protective clothing and visual recording devices.

Communication Devices

Being equipped with communication devices elicited positive emotions in interviewees as the presence of radios and store phones made them feel better, safer and caused a feeling of relief in violent situations [sub-categories of joy]. This mirrors the findings of Scaramella et al. (2011) whose sample of protective service workers described the reassuring effects of proper equipment. Such positive emotions stemmed from the belief that communication devices ensure quick backup, which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 16:

(...) that [radio] obviously, you know, made the police come faster, you know? They were with me in about two minutes. (...) just to have that radio... whether it's a psychological thing (...). Just to have that radio you feel a lot safer.

In turn, being able to call for help in dangerous situations was described by Interviewee 14 as “a sigh of relief” as it was associated with a decrease of danger: “I've got help if it goes wrong for me [which takes] that danger out of the equation (...).” This suggests that communication devices are important for RSGs as they are believed to ensure quick backup and minimises the risk of being harmed, which matches with Monaghan's (2003) findings on a sample of door staff. This finding might provide an explanation for why some SGs in Porter et al.'s (2015) study expressed the wish for radios during shifts. However, some interviewees had experiences where the backup they were calling for did not respond to their distress call. In these cases, feelings of anger, frustration [sub-categories of anger], disappointment and insecurity [sub-categories of sadness] occurred. Interviewees' reason for such negative emotions was

that they had to fight perpetrators on their own even though they had relied on their equipment:

(...) nobody picked the radio, they left the radio in the office (...) I was so furious and very upset that there is nobody having a radio to come and help me. (...) It's like they let me down (...) nobody is responding so he [perpetrator] can fight. I was very upset, very, very upset.

(Interviewee 3)

This finding might be an explanation for why the samples of protective workers in Christensen and Crank's (2011), Violanti and Aron's (1995), Patterson's (1992), Kroes et al.'s (1974) and Karacan's (2011) studies found inadequate equipment and equipment failure to be highly stressful, distressing and problematic. It also suggests that a communication device on its own is meaningless and only becomes meaningful to interviewees if the radio operator is responsive and reliable. A few interviewees gave insights into how the absence of communication devices made them feel. Not being provided with radios or store phones caused negative emotions such as feelings of helplessness and loneliness (despair and isolation) [sub-category of sadness] because interviewees were not able to call for backup as suggested by Interviewee 14:

(...) the town radio is a godsend. It helped me out a hell of a lot but now I don't have it, it's almost like 'Right, I am on my own. I am the only security guard left here' so yeah, it's like a ghost town.

Protective Clothing

Also, some interviewees reported how wearing stab vests, hand gloves or thick coats made them feel during assaults. Being equipped with protective clothing elicited positive emotions in the form of reassurance [sub-category of joy] which originated from the belief that such equipment does not only protect from immediate injuries but also from diseases which can be seen in a comment made by Interviewee 17:

(...) he was just repeatedly biting me (...) and if I hadn't had those gloves on then I would have been injured (...). I think you do feel a bit better, with some sort of... because you don't have to actually physically touch them when you have got the gloves on. It might be a psychological thing (...).

On the other hand, not wearing protective clothing made Interviewee 18 experience negative emotions as he described that he felt vulnerable (hurt) [sub-category of sadness]. This interviewee's reason for his negative emotion was that a lack of protective clothing exposed him to a greater risk of injuries: "As I am now, I'm vulnerable, anything can happen". These findings suggest that RSGs associate protective clothing with a decrease in risk of physical harm which might provide an explanation for why the protective service workers in Houdmont's (2013), Nalla and Cobbina's (2016) and Löfstrand et al.'s (2016) studies experienced an absence of protective equipment as highly stressful, frustrating and concerning.

Visual Recording Devices

Additionally, almost half of the interviewees described incidents when closed-circuit television camera (CCTV) footage helped to identify and to prosecute a perpetrator: "(...) the police arrived (...) and they said 'Right, we looked at the CCTV' and they recognised him. So they went to his house and arrested him (...)" (Interviewee 17). Being able to identify perpetrators after an assault triggered positive emotions in the form of reassurance and relief [sub-categories of joy] in some of these interviewees because camera footage was perceived as an unbiased piece of evidence:

It's [CCTV] one of the best tools really. (...). They [police] need to know the facts and the facts can be on CCTV (...). That will tell the complete story. (...) who has assaulted you etcetera. If they are on camera, that's in a box (...). (Interviewee 16)

In addition, a quarter of interviewees had the experience that perpetrators accused them of provoking or causing the violent incident. However, due to the recorded

material these interviewees were able to prove their innocence as a comment from Interviewee 19 shows:

(...) he [the perpetrator] tried trashing, smashing the cameras up and everything so we had to restrain him (...). The police turned up and the guy said [we] had stamped on him and kicked him round the office but there was a camera in the office (...).

Being able to exonerate themselves from false accusations caused positive emotions as it reassured interviewees and elicited relief [sub-category of joy] which a comment of Interviewee 17 shows:

(...) [CCTV] has got me out of a lot of situations. (...) The duty [store] manager, he was able to look at that CCTV and say ‘Well, you never touched him’ and I didn’t. (...) He took a swing at me. *He* assaulted me and I never touched him.

This finding shows some parallels to security work in the NTE as door staff also felt reassured by the presence of CCTV cameras because the recorded material helped to put things into perspective following violent encounters with customers (Lister et al., 2000; Liempt and Aalst, 2015). Consequently, a lack of CCTV caused negative emotions such as frustration [sub-category of anger] in some interviewees because it could lead to a dismissal of the case which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 13: “There wasn’t actually a lot they [the police] could do about it because there wasn’t any footage to support the assault (...)”. The findings on visual recording devices back up those of Porter et al. (2015) and Johnstone (2011) whose SG sample also valued the presence of CCTV due to the possibility to track incidents and provide evidence. In addition, this finding is in accordance with the calming effects of CCTV identified by the European Parliament (2009) and Gill and Turbin (1999) and might provide an explanation for why some SGs in Porter et al.’s (2015) study wished for body/head cams at work. However, a few interviewees saw a downside of CCTV

because it prevented them from retaliating with violence which caused negative emotions in form of frustration [sub-category of anger] as reported by Interviewee 17:

Interviewee: In a lot of ways, it [CCTV] restricted what I could do. If there hadn't been any CCTV cameras up here (...) I may have dealt with it in another way.

Researcher: *So would you have been more violent?*

Interviewee: Yeah, oh yeah. Yeah. It wouldn't have lasted twenty minutes, no, no. So, you know, in some ways it's [CCTV] a big deterrent but in some ways it can be a hindrance.

This finding reflects those of Lister et al. (2000) and Liempt and Aalst (2015) who revealed that door staff are less willing to use force when they are being observed by CCTV cameras. This suggests that visual recording equipment is seen as a 'double-edged sword' by some RSGs as it can prove the legality and propriety of their actions but also captures any misconduct.

In sum, the qualitative data shows that being equipped with communication devices, protective clothing and visual recording devices elicited predominantly positive emotions in interviewees, whereas its absence or malfunction triggered rather negative emotions as equipment is associated with a lower risk of both physical injury and false allegations. This suggests that these three types of equipment are important for most RSGs which provides a possible explanation for why some of Kula's (2011) sample of police officers experienced strain and reduced job satisfaction when their organisations refused to provide them with necessary equipment. However, the data also revealed that equipment only elicits positive emotions if it is appraised as functioning, exonerating for RSGs and if all users of the equipment are perceived as competent. Thus, the qualitative data in this section indicates that RSGs' emotional well-being during violent situations is also shaped by the presence or absence of equipment.

5.3.6 Manpower

Moreover, it was explored qualitatively how (the lack of) backup from RSG colleagues made participants feel during violent situations. More than half of interviewees were able to give insights into the topic. Having to face an assault alone was experienced as predominantly negative by interviewees as they described feeling disappointed and powerless (despair) [sub-categories of sadness], upset (anger), annoyed and frustrated [sub-categories of anger] as well as scared, worried, unsafe (uneasiness), petrified (shock), vulnerable (shock) and uncomfortable (uneasiness) [sub-categories of fear] as a comment of Interviewee 1 illustrates:

You are scared, aren't you? (...) yeah, you are because you are on your own (...) You don't want to be there on your own. So yeah, I was concerned. I was upset. I was scared. (...) at the time you want somebody else with you, don't you? So, I was annoyed, upset.

The experience of such negative emotions matches, for example, the findings of Houdmont (2013) on the negative impact of understaffing on police officers' emotional well-being. They also back up the findings of Biggam et al. (1997) and Anderson et al. (1994) whose police officer sample experienced feelings of stress, vulnerability and fear when having to face dangerous situations alone. Most importantly, this finding is consistent with Löfstrand et al.'s (2016) and Porter et al.'s (2015) results who identified that working alone made SGs feel unsafe and vulnerable. It must be assumed that interviewees experienced negative emotions because a lack of RSG backup increased the danger of physical injury for them. This might provide an explanation for why Button's (2007) RSG sample complained when there was insufficient backup available during peak times. In contrast, Interviewee 18 experienced neutral emotions in such situations as he stated that being assaulted alone did not make him feel any different (indifference): "I don't know, I don't think it does make me feel any different". This finding is consistent with De Puy et al.'s (2015) study and possibly provides an explanation for why the researchers did not find any statistical evidence that being assaulted alone exacerbated their SG sample's psychological consequences.

On the other hand, again nearly all interviewees were able to describe an event in which they received physical backup from RSG colleagues. In the vast majority of these cases, interviewees experienced positive emotions. Interviewees reported to have felt safer, better, reassured and less fearful (relief) as well as empowered and braver (optimism) [sub-categories of joy] and considered RSG backup as “comforting” (Interviewee 13) and simply “very, very helpful” (Interviewee 3) as suggested by Interviewee 2: “Once there is more than one of you, you feel much better about things, much, much better (...)”. This finding mirrors that of Monaghan’s (2003) whose sample of door staff expressed feelings of enhanced safety when they had door staff colleagues by their side during violent situations. Like in Monaghan’s study, the reason for interviewees’ positive emotions seemed to be that an increasing number of RSGs at scene meant a decrease in physical danger for them which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 12: “I know they [RSG colleagues] have got my back and I’ve got theirs (...)”.

This finding mirrors what has been identified by Rigakos (2002) and Monaghan (2003) as a culture of ‘safety in numbers’ which referred to guards’ belief that an increase of quick SG backup in dangerous situations and mutual assistance would maintain or increase their safety. In addition, this finding might provide an explanation for why Button’s (2007) sample of RSGs valued the possibility to draw on backup in dangerous situations and for why two-thirds of Porter et al.’s (2015) SG sample thought that more SG backup would better protect them from WV. However, in a few cases interviewees felt negative emotions when receiving RSG backup because their RSG colleagues’ presence worsened the situation. RSG backup made these interviewees feel suspicious and worried [sub-category of fear], as a comment made by Interviewee 5 shows: “(...) the more people [RSGs] it is going to create more problems (...) so it is best you deal with it alone”. This suggests that for some RSGs it is not only important *that* RSG backup is available but also that the RSGs who provide the backup meet certain requirements.

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that most RSGs experience negative emotions when having to fight perpetrators on their own and that most experience positive

emotions if RSG backup is present because it means a decrease in danger. This suggests that the majority of RSGs prefer to enter WV situations with at least one RSG colleague by their side. However, the data also revealed that this is not the case for all RSGs. Some RSGs perceive backup indifferently and others even see it negatively if RSG colleagues are perceived as incompetent. Hence, it is suggested that RSGs' emotional well-being during violent situations is also shaped by the (lack of) backup they receive from RSG colleagues.

5.3.7 Staff Reactions

As already mentioned under the section 'Manpower', nearly all interviewees had experienced at least one violent situation in which they were the only RSG on the premises. This lone-worker scenario created the attitude in more than a quarter of interviewees that they and retail staff had to look out for each other by providing mutual physical assistance when needed:

(...) from the beginning I let them [retail staff] know that we are working as a team. [I told them:] 'If you are thinking this is my job from a different company and this is your job, we can't be working together'.
(Interviewee 3)

On the contrary, more than a quarter of interviewees held the opposite opinion and did not expect retail staff to intervene physically. These interviewees considered physical support by staff as inappropriate because getting involved was not supposed to be part of their job as reported by Interviewee 16:

Researcher: *How did you feel about that, that they [retail staff] didn't intervene?*

Interviewee: No, that were fine. It's a common understanding, you know, that (...) anything that happens (...) It is always my job. It's not their job (...).

These different expectations seemed to shape the emotional responses of some of those interviewees who had experiences with receiving or not receiving physical support from retail staff.

When retail staff assisted participants physically

More than half of the interviewees were able to describe their emotions in situations in which they received physical backup from retail staff. In the majority of these cases, staff's physical intervention caused positive emotions such as relief, pleasure, triumph and pride [sub-categories of joy] which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 6: "(...) in a sense it was relief, that they [retail staff] were there, you know, and the fact that they came and there was [physical] support. (...) I was certainly relieved, very relieved that the [store] manager came up." The reasons which these interviewees gave for the development of such positive emotions were that backup from staff decreased the danger of physical injury and prevented interviewees from becoming more violent towards the perpetrator: "(...) it is quite nice because it means that you don't have to use some of the more aggressive techniques" (Interviewee 13). The latter comment reveals some parallels between the retail security industry and NTE security work as door staff were also often found to overcome violent threats with greater violence (Lister et al., 2000).

On the contrary, more than a third of interviewees had experiences with incidents causing negative emotions *because* retail staff intervened physically. Mostly, these interviewees were worried [sub-category of fear] that staff would hurt the perpetrator which might cause them legal problems, that staff would get hurt themselves or that staff could escalate the situation. In that context, Interviewee 8 explained: "(...) the client's member of staff they are more likely to just punch them in the face and cause a world of trouble (...)" and Interviewee 9 mentioned: "(...) I have to tell them [retail staff] 'No, keep away from it' because if they are in trouble, if they get stabbed or whatever I would just feel so bad about it." Lastly, Interviewee 20 reported:

(...) a couple of times I've had members of staff there (...) I wouldn't feel comfortable (...) If they did something wrong (...) then it's going to be them up for assault because they don't know what they are doing (...).

Additionally, in one instance the researcher was given the impression that the interviewee felt embarrassed [sub-category of sadness] when receiving assistance from the people he is supposed to protect:

Emotionally sometimes I do think to myself 'I should have just handled it myself, I should have asked him to back off'. That incident, I don't know... The member of staff which helped me... I don't know to be honest how to answer that question. (Interviewee 18)

When retail staff did not assist participants physically

On the other hand, some interviewees experienced WV incidents in which retail staff did not intervene physically. Staff's inaction made some of these interviewees experience negative emotions by making them feel helpless (despair), let down (disappointment), left alone (isolation) [sub-categories of sadness], concerned (worry), scared (anxiety) [sub-categories of fear], annoyed (annoyance) angry and in one case even furious (fury) [sub-categories of anger] like Interviewee 3 who said: "(...) I was so furious (...) I feel upset from the inside of the shop nobody is coming to help me (...)." Such negative emotions seemed to occur for two reasons: firstly, a comment made by Interviewee 1 suggests that he felt that a lack of staff backup increased the danger for him to get injured:

Interviewee: (...) there was plenty of staff around (...) I didn't feel like I had someone there sort of stood behind me ready to help out, no, so I was alone, I was alone.

Researcher: *How did that make you feel?*

Interviewee: Not very good at the time, yeah, concerned, scared.

Secondly, a reason given by Interviewee 19 for having negative emotions is similar to a reason which has been mentioned by Interviewee 8 under the section 'Customer Reactions' (section 5.3.3). As with Interviewee 8, the negative emotions experienced by Interviewee 19 seemed to stem from the world view that 'the society' should help humans in need:

(...) I understand it's not their job but as a human being you would (...) expect a little bit of backup from [retail staff] colleagues. I mean in the street if I saw two people hitting one guy, I'd intervene because it's human nature to look out for each other. But yeah, it made me angry.

Lastly, none of the interviewees expressed positive emotions as a result of *not* receiving backup from retail staff. However, by implication it must be assumed that some interviewees felt more comfortable with staff *not* getting involved as it meant they were saved from potential legal problems as well as injuries and the situation could not be exacerbated.

In sum, the qualitative data reveals that physical backup from retail staff caused the majority of interviewees to experience positive emotions, but still a third experienced negative emotions. Not receiving physical backup from retail staff, on the other hand, was found to cause negative emotions in some interviewees but nobody expressed positive emotions. When it comes to interviewees' reasons for their emotions, two parallels could be drawn to experiences of customer assistance discussed earlier in this chapter. Firstly, in cases where retail staff and customers provided physical backup, interviewees experienced negative emotions as they worried about staff's and customer's well-being. Secondly, in cases when retail staff and customers did *not* provide physical assistance, interviewees experienced negative emotions as they held the attitude that 'the society' should help them in such exceptional situations. These parallels seem to indicate that some RSGs are torn between providing protection for members of the public and the client whilst simultaneously hoping for their assistance. Similar to the CF Customer Reactions, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs prefer to receive physical backup from retail staff but only if they are appraised as capable of

handling the situation without endangering themselves. Thus, it is suggested that RSGs' emotional well-being during violent situations is also shaped by the way retail staff behave.

5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has shown that many participants were exposed to mostly unarmed assaults. However, both unarmed and armed assaults at work resulted in the majority of them suffering an injury. Most importantly, this chapter revealed that participants' experience of a WV incident was not only shaped by the violent act but also by a number of CFs. However, it was identified that participants experience violent acts and CFs differently. Whether participants developed negative, neutral or positive emotions in such situations was found to be dependent on how they appraised the impact of violence and danger for themselves, the different types of perpetrators, the capability and competence of customers, RSG backup and retail staff backup, the response speed of the police and the usefulness of their equipment. The next chapter deals with participants' experiences of, and reactions to, organisational emotional support.

Chapter 6

Results and Discussion (2):

Participants' Perceptions of, and Occupational Reactions to, Organisational Emotional Support

6.1 Introduction

The following chapter deals with the aftermath of workplace violence (WV) situations and focuses on participants' perceptions of, and occupational reactions to, organisational emotional support (OES). The chapter begins by identifying those participants who are in need of support and focuses on this group throughout the whole chapter. Having identified this group, the chapter continues with an exploration of participants' experiences with, and attitudes towards, different levels of organisational providers of support and support actions in order to understand *who* RSGs want to receive support from and *how* they want to be supported. Afterwards, participants' emotional and occupational responses to subjectively perceived appropriate or inappropriate support is illustrated to gain more knowledge on what the consequences are if the support does not meet RSGs' expectations. This is in line with the second aim of this thesis which is to explore the perceived effects of (a lack of) OES on victimised RSGs who are in need of support in order to comprehend its importance for their organisational commitment.

To begin with, following the definitions of 'emotional social support' identified in the literature review, emotional support was defined in this research as communication that meets RSGs' emotional and affective needs (Mattson and Hall, 2011) by providing them with 'empathy, caring, trust and concern' (Jayaratne and Chess, 1984: 146). However, previous research has shown that not all crime victims need or want support (Zweig and Yahner, 2013; Dunn, 2011). Hence, in order to get an idea of how many RSGs feel the need for support after a WV incident, the questionnaire asked all respondents (victims and non-victims) whether they would want to receive support if

they were to be a victim of WV in the future. In total, 454 respondents answered this question. As illustrated in **Table 22**, three-quarters (75.6%, n=343) stated that they would want to be supported whereas one-quarter (24.4%, n=111) would not.

Table 22. Respondents' Need for Support after Future Workplace Violence Incidents

Need for Support	Frequency	Percentage
Want support	343	75.6%
Do not want support	111	24.4%
Total	N=454	100%

This suggests that the majority of RSGs feel the need for support mirroring Porter et al.'s (2015) study which revealed that the experience of WV made the majority (75%, n=550) of their SG sample (n=733), and particularly those SGs who worked in retail, want more support from the security industry. Concerning those participants who denied needing support, it must be borne in mind that also some participants of this study might have disguised their need due to hegemonic masculine role expectations inherent in their particular occupational culture or because they have developed resilience towards certain levels of violence. In what follows, this chapter focuses on the three-quarters (75.6%, n=343) who want support and examines by *whom* (support source) they ideally would want to be supported by and *in what way* (support action). In order to better understand questionnaire respondents' preferences this chapter draws on the experiences of the qualitative sample.

6.2 Support Source

For the purpose of identifying RSGs' ideal support source, it was explored a) whether participants prefer an organisational (workplace), informal (e.g. family, friends) or formal (e.g. Victim Support) support source, b) whether participants prefer to receive support from their security company or rather the retail company and c) from whom within an organisation they would like to receive support from and why.

6.2.1 Organisational vs. Formal vs. Informal Support Source

As a first step, the quantitative analysis focused on whether respondents want to receive support from their workplace (organisational), from people in their private lives (informal) or from external institutions (formal). The questionnaire revealed that the vast majority (93.8%, n=322) would exclusively want to receive support from an organisational support source (security and/or retail company); only very few (0.9%, n=3) from an informal support source; a minority (3.8%, n=13) from both an organisational and an informal support source; and a few (1.5%, n=5) from exclusively a formal support source, as shown in **Table 23**. This suggests that the vast majority of RSGs want to receive organisational support whereas a small minority would prefer formal or informal support.

Table 23. Ideal Support Environment

Ideal Support Environment	Frequency	Percentage
Organisational Support	322	93.8%
Informal Support	3	0.9%
Organisational <i>and</i> Informal	13	3.8%
Formal Support	5	1.5%
Total	N=343	100%

This means that overall 97.7% (n=335) of this quantitative sub-sample want to receive support from their workplace and the vast majority of those *exclusively* from their workplace. During the interviews an attempt was made to gain more information on why most RSGs prefer organisational support by drawing on interviewees' experiences. More than half of the interviewees were able to provide information on the topic due to their experiences of organisational support and gave two reasons for their preference. Firstly, interviewees felt better understood by people from their organisation than from people in their private lives, as can be seen in a comment made by Interviewee 8: "(...) because they [people at work] understand the day to day of it. It's much more beneficial to speak to them than just a person that *kind of* understands. It's just not the same". The assumption of people at work being more understanding originated from the fact that these people were doing the same job (RSG colleagues) or at least worked in the same environment (retail staff) and thus 'knew the business' which can be taken from a comment made by Interviewee 1: "I think they connect better because they are doing the same job (...) they know". This circumstance made

interviewees believe that 'people at work' were more able to empathise with them because they either had witnessed the incident or had been in similar situations themselves as opposed to people in interviewees' private lives or external institutions. In the context of witnessing the incident, Interviewee 19 explained: "It's easier to talk about the guy pulling a knife out with my colleagues that I was with on that day because they seen it and they knew what was going on type thing" and Interviewee 3 added:

(...) the difference is those who saw the incident, they have more passion to feel how you are feeling than you are going to tell them what happened (...) they [people in his private life] can't feel the picture because they didn't see (...).

When it came to the ability to empathise, Interviewee 15 found 'people at the workplace' more suitable "(...) because they will have been through similar stuff and they can understand where you are coming from (...) " and Interviewee 19 agreed by saying: "Yes, it's easier to explain to somebody who has been in a similar situation". The second reason was closely related to the first one. As interviewees' relatives and friends were *not* doing the same job and were *not* working in a similar work environment, they were assumed to *not* be able to empathise. This circumstance seemed to enhance the likelihood that people in interviewees' private lives see interviewees' accounts of WV with completely different eyes causing them worry as suggested by Interviewee 12: "(...) I tell my girlfriend all about it and then it just makes her worry more". In turn, causing people in their private lives worry seemed to make these interviewees feel bad which is why they tried to avoid telling them about incidents. This can be seen in comments made by Interviewee 1 and 18:

(...) if I was assaulted here, physically you could see that I was damaged in a way, I would have to tell my wife but I probably wouldn't because I wouldn't want her worrying. I wouldn't really want to get her involved.
(Interviewee 1)

(...) the last thing I would want is for my wife or my children to find out that somebody has pulled a knife out on me (...) because I wouldn't want them to be scared or fear for my safety. (Interviewee 18)

In addition, a comment made by Interviewee 19 suggests that RSGs' relatives' and friends' lack of ability to empathise can lead to the danger of role reversal. He ended up comforting his violence-inexperienced friend instead of receiving support after being victimised: "(...) when I explained to my friend that's never been in trouble, in any kind of violent trouble, he was shocked and it was down to *me* to say: 'No, it's fine' (...) *he* was worried (...)".

In sum, the quantitative data shows that participants clearly preferred organisational support above formal or informal support. This finding is in line with other research (e.g. Moynihan and Pandey, 2008; Rosen and Moghadam, 1990) and simultaneously contradicts those who often identified family and friends to be the most important support sources for victims of crime (Zweig and Yahner, 2013). The qualitative data further revealed that most interviewees who expressed the need to receive exclusively organisational support felt better understood by work colleagues than by people outside of their private lives or external institutions. Additionally, they did not want to burden their families but rather protect them from emotional distress which is associated with the phenomenon of 'emotion work' meaning 'the work necessary to take care of the emotional lives of others', particularly of those in one's private life (Knight, 2014: 152-153). Both reasons are consistent with what has been identified in male victims of violence in previous research (Stanko and Hobdell, 1993; Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). However, in the case of better developing and sustaining problem-focused coping strategies, no indication was found that participants would prefer organisational support over formal or informal support sources as identified by Leather et al. (1998). Overall, the data in this section shows RSGs' desire for the implementation of proper support networks at their workplaces.

6.2.2 Security vs. Retail Support Source

It is evident that many contract-RSGs might view themselves as having two workplaces: the security company that employs them and the retail company where they spend all of their working time. For that reason, it was important to clarify which organisation questionnaire respondents meant when expressing the need for organisational support. The quantitative data revealed that out of those who wished for exclusively organisational support (n=322), two-thirds (65.6%, n=211) expressed the need for support exclusively from their security company, a minority (8%, n=26) for support exclusively from the retail company and a quarter (26.4%, n=85) for support from both the security company and the retail client as illustrated in **Table 24**.

Table 24. Ideal Support Organisation

Ideal Support Organisation	Frequency	Percentage
Exclusively Security Company	211	65.6%
Exclusively Retail Company	26	8%
Both Security and Retail	85	26.4%
Total	N=322	100%

This means that, overall, 92% (n=296) of the quantitative sub-sample want their security company to be involved in the support process and the majority (65.6%) would prefer support from their security company *exclusively*. As many interviewees expressed that desire following victimisation, further qualitative insights could be gained on why security companies constitute an important support source for RSGs. The main reason was that interviewees thought it was their security company's and not the client's responsibility to support them like a comment from Interviewee 1 suggests: "(...) I didn't like the lack of support I got from them [retail company] either but then it is not their job so I cannot hold that against them. I was not employed by them" and Interviewee 12 added: "(...) I think [you should receive support from] the employer where it is your job. (...) I think they should have an obligation to make sure they are looking after us (...)". Additionally, one comment by Interviewee 16 suggests that support from the security company can be important for contract RSGs because they want to rely on the help of their stable employer and not on the goodwill of people in constantly changing work environments when being circulated between many different clients:

(...) the job [at the retail store] might be really nice, you know? Lovely people and you get on really well (...) and then the contract will probably change and you will go somewhere else which is shit again (...) So it is constantly changing, you know?

Another reason was mentioned by Interviewee 6. He felt that his lack of organisational affiliation to the retail client created a psychological barrier which seemed to prevent him from opening up properly in front of people from that organisation: "Because [the retail company] is not my employer there's always that psychological barrier between me and them". However, during the interviews the impression was created that Interviewee 6 was not alone with his hesitation to accept support from the retail client. Indeed, this hesitation was fairly widespread. For almost half of the interviewees it was very important to be perceived as the protector of 'their' store and to be seen as somebody who physically weaker staff and customers could turn to when needed as suggested by Interviewee 7: "That's my job. [It] is to make the store safe. You know, a safe environment for the staff and the customers (...) First and foremost, yeah. Make a safe working environment for everybody". It was felt that getting assaulted or – in the worst case – being overpowered by a perpetrator, was perceived by these interviewees not only as an attack on their body but also as an attack on their status as a protector. It appeared to the researcher as if interviewees interpreted a physical struggle with a perpetrator as a failure because it indicated weakness and might be seen as if they were not able to defend staff, customers and the store properly. In that context, Interviewee 9 explained: "(...) a guard's biggest fear is that he will be put on the ground in front of the staff and they will lose all confidence in him, right, and that is my biggest fear" and Interviewee 1 added:

Yeah, well, you are embarrassed. The fact that you are security and you are wearing a uniform, people look to you to keep things secure. It is your job. So the fact that you have just been attacked... yeah, you kind of feel that you have let everyone down.

What can be inferred from the latter two comments is that getting assaulted can imply the worry to appear incompetent in front of the retail client. Having failed to defend the store against physical hazards seemed to cause shame and embarrassment in some interviewees. Thus, it is suggested that some RSGs decline the offer of support from the retail company because they do not want to exacerbate the embarrassment by admitting to emotional weakness on top of the observed physical weakness. In sum, both the quantitative and qualitative data show that most participants want to receive support *exclusively* from their security company and many from their security company and the retail client after being assaulted. This suggests that the vast majority of RSGs want their security company to be involved in the support process.

6.2.3 Human Support Source

Moreover, as the security company was identified as questionnaire respondents' preferred support organisation, it was explored qualitatively who exactly RSGs want to receive support from. In that context, interviewees mentioned three organisational components: people from their security company's HR department, their area manager (AM) and their RSG colleagues. Therefore, it was examined qualitatively which of these three human support sources was most important to RSGs and why. Some interviewees expressed the opinion that HR employees were inappropriate as a human support source because they were believed to be "only people who sit in the offices" (Interviewee 4), who "just sat behind a desk on a computer" (Interviewee 15) "and haven't done it, ever, or experienced it [WV]" (Interviewee 12). Similarly, the inappropriateness of HR employees was underlined by Interviewee 4 who said: "HR people, yeah, they can provide you support. What they have read, not what they have dealt with. They have not been there hands in (...)". This suggests that for some interviewees it was essential that the human support source was a "person who knows how (...) security officers feel; know what they are going through" (Interviewee 12).

Once the interviews progressed it became obvious that many interviewees assumed that their RSG colleagues and also their AMs were able to empathise with their situation, provided that the AMs worked in a frontline position before they entered

management. These interviewees believed that having own experiences of WV enabled human support sources to better understand victimised guards which facilitated guards' willingness to open up more emotionally, as a comment from Interviewee 15 suggests: "(...) because they [RSG colleagues] will have been through similar stuff and (...) because they understand where you are coming from as well. So it's not like a one-sided conversation". Interviewee 17 added: "They [RSG colleagues] can understand you more. They have probably had to deal with that themselves". As a consequence, half of the interviewees found it "more appropriate to speak to a guard" (Interviewee 8) and/or their AM instead of someone from the HR department because AMs and RSG colleagues were assumed to be able to empathise. These findings support those of He et al. (2002) who found that negative emotions which relate to disappointing support experiences through management can be buffered by talking to peer colleagues instead. In addition, the findings might provide an explanation as to why police officers were sometimes found to prefer to talk to peer colleagues as opposed to management in the first place (Levenson and Dwyer, 2003; Page and Jacobs, 2011; Van Emmerik et al., 2007).

However, the AM had a second important function which RSG colleagues lacked. Almost half of the interviewees considered their AM to be a "direct link to the [security] company" and an important "middle man" (Interviewee 20) who is "representing the [security] company" (Interviewee 1). Thus, for these interviewees, the AM acted as a mediator and messenger for participants' security company which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 3: "(...) he [AM] is the man (...) because he is the only one you can talk to and then he will take the matter to the Head Office (...)". Interviewee 15 expressed a similar opinion by saying: "(...) I don't really see, you know, the security company that I work for. I will see my [area] manager (...)". Interviewee 6 added:

I have been with the security company for six years now. In all that time I've never had contact with Human Resources. So from that point of view I would have preferred it to be my [area] manager because it's him that I have face-to-face contact with.

As already mentioned under section 6.2.2. ('Security vs. Retail Support Source'), for the vast majority of respondents it was very important to receive support from their security company. Based on the comments above it is suggested that the AM – as a representative of the security company – can satisfy RSGs' desire to receive support from people from their *own* company. These findings might provide an explanation for why police officers were often found to experience high levels of distress when they felt unsupported by their supervisors (e.g. Gillet et al., 2013; Houdmont et al., 2012) or their fellow-officers (He et al., 2002; Shernock, 1988).

In sum, the qualitative data shows that a human support source's ability to empathise is an essential condition for interviewees, which is consistent with the previous literature on crime victims' needs (Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). This suggests that the ability to empathise is a paramount attribute in human support sources who deal with victimised RSGs. Furthermore, the qualitative data showed that interviewees who received support from their security company preferred to be supported by their RSG colleagues or by their AM, assuming that the AM had own experiences with WV. This suggests that RSGs want to be supported by their RSG colleagues or their AM who have their own experiences of WV.

6.3 Support Action

After having established *by whom* RSGs want to be supported by after an incident, it was explored *how* they want to be supported. Here, participants' experiences and preferences could be grouped into three categories: (a) participants who previously received support; (b) those who have not; and (c) those who were exposed to secondary victimisation which is defined as 'negative social or societal reaction in consequence of the primary victimization and is experienced as further violation of legitimate rights or entitlements by the victim' (Orth, 2002: 314).

6.3.1 Those who received Support

We shall begin with those participants who did receive support. The interviews revealed that the participants were not satisfied by all forms of support action. Rather, certain conditions had to be present in order to consider a support action as appropriate: (1) Type of OES, (2) Speed of OES, (3) Communication Style and (4) Duration of OES.

6.3.1.1 Type of Organisational Emotional Support

Firstly, as this research focused on organisational *emotional* support (OES), the type of OES that was important for participants was explored. For that reason, the questionnaire asked respondents for the preferred type of OES they would like to receive if they were victimised in the future. Both victimised and non-victimised respondents who were interested in receiving future OES answered the question (n=338) and were given three options: talking about feelings, talking but *not* about *feelings* and talking but *not* about the *incident*. These three options were based on the concept of ‘person centeredness’ which is ‘an approach to practice established through the formation and fostering of healthful relationships (...) [and] underpinned by values of respect for persons, individual right to self-determination, mutual respect and understanding’ (McCormack, McCane and Maben, 2013: 193) and categorised in three degrees: high (addressing emotions), moderate (addressing facts) and low (denial) (Burleson, 2008). In addition, respondents had the option to add other types of OES. However, the majority of the very few answers concerning ‘other types of OES’ could be either allocated to the three aforementioned options (e.g. “I will ask for help [but] I always leave my emotions in home [sic]” was allocated to ‘talking but *not* about *feelings*’) or were invalidated as they could not be categorised (e.g. “Support”). This resulted in the following distribution: The majority (61%, n=206) stated that they would want to talk about their feelings whereas almost a third (27.8%, n=94) would want to talk but *not* about their *feelings* and a minority (11.2%, n=38) would want to talk but *not* about anything related to the violent *incident*. These figures are illustrated in **Table 25**.

Table 25. Ideal Type of Organisational Emotional Support

Ideal Type of OES	Frequency	Percentage
Talking about feelings	206	61%
Talking but <i>not</i> about <i>feelings</i>	94	27.8%
Talking but <i>not</i> about <i>incident</i>	38	11.2%
Total	N=338	100%

This means that all of those respondents who answered the question feel like *talking* after WV incidents, which is consistent with the literature on service needs of victims of violent crime (Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). However, evidently respondents seemed to have a preference for different types of conversations so it was important to explore why one was preferred. Here, interviewees' experiences helped to understand respondents' preferences.

Talking about Feelings

When focusing on the majority of respondents who prefer to talk about their emotions, half of the interviewees could give insights into support experiences where they decided to talk about their feelings. These interviewees described that it was "good to unload on people" (Interviewee 16) and that talking about one's emotions helped to get "it off your chest" (Interviewee 20). Also, opening up emotionally helped these interviewees to better understand the violence and their own emotions so that it made "a bit more sense in your head" (Interviewee 15). This process was perceived as "a healing process for your brain" (Interviewee 16) as "otherwise it would just build up inside and you would explode" (Interviewee 15). Based on these comments it is inferred that RSGs who feel the desire to talk about their emotions experience an 'emotional overpressure' following WV incidents. Releasing one's emotions seems to make these RSGs feel better which becomes evident in an extract of Interviewee 10:

(...) it's a psychological thing you are giving out, what is inside you. You are hurting about it, you talk about it. Sometimes it makes you feel better, you know? It's just a psychological thing. Yes, it's always good.

On the other hand, almost three-quarters of interviewees experienced a situation in which they felt like talking about their feelings but got the impression that the human

support source addressed their emotions insufficiently or not at all. These situations caused dissatisfaction in these interviewees as they were not given the opportunity to release their emotions. In that context, Interviewee 10 mentioned: “(...) my experience is bad with this [security] company because I explained to them about this sort of thing. ‘Oh, (...) you just have to be careful’. That’s it, that’s all I got” and Interviewee 3 complained: “(...) when incidents happen, nobody is going to talk about it (...) We do have to talk about it and everything (....) Yeah, they never do that, they never”.

Talking but not about Feelings

On the other hand, a quarter of the interviewees reported to have experienced support situations in which they decided to talk about the incident but *without* opening up emotionally. However, focusing on the plain facts of the incident and re-telling what had happened was a satisfactory alternative for these interviewees as it also helped them to feel better, which can be taken from a comment made by Interviewee 6: “(...) it certainly got retold a few times, you know? That on its own was probably a very good thing for me, you know?”. Similarly, Interviewee 16 who mentioned:

(...) it’s like a debriefing. (...) You will go over it again and again and again, you know? And I suppose that’s a way to deal with it as well, you know, in a way because, I don’t know... you are talking about it really.

Unfortunately, these interviewees did not provide the researcher with any reasons as to why they preferred to exclude their emotions in support conversations. Also, none of the interviewees reported to have felt like talking but without mentioning the violent incident after a violent experience. Hence these coping mechanisms could not be explored any further.

In sum, the quantitative data suggests that talking is the most important type of OES for RSGs after being assaulted. However, both the quantitative and qualitative data also revealed that RSGs differ about the preferred content of the conversations. Whilst the majority of RSGs prefers to talk about their emotions (61%, n=206), this topic

makes more than every third RSG feel uncomfortable (39%, n=132). Unfortunately, this study did not identify any obvious reasons as to why these RSGs prefer to not talk about their emotions, but it is assumed that emotional restraint in support conversations is either due to masculinity reasons or that talking about one's emotions has to be avoided by RSGs so as to keep any negative emotions repressed as suggested by Declercq et al. (2007) and Vanheule et al. (2008).

6.3.1.2 Speed of Organisational Emotional Support

Furthermore, the qualitative data revealed that it was important to half of the interviewees that the OES was provided within a certain period of time after an incident. Interviewees who seemed to perceive the speed of past OES as *appropriate* reported that they received the OES between the first five minutes up to one hour after the incident such as Interviewee 14: "Some of the [store] managers will be like 'Okay, tell you what, meet me in about five minutes we will go for a coffee (...)'" or Interviewee 19 who said: "Yeah, I got a phone call from my boss [AM] about ten minutes later asking if I was okay". On the contrary, some interviewees who considered their support experience as *inappropriate* received the OES between one day up to one month after the incident like Interviewee 1: "(...) and then they turn up three weeks, four weeks later (...) there was no rush (...)". In that context, Interviewee 1 emphasised that *fast* OES in form of talking was what he would have needed after being assaulted: "If I was in operation, like operations management or something or an area management role (...) I would be there straightaway, day or night. I would go straight to them because I know how they would feel". Based on this comment it is suggested that for some RSGs the fast provision of OES is important as it shortens the emotional suffering process. In addition, Interviewee 13 underlined the medical importance of fast OES because he believed that urgent support might decrease the danger of psychological damage: "So I think [you should] (...) get the support as fast as possible because there are various triggers that people might miss". Consequently, it is inferred that the speed of OES seems to be important to RSGs. The qualitative data suggests that the speed of OES is considered as *appropriate* if OES is provided up to one hour after the incident whereas the next day appears to be already too late and thus *inappropriate*.

6.3.1.3 Communication Style

In addition, a quarter of the interviewees could give insights into why they were satisfied with how a support situation arose and with the way the support was communicated. Their accounts comprised experiences when they were contacted face-to-face in the form of receiving a workplace or hospital visit like Interviewee 8: “I actually got a visit from one of them [retail staff] while I was in Hospital. They bought me flowers and a Thank-You-Card so that was great and then while I was off I got messages supporting me (...)”. On the other hand, more than half of the interviewees experienced a support situation in which they considered the communication style as inappropriate. These interviewees complained that they were *not* contacted face-to-face and just received a telephone call or an email. Such a communication style was seen as insufficient by these interviewees as a visit was described as “a lot more personal” (Interviewee 15):

Researcher: *What would have been the ideal way for you personally?*

Interviewee: I think having a visit from my [area] manager. Him coming in and just asking about it, you know, because I rung him straight away once that incident happened (...). I thought it would have been nice (...) if he just came in (...).

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that OES which is provided face-to-face is considered as appropriate by RSGs whereas OES which is provided over the phone or via email is perceived as rather inappropriate. In addition, it was noticeable that all of those interviewees who provided information on the communication style mentioned that they were or were not contacted *by* a human support source. This indicates that it is important for RSGs to *be contacted* after a WV incident instead of them contacting potential human support sources and asking for help. This is in line with the literature on support which suggests that victims are often reluctant in proactively seeking support (Dunn, 2011). For these reasons, AMs are advised to proactively contact RSGs after WV incidents, ideally in the form of a site-visit.

6.3.1.4 Duration of Organisational Emotional Support

Beyond that, more than a third of the interviewees indicated that how long the OES was provided to them after a WV incident was of importance. However, only two of these interviewees had experiences with support situations where they considered the duration as sufficient. One of these interviewees reported that his AM “kept in contact for about a week after” (Interviewee 14) and another interviewee felt emotionally supported “for the first few weeks” after the incident (Interviewee 8). In that context, some interviewees reported that the duration was perceived as being too short if the OES experience was a ‘one-off event’ without companies considering interviewees’ potential need for follow-up support. This becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 2 who complained: “(...) I resented the fact that within twenty-four hours apart from me everybody else had kind of moved on”. Similarly, Interviewee 9: “Nobody phones up the hospital to see how you are (...)” and Interviewee 12 added: “So he [AM] will obviously just ask me how I am but there is no follow-up to it”. Based on a comment made by Interviewee 6 the reason could be that some RSGs feel emotionally confused right after an incident so that follow-up support might give them a chance to talk about their experience once things have calmed down: “(...) when that assault happened, I know that I was quite wound up and quite stressed out, I think”. Also, a comment made by Interviewee 19 supports this assumption: “(...) my boss [AM], he rang me because he knows the aftermath of how you can act if somebody... if your life is threatened. Sometimes you can panic or you are confused and things like that (...)”. Overall, the qualitative data suggests that a ‘one-off-support-situation’ is considered as insufficient by RSGs whereas a support situation which is maintained for a while is seen as appropriate. The importance of follow-up support is underlined by the literature which suggests that the development of psychological trauma or the need for support can emerge at a later stage and not always immediately after a WV incident (Dunn, 2011; Dinisman and Moroz, 2017).

In conclusion, primarily the qualitative data revealed that support situations are experienced as appropriate by RSGs if they are approached, ideally by their AM or alternatively their RSG colleagues who can empathise with victimised RSGs due to their own experiences of WV. The support should be provided in the form of a conversation

where RSGs are encouraged to talk about a topic of their choice. This conversation should take place within the first hour after the incident by proactively contacting RSGs face-to-face and should not be treated as a 'one-off-event'.

6.3.2 Those who received No Support

The qualitative analysis continued by focusing on experiences where interviewees did not receive support. Almost all interviewees were able to describe a WV incident after which they had the feeling that no support was offered at all. These cases could be divided into two groups: incidents when interviewees' employers *ignored* what had happened and incidents when employers *relativised* the violence. Firstly, *ignorance* was assumed when an organisation did not react at all to the WV despite having knowledge of the incident. This situation was experienced by more than three-quarters of interviewees, amongst them Interviewee 1 who told the researcher: "There was no support after that. None of my [security] management come down, nothing. They didn't want to know" as well as Interviewee 6 who reported:

I didn't hear any more about it at all, from any of the day, and obviously I let my boss know that there'd been a problem that day and he kind of just shrugged the whole thing off, and that was it.

Secondly, *relativisation* was assumed when one of the organisations tried to play the incident down by indicating that the violence was 'part of the job'. This situation was described by more than a quarter of interviewees such as Interviewee 10:

(...) you talk with your supervisor [AM] and he will just wrap things up with you: 'Oh, that's how it is. Don't allow it to get to you. You have to be strong when you are working in the [security] company' (...).

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs feel unsupported if their organisations do not react after guards report an incident (*ignorance*) or if organisations try to play the incident down (*relativisation*). For this reason, it would seem important that

organisations respond to reported incidents and react accordingly rather than treating the violence as a mundane event.

6.3.3 Those who were exposed to Secondary Victimisation

Several interviewees mentioned experiences that generated secondary victimisation. Secondary victimisation occurred when interviewees reported that human support sources had blamed them for what had happened or misused the violent situation in order to make jokes at their expense. More than a quarter of interviewees could tell of such an experience, amongst them Interviewee 8 who remembered: “He [AM] was basically accusing myself of putting myself in a situation and accused me of not following my training and I should never have been in that situation (...)” or Interviewee 19 who said: “He [store manager (SM)] saw everything that happened and he said I hit the floor like a sack of shit (...) I’ve dislocated my shoulder and you could see it was out of place (...)”. In sum, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs feel secondarily victimised when they are blamed for the incident or are given the feeling that their experience of assault is entertaining for others.

6.4 Participants’ Emotional Responses to Support

Further, it was explored how (a lack of) support makes RSGs feel by using elements of Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) organisational support theory (OST) as a guideline. However, the relevant literature around OST as well as the implications of the findings for this theory will be discussed in Chapter 8 (Production of a Theoretical Model) in order to avoid repetition. As a first step, the questionnaire asked victimised respondents whether they received an offer of OES from their security company and/or their retail company in order to find out how many respondents did or did not receive support after their last experience of WV. As shown in **Table 26**, out of those respondents who answered the question in relation to their security company (n=219) less than half felt that they were offered OES (43.8%, n=96).

Table 26. Offer of Organisational Emotional Support from *Security Company*

Offer of OES	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	96	43.8%
No	123	56.2%
Total	N=219	100%

When turning to those respondents who answered the question regarding their retail company (n=210) the result looked similar: slightly less than half thought they were offered support (48.6%, n=102) (**Table 27**).

Table 27. Offer of Organisational Emotional Support from *Retail Company*

Offer of OES	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	102	48.6%
No	108	51.4%
Total	N=210	100%

This suggests that a large proportion of RSGs do not receive OES from their companies which supports the conclusion of Zweig and Yahner (2013) that many groups of victims remain entirely underserved when it comes to support services. An attempt was made to explore companies' reasons for offering or not offering OES by using participants' receipt of an injury as an indicator for the severity of an incident. Out of those respondents who were injured during an incident (n=135) less than half (43.7%, n=59) received OES from their security company whilst more than half (56.3%, n=76) did not. Also, out of those respondents who were *not* injured during an incident (n=77) less than half (41.6%, n=32) received OES from their security company. Further, out of those respondents who were injured during an incident (n=132) half (51.5%, n=68) were supported by the retail client whilst the other half (48.5%, n=64) were not and out of those respondents who were *not* injured during an incident (n=71) less than half (45.1%, n=32) received support from the retail client whilst more than half (54.9%, n=39) did not. In sum, these figures suggest that companies' willingness to provide support to victimised RSGs does not appear to be influenced by whether an injury was received or not. However, it is important to mention that the data on whether OES had been offered support or not is based on participants' subjective perception. Thus, it was important to explore how participants' perception of (not) having received OES

was created. For that purpose, interviewees were encouraged to elaborate on their experiences of OES.

6.4.1 The Perception of Being Cared About

More than three-quarters of the interviewees experienced a supportive work environment during their retail security career and were able to provide information as to *why* they felt supported. Following OST, a support situation was considered to be successful in this study if interviewees made comments indicating that they felt, for example, cared about, valued or respected by (someone from) their organisations. In that context, it was found that a few interviewees felt cared about because they considered the *support source* to be appropriate, like Interviewee 20 who said: “[When the retail client supports you] They make you feel like (...) you are not just security (...)”. Interviewee 7, who had a similar experience with someone from his security company, mentioned: “[When the security company supports you] [It] Makes you feel a wee bit more worthy (...) Like you’re thought about more by the [security] company”. Furthermore, a quarter of interviewees made comments suggesting that their perception of care was created due to the *support action*. In that regard, Interviewee 4 felt cared about due to the *Type of OES* as he appreciated that somebody from the retail company gave him the opportunity to open up emotionally: “[When the retail client says] ‘(...) How you doing mate, are you okay?’ You think ‘Hold on a second, they are people who care’”. In Interviewee 19, on the other hand, this feeling occurred because OES was provided shortly after the incident (*Speed of OES*): “(...) it meant a lot that he’d [AM] took the time (...) like he didn’t wait till the end of the day to speak to me”. Similarly, Interviewee 14 felt respected because his AM came to see him immediately after the incident (*Speed of OES*) but also because his AM insisted on seeing him face-to-face (*Communication Style*): “(...) he [AM] did not have to come all of the way down from [city in England] but he did. He dropped everything (...) so he treats his security guards with a lot of respect”. In that context, Interviewee 19 described the support he had received from his AM as meaningful because the AM took the initiative by contacting him (*Communication Style*): “I’m quite stubborn so I probably wouldn’t have called anyone, so it meant more that he [AM] got in touch”.

Lastly, Interviewee 14 seemed to feel cared about due to how long the support was provided for (*Duration of OES*): “(...) he [AM] kept in contact for about a week after. And then once things had settled down he just went back to his normal day. I think that is the most support that you should have (...)”.

These qualitative findings support those of Zweig and Yahner (2013) who identified the positive effects of employers’ proactivity (here *Communication Style*) as well as their willingness to provide follow-up support (here *Duration of OES*) on victimised employees’ feelings of being valued. Notwithstanding, some RSGs might be reluctant to seek or accept OES for masculinity reasons inherent in their occupational culture. This poses the problem that some RSGs might secretly feel the desire for OES but cannot seek or accept OES due to social restrictions. However, comments from a fifth of interviewees suggest that not only the provision but already the mere *offer* of OES can be sufficient to make some RSGs feel looked after and valued which is supported by Dunn (2011). This phenomenon was comprehensively captured in a comment made by Interviewee 2:

(...) the offer [of OES] would be nice to be honest. It's not so much about having it, it is about the thought that somebody has asked. It is more about the perception that the support is here if you need it. You may not necessarily use it... as I say, you go back to the macho thing. (...) So there is that peer pressure again.

This suggests that the knowledge of proactive and accessible support networks can already be sufficient to make RSGs develop the feeling of being cared about.

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that the perception of being cared about is created in RSGs when they consider the support source and/or the support action (*Type of OES*, *Speed of OES*, *Communication Style* and *Duration of OES*) to be appropriate. In addition, for some RSGs already the mere *offer* of OES can be sufficient in order to create that perception without taking the offer. This indicates that it is important that organisations ensure the provision or at least the offer of appropriate

support actions by appropriate support sources. However, as ‘appropriate’ is a very subjective term it appears essential that companies gain as much information as possible on their RSG staff’s preferences on support sources and support actions prior to WV incidents as otherwise it might be difficult to offer or provide RSGs with the support which matches their individual needs.

6.4.2 The Perception of Being ‘Just a Number’

Next, the qualitative analysis focused on interviewees who had experiences with an unsupportive work environment. Almost all interviewees remembered such an experience at some point in their retail security career and could describe *why* they felt unsupported. In contrast to support situations which were perceived as appropriate, inappropriate support situations were characterised by (in)actions or comments which made interviewees feel unworthy, under-valued or disrespected, for instance. In these situations, interviewees often described feeling ‘like a number’. This perception was apparent in interviewees who described WV incidents after which they considered the support to be inappropriate, non-existent or were blamed for what had happened.

Inappropriate Support

When talking to those interviewees who felt inappropriately supported, Interviewee 10 indicated that he did not feel looked after because he considered the *support source* as unsuitable. In that context, he emphasised the importance of receiving support from his AM by saying:

Okay, I think the best thing is if the [area] manager from the security company is concerned about the welfare of his officers [RSGs] (...). That’s one way actually to make people feel (...) they have been looked after by the [security] company which they are working for.

Being exposed to an inappropriate support source might provide an explanation for why Terpstra’s (2016) sample of SGs reported higher levels of stress when they did not

receive support from their management. In addition, comments of more than a quarter of interviewees suggest that an inappropriate *support action* can create the feeling of not being cared about. In that context, a few interviewees considered the *Type of OES* to be inappropriate. Interviewee 9 did not seem to feel cared about as the offered OES did not match his need he had after an incident: "If they ['people from the retail store'] did care they would say things like that: 'Go and have a cup of tea', you know? It never happens". Further, Interviewee 20 did not seem to feel cared about as his company failed to address his feelings: "(...) the security firm I worked for at the time didn't really care. They were just like 'Oh, right... fill in an incident form' and just paper shuffling again (...)". The same applies to Interviewee 12 where retail staff's lack of empathy created the impression in him that they do not care:

Interviewee: The retail staff don't care. They are like 'Oh'. They are more interested in the story and can't wait to go to the pub (...) and tell their mates (...).

Researcher: *What gives that impression?*

Interviewee: Because they are (...) not saying 'Oh, are you okay, do you want to sit down, do you want a cup of water or something?' They don't do any of that.

Further, the slow provision of OES (*Speed of OES*) made Interviewee 14 feel not cared about who said:

(...) you get hold of your area manager and he would be like '(...) 'I will try and call you back in an hour'. And that hour goes and there's no phone call. (...) management wise (...) would only care about you as long as you are working and you are there and you are alive and breathing.

In addition, an inappropriate *Communication Style* hampered the feeling of being cared about in Interviewee 15 who criticised that the OES was not provided in person: "I mean, it's better face-to-face because I think it's a lot more personal. It shows that they care a little bit more (...)". Lastly, Interviewee 20 described that an insufficient

Duration of OES created the feeling in him of 'being a number' by saying: "They [security company] had no time for you. All they were interested in that you was in that site, that's it. They didn't care after that (...) you was a name and number (...)".

In sum, it was found that almost half of the interviewees seemed to develop the perception of being 'just a number' when they considered the support source and/or the support action (Type of OES, Speed of OES, Communication Style and Duration of OES) to be inappropriate. Following these qualitative findings, it is suggested that OES might have been experienced as insensitive (Burleson, 2008) or ineffective (Latscha, 2005) by protective service workers in previous studies because they considered the support source and/or the support action as inappropriate. Conversely, this suggests that OES might be experienced as sensitive or effective if the support source and/or the support action are considered as appropriate. Furthermore, these results might provide an explanation for why some police officers were found to be reluctant to talk about traumas they had experienced at their workplace (Pienaar and Rothmann, 2003; Stanton et al., 2002) as the support source and/or support action might have not matched their needs.

No Support

Beyond that, over half of the interviewees made comments suggesting that a lack of OES can create the feeling of being 'just a number' in RSGs. A lack of OES was assumed when interviewees described that either there was no reaction when they reported the incident (*ignorance*) or when the other side tried to play the incident down (*relativisation*). In that context, Interviewee 17 described how feelings of worthlessness developed after the retail company did not react after being informed about the assault: "Well, I just thought 'I'm just wasting my time here'. It just (...) made me feel worthless. (...) All [name of the retailer] is worry about is money in the till". This development is also mirrored in a comment made by Interviewee 3 who said: "Both sides [AM and SM] (...) didn't do anything so (...) I was very, very upset with the job since like nobody doesn't care about what I'm doing there" and Interviewee 7 added:

Interviewee: I've never certainly had any feedback for any incident report I've ever reported.

Researcher: *How does that make you feel?*

Interviewee: It just makes you feel like you're nobody (...) like you're not really (...) important. No, you're not that important to the [security] company (...).

The perception of not being cared about also occurred when people from interviewees' organisations tried to play the incident down which became evident in a comment made by Interviewee 4: "(...) there have been places where I've worked (...) and the [store] manager is 'That is what he is there for, to do that job'. It didn't feel comfortable. I was thinking 'You lot don't care'".

In sum, more than half of the interviewees seemed to develop the perception of being 'just a number' when they experienced a lack of OES in form of ignorance or relativisation (no support). Furthermore, as a result of what has been identified in the former section it must be assumed that the feeling of not being supported also occurs if OES is not even offered.

Secondary Victimisation

Lastly, one comment made by Interviewee 8 suggests that the experience of secondary victimisation can create the feeling of being 'just a number' in RSGs:

My guard [security] company (...) made accusations of why I put myself in that position. (...) They weren't empathetic at all. They just didn't care. (...) [for them] you are just a body in a suit on the [shop] floor.

Even though only little evidence was found, the qualitative data indicates that RSGs also develop the perception of being 'just a number' when experiencing secondary victimisation from their organisations after an incident. However, as this seems to be common sense, it is assumed that the reason for the poor evidence did not accrue from interviewees' indifference towards secondary victimisation rather than from a

lack in their exposure to such a treatment. In conclusion, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs develop the perception of being 'just a number' if they consider the support source and/or the support action to be inappropriate, if they do not receive support because the incident is ignored, relativised or because OES is not even offered or if RSGs are exposed to secondary victimisation. For that reason, it seems important that organisations avoid confronting victimised RSGs with inappropriate support sources and/or inappropriate support actions. Similar to the former section, the term 'inappropriate' is highly individual and requires early clarification so that support networks are adjusted to RSGs' needs. In addition, it appears essential that organisations refrain from ignoring or relativising incidents and should at least offer OES to victimised RSGs. Lastly, organisations are advised to not prematurely accuse victimised RSGs of wrong-doing or misuse RSGs' victimisation for entertainment purposes as such behaviour can also make RSGs feel worthless.

6.4.3 Emotions

The qualitative analysis continued with a deeper exploration of interviewees' emotions once they had formed their perception of a supportive or unsupportive work environment. However, as with previous research on SGs' development of emotions, the phenomenon of 'emotional illiteracy' also has to be borne in mind when evaluating interviewees' accounts on how (a lack of) emotional support made them feel. Those interviewees who perceived their organisations as *supportive* expressed positive emotions and reported to feel happy and relieved [sub-categories of joy] but also good, great, better, reassured and comforted which was captured in a comment made by Interviewee 9: "If you are getting it [OES] at work, yeah, you are feeling happier about yourself". These findings provide further support for many studies which identified an improvement of emotional well-being after the receipt of OES in employees within the general workforce (e.g. Sener, 2011; Hurrell, 2006), the police (Latscha, 2005; Page and Jacobs, 2011; Morash et al., 2008) but also within the security industry (Poisat et al., 2014) particularly after violent encounters (Klinger, 2002; Artwohl and Christensen, 1997). On the contrary, this study did not find any evidence

that emotional support had any exacerbating effects on participants' emotional well-being as identified in SGs by Declercq et al. (2007) and Vanheule et al. (2008).

On the other hand, interviewees who perceived their organisations as *unsupportive* expressed negative emotions as they felt angry, frustrated and annoyed [sub-categories of anger] but also disappointed, upset, humiliated or let down [sub-categories of sadness]. These findings reflect those of Poisat et al. (2014) whose SG sample reported to have felt let down when their AMs and RSG colleagues did not meet their expectations when the sample felt like talking about their WV victimisation experiences. Additionally, interviewees reported that the treatment was 'not nice', made them feel uncomfortable, desperate, bad, horrible, disheartened, under-appreciated, undermined, disrespected or inferior. In that context, Interviewee 1 mentioned: "Yeah, well, the security company... it leaves a bitter taste in your mouth, doesn't it?" and Interviewee 15 reported: "I think that is what annoys me a little bit about it – the fact that there is no afterthought into it from my security company". Lastly, Interviewee 16 expressed his disappointment by saying:

(...) nobody, you know, sort of like bothered to follow it up et cetera, you know? It was such a..., you know, bit of a close call (...) And you feel a bit..., I don't know, let down, you know?

These results are consistent with Shane's (2010) findings whose police officer sample reported feelings of betrayal and desertion when they did not receive OES from their management or supervisors after traumatic incidents. In sum, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs who perceive their work environment as supportive experience rather positive emotions whereas RSGs who perceive their organisations as unsupportive experience rather negative emotions. Thus, in order to create positive emotions in RSGs it feels important to provide RSGs with OES after WV incidents.

6.4.4 Feelings of Trust

Furthermore, it appeared as if interviewees' perception of a supportive or unsupportive work environment made them reconsider their emotional relationship towards their organisations which was described as a "turning point" by Interviewee 16. In fact, a closer examination of the qualitative data revealed that this reconsideration related to feelings of trust. Comments of a fifth of interviewees indicated that perceiving an organisation as supportive increased the trust they felt towards that organisation. The establishment of trust appeared to be closely linked to the emotions interviewees felt towards their organisations following a perceived satisfactory or unsatisfactory support situation. Most importantly, due to the language interviewees used it became obvious that the concept of trust was more than something momentary. Having experienced a support situation which they considered to be appropriate was proof for these interviewees that from now on they could rely on emotional help from that support source if they were to be assaulted again. In that context, Interviewee 14 was certain about receiving OES from his AM in the future by saying: "I think it was more of 'I can rely on him *now*'. (...) He [AM] would be straight out (...) he *will* come straight to me (...)". Similarly, Interviewee 4 who received support from both his security company and the retail client:

(...) it has changed my attitude in a way that I felt I can trust this lot. It felt nice that you feel good for working at that place because *you know* you have got support there if you need it.

On the other hand, experiencing no support (ignorance or relativisation), secondary victimisation or a support situation which was perceived as inappropriate seemed to have the opposite effect. Comments from a quarter of interviewees suggest that such support situations had the potential to prevent or destroy a trustful relationship between interviewees and the organisation they considered to be unsupportive. In that context, Interviewee 8 mentioned: "It has irreparably damaged our relationship for the way he [AM] behaved" and Interviewee 6 who also questioned the relationship between him and his AM after feeling unsupported said: "In the end, I need to be able

to rely on the guy and if I can't get in touch with him [after an incident] (...) then can I actually trust the guy?". Lastly, Interviewee 16 who seemed to have lost trust in his security company as a whole:

I think it's took a lot of... what's the word? Apart from loyalty to the firm a lot of (...) Trust. Yeah, trust in them. Say something like that happened again (...) 'No one is going to bother'. So you get that sort of feeling.

Here, it is important to mention that this phenomenon appeared to be independent of the severity of a WV incident. A few comments suggest that a loss in trust after petty incidents can lead to a general loss in trust towards an organisation. In other words, not receiving support after minor WV incidents seems to lead to the belief that support will also not be provided after future incidents – even if they are major. This becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 12: "It's petty, it is just an [sprained] ankle but what if it was worse? Would they have done anything?". Similarly, Interviewee 3 who was pushed and scratched when stopping a shoplifter and did not receive support from either his security company or the retail client: "(...) they didn't do the smaller thing. How can they do the bigger thing, the bigger issue? No, they can't". Further, when having a deeper look at the latter two comments it becomes obvious that these interviewees blamed their security company or the retailer as a whole for the lack of support. This was a phenomenon which could be observed also in other interviewees who tended to praise or complain about 'their company' after having experienced a supportive or unsupportive OES situation with their AM. This indicates that some interviewees saw the action of a human support source within an organisation as an action from the organisation as a whole which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 20: "(...) my [AM] has come straight down. 'Right, what's happened? Are you okay? (...) But [name of his security company], brilliant (...) they do chase it up (...)'" and also Interviewee 16 who said: "(...) I don't have much interaction with my [security] company because they only come see me once a month (...)". This suggests that RSGs tend to transfer the emotions they feel towards a human support source to the company the human support source is working for.

This finding is of high importance as it indicates that RSGs' occupational responses to (a lack of) support are dependent on the behaviour of AMs who are seen as a representative of the security company. For that reason, it should be in security companies' interest to assign AMs who are dignified representatives of company values. In sum, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs' level of trust towards their organisations is attributable to the support they do or do not receive following a WV incident. Whilst a lack of OES appears to reduce levels of trust, the provision of OES seems to have the opposite effect which is consistent with the findings of Van Emmerik et al. (2007). Trust, in turn, appears to be an important measurement for RSGs when assessing the work relationship between them and their companies as functional or dysfunctional which has already identified by Burleson (2008). Here, the AM is of high relevance as he serves as a representative of the security company. This suggests that RSGs develop or maintain a trustful relationship to their organisations if they receive support from their AM after an incident whereas a lack of OES prevents or destroys the development of a trustful relationship. For that reason, it seems important that organisations instruct their AMs to provide victimised RSGs with OES if organisations are interested in a trustful employee-employer relationship.

6.5 Participants' Occupational Responses to Support

Finally, the effects that participants' perceptions of a supportive or unsupportive work environment had on their work behaviour were explored quantitatively and qualitatively. Here, it was found that interviewees' perception of support situations also shaped their desire to 'give something back' to the support source – a process which was described as "give and take from both sides" by Interviewee 20. In accordance with what has been discussed in the latter section, interviewees developed that desire not only towards a particular human support source but also towards the organisation that human support source belonged to. In order to explore the extent of participants' occupational response to their companies' (lack of) support, elements of Lambert, Hogan and Keena's (2015: 6) concept of affective commitment were used as guidance. It was explored how *loyal* RSGs felt and how motivated they felt to be

involved in work tasks after experiencing the provision or a lack of OES. In order to gain information about participants' perceived *loyalty*, the researcher paid attention to statements describing their 'pride in the organization', their 'internalization of organizational goals' and their 'acceptance of core organizational values'. On the other hand, information on participants' perceived *involvement* (here *work motivation*) in their organisation was collected by paying attention to descriptions about their 'personal effort made for the sake of the organization'.

6.5.1 Loyalty

With regard to participants' loyalty, questionnaire respondents were asked whether they were offered any OES from their security company (*Question 11*) and/or the retail client (*Question 15*) after their last experience of physical assault at work and if the way they were treated altered their perceived levels of loyalty concerning their security company (*Question 14a*) and/or the retail client (*Question 18a*). In order to assess whether there was a relationship between security companies' as well as retail companies' provision of OES and respondents' level of perceived loyalty towards the companies, a χ^2 test of independence was conducted with $\alpha = .05$ as a criterion for significance.

A total of 217 respondents reported their perceived levels of loyalty towards their *security* company. In total, 44.2% (n=96) of these respondents were offered OES. When security companies supported the respondents (100%, n=96), higher levels of loyalty (44.8%, n=43) and lower levels of disloyalty (9.4%, n=9) were reported. On the other hand, when security companies did *not* support the respondents (100%, n=121), lower levels of loyalty (14.9%, n=18) and higher levels of disloyalty (37.2%, n=45) were reported. The percentages of those respondents who reported that their levels of loyalty neither decreased or increased after an assault ('same as before') was very high regardless of whether they received (45.8%, n=44) or did not receive (47.9%, n=58) OES from their security company. The latter data, however, does not reveal what levels of loyalty these respondents felt prior to the assault and thus if their loyalty levels remained high or low. The results of the χ^2 test were found to be statistically

significant, $\chi^2(2, N=217) = 33.73, p = <.001$. As the null hypothesis was rejected it can be inferred that there is a relationship between security companies' provision of OES after assaults and respondents' perceived level of loyalty towards their security company.

Concerning the offer of OES to respondents from a *retail* client, a total of 207 provided an answer to that question. In total, 49.3% (n=102) respondents reported to have received an offer of OES from the retail client. When retail companies supported participants (100%, n=102), high levels of loyalty (66.7%, n=68) and very low levels of disloyalty (3.9%, n=4) were reported. On the other hand, when retail companies did *not* support respondents (100%, n=105), lower levels of loyalty (13.3%, n=14) and higher levels of disloyalty (36.2%, n=38) were reported. Again, the percentages of those respondents who reported that their levels of loyalty neither decreased or increased after an assault ('same as before') was very high regardless of whether they received (29.4%, n=30) or did not receive (50.5%, n=53) OES from the retail client. As already stated above, the data on unaltered levels of loyalty does not reveal what levels of loyalty participants felt prior to the assault and thus if their loyalty levels remained high or low. Also, the results of the χ^2 test on respondents' perceived levels of loyalty following OES from the retail client were found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(2, N=207) = 69.42, p = <.001$. Here too, the null hypothesis was rejected so that it can be inferred that there is a relationship between retail companies' provision of OES after assaults and participants' perceived level of loyalty towards the retail client.

These quantitative findings were supported by some interviewees whose levels of loyalty seemed to be dependent on the extent they felt cared about by their companies. Once interviewees had the feeling that their companies cared about them after violent incidents, their perceived levels of loyalty increased which becomes evident in a comment by Interviewee 20: "(...) I'm definitely more loyal to this [security] company now than I would have been to previous companies that have treated me as a name and number". On the other hand, having the feeling of being treated 'like a number' made interviewees feel less loyal as a comment from Interviewee 9 indicates: "I've got no loyalty to either company [security or retail

company] because they don't care about me” and Interviewee 8 reported: “I am by far more loyal to that store than any other clients, other stores, and I am definitely more loyal to that customer [retail company] than I am to my own guarding company because they responded correctly.”

In sum, participants who received OES from an organisation they worked for felt more loyal towards that organisation whereas participants who did not receive OES felt less loyal. However, 9.4% (n=9) felt *less* loyal towards their security company and 3.9% (n=4) *less* loyal towards their retail company even though they had received OES. Based on the inferences made earlier, it can only be assumed that participants perceived their support source and/or the support action as inappropriate in these cases. Overall, this section suggests that RSGs who receive OES feel more loyal towards their employers whereas RSGs who do not receive OES feel less loyal.

6.5.2 Work Motivation

Further, it was explored how interviewees perceived their level of work motivation (job involvement) after the experience of supportive or unsupportive OES situations. Interviewees were asked whether they observed any behavioural changes in relation to their work following satisfactory or unsatisfactory support situations. A quarter of interviewees stated that an experience of appropriate OES from their security company or the retail client made them maintain their level of work motivation and *continue doing their job* such as Interviewee 13 and 15:

(...) that's nice when the person you (...) work for recognises that you have done the job properly and that they are appreciative of the job being done. (...) because it means that you can continue to perform in the manner that you are used to performing (...). (Interviewee 13)

If I didn't have the support from store (...) maybe I would be less inclined to get into dangerous situations (...) I will just let it happen sort of thing if no one cares afterwards but if I know that I've got support afterwards, not a problem at all. I will do anything to stop something happening. (Interviewee 15)

In addition, more than a quarter of interviewees even described that they felt like doing a *better job than before* for the security company or the retail client after experiencing OES situations which they considered to be appropriate. In this context, Interviewee 19 mentioned:

Yeah, it's good to know that they [security company] are looking out for us (...). It's good to know that somebody is there and it does make you want to work that bit harder and show your appreciation for their concerns.

Similarly, Interviewee 14, who said: "(...) if he [AM] is putting all the effort in to come and see you, that is going to make you want to help him out more by working, having less days off". The same could be observed when interviewees were satisfied with the OES they had received from the retail client which can be seen in a comment made by Interviewee 15: "I don't want anything to happen whilst I'm in the store. I don't want anything to happen whilst I'm not in this store. (...) I do a much better job because I received the support from store (...)". Lastly, Interviewee 20 explained:

(...) you are helping out a little bit more than you need to because you want to. So (...) you just sort of think 'Well, it's my work. On my days off they don't have anyone'. (...) you do find yourself popping in on your day off or something like that.

However, experiencing inappropriate OES, a lack of OES or secondary victimisation had the opposite effect. Obviously, the researcher talked exclusively to active RSGs which is why no RSGs could be identified who had permanently left the retail security industry.

Still, a few interviewees, amongst them Interviewee 4, were convinced that the provision of support would make those RSGs who think about leaving the industry stay: “(...) if you show you don't care people are going to leave (...) Because that is what life is, they will actually walk away”. Even though all of the interviewees were retail security ‘remainers’, a quarter had thought about changing security companies and almost half did change security or retail companies during their career after having experienced a disappointing support situation such as Interviewee 20: “(...) they [security company] treated you like absolute dirt (...) they were like ‘(...) You are to do that job so what do you want us to do?’ (...) I left within two weeks after that.”. The same decision was made by Interviewee 2 after being assaulted who said: “I didn't stop very long with the [security] company or at that site after that (...) I resented the company a little bit because of the lack [of OES] (...) I resented that fact so I left that company”. Lastly, Interviewee 1 described his experience:

There was no support (...) I left after that (...) because you don't feel like you are looked after, do you? (...) I can't say I quit because of the assault. It was just the fact that I soon realised that nobody really cared.

Alternatively, a fifth of interviewees remained with the companies they felt unsupported by but refused to fulfil their job tasks properly such as Interviewee 19:

I was annoyed and then I spoke to another [store] manager and I said ‘But from now on, you are going to get minimum expectations’. (...) So for a month, I literally just stood and then patrolled the store and it annoyed me seeing people steal things and then I was just reporting it afterwards (...).

Additionally, a few interviewees mentioned that they talked to RSG colleagues who admitted to applying the same strategy after having felt unsupported. In that respect, Interviewee 9 told the researcher that he talked to a RSG colleague who said: “I will deal with the obvious but (...) I am not going to go that extra yard. These people don't

care about me why should I care about them?'''. Also, Interviewee 5 contributed to that topic by saying:

I talked to them [RSG colleagues], yeah (...) they say 'I'm not getting my face bashed in for [name of a retail company]' (...) they look the other way. People come and help themselves, a bottle of whiskey whatever, couple of bottle of wines (...).

In sum, more than half of the interviewees stated that support made them want to reciprocate something to their security company or the retail client whereas a lack of support seemed to prevent that desire. Hence, the data suggests that RSGs who receive OES following WV victimisation feel more loyal and show higher levels of work motivation towards their organisations than RSGs who do not receive OES. In addition, these findings might provide an explanation for why the RSG sample in Button's (2007) study reported low levels of commitment and orientation to their job.

6.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter showed that most RSGs want to be supported and that the support should ideally be provided from their security company represented by an AM who is able to empathise. The chapter also helped to understand that the support source as well as the support action have to match RSGs' needs in order to make them feel supported. However, companies' social investment pays off as RSGs reciprocate perceived appropriate support (or its offer) with higher levels of loyalty and productivity. However, secondary victimisation, inappropriate or no support endanger guards' loyalty and productivity as such treatment makes them feel 'like a number'. The next chapter deals with RSGs' efforts to prevent future WV victimisation.

Chapter 7

Results and Discussion (3):

Participants' Behavioural Reactions to Workplace Violence

7.1 Introduction

After having explored past events of workplace violence (WV) and support, the analysis turns to retail security guards' (RSGs) efforts to avoid future WV victimisation. For that purpose, this chapter begins with examining what types of self-protection measures (SPMs) RSGs apply and how prevalent certain SPMs are according to the online questionnaire. The chapter continues with the identification of the emotional driving-factors behind RSGs' adaptation of certain SPMs before ending with their overall objective for using SPMs. This is in line with the third aim of this thesis which is to examine the usage of different types of self-protection measures in order to understand RSGs' emotional driving-factors for these precautions.

7.2 Types and Prevalence of Self-Protection Measures

The quantitative analysis began with an exploration of *what* and *how many* self-protection measures (SPMs) are used by RSGs. For that purpose, both victimised and non-victimised questionnaire respondents were asked what they do in order to protect themselves from the risk of physical assault at work (*Question 21*). In total, 421 respondents answered this question. However, it is important to mention that respondents were able to choose more than one option (multiple-choice question). This resulted in the creation of four groups when analysing the data: Firstly, 57.5% (n=242) made use of exclusively *proactive* forms of self-protection which was defined as SPMs indicating that RSGs are willing to confront future aggressors. Secondly, 8.5% (n=36) used exclusively *inactive* forms of self-protection which were SPMs indicating

that RSGs are *not* willing to confront future aggressors. Thirdly, 4% (n=17) made use of a *mixture* of proactive and inactive self-protection and fourthly, 30% (n=126) stated that they did not apply any SPMs at all. These figures are illustrated in **Table 28**.

Table 28. Types of Self-Protection Measures

Type of SPM	Frequency	Percentage
Exclusively Proactive SPMs	242	57.5%
Exclusively Inactive SPMs	36	8.5%
Proactive <i>and</i> Inactive SPMs	17	4%
No Self-Protection	126	30%
Total	N=421	100%

The aim of this chapter was to explore RSGs who use SPMs rather than RSGs who do *not* use SPMs. Hence, the analysis mainly focused on 1) Proactive SPMs and 2) Inactive SPMs and refrained from a deeper examination of the group ‘No Self-Protection’. The group ‘Mixture of Proactive and Inactive SPMs’ was discussed in each section where appropriate.

7.2.1 Proactive Forms of Self-Protection: Preparing for Confrontation

To begin with, RSGs’ usage of proactive SPMs was explored quantitatively. The data revealed that the vast majority of respondents (57.5%, n=242) who answered the question on their current self-protection behaviour at work (n=421) made use of *exclusively* proactive SPMs. The analysis of these 242 responses resulted in the creation of four sub-groups which were named

- 1) Personal Protection Equipment (PPE) which was defined as ‘equipment that will protect the user against health or safety risks at work’ (Health and Safety Executive, 2017: n.p.) (e.g. weapon or stab vest),
- 2) Skills, defined as a special ability acquired via training and experience (Rigby and Sanchis, 2006) which focuses on *RSGs’ mental or physical efforts* to reduce the risk of WV (e.g. martial arts skills)

- 3) Tactics which were defined as a strategy ‘that provides guidance for actions to be taken’ (Nickols, 2016: 7) and concentrated on *RSGs’ way of approaching aggressors or RSGs’ usage of deception strategies* (e.g. seeking the proximity of co-workers before approaching a perpetrator) and
- 4) Mixture of Proactive SPMs which consisted of combinations of PPE, skills and/or tactics.

As illustrated in **Table 29**, out of the 242 (100%) respondents who *exclusively* made use of proactive SPMs, 11.5% (n=28) carried *exclusively* PPE, the vast majority made use of *exclusively* skills (76.9%, n=186), a few made use of *exclusively* tactics (2.9%, n=7) and some made use of a *mixture* of the aforementioned proactive SPMs (8.7%, n=21).

Table 29. Usage of Exclusively Proactive Self-Protection Measures

Type of Proactive SPM	Frequency	Percentage
Exclusively PPE	28	11.5%
Exclusively Skills	186	76.9%
Exclusively Tactics	7	2.9%
Mixture Proactive SPMs	21	8.7%
Total	N=242	100%

7.2.1.1 Personal Protection Equipment

Firstly, respondents who made exclusive use of PPE were examined. Out of those respondents who made use of exclusively proactive SPMs (n=242), a total of 11.5% (n=28) made *exclusive* use of PPE. The PPE identified in the questionnaire was comprised of weapons, legal tools, protective clothing, alarm devices and bodycams. Respondents were provided with examples of weapons (e.g. pepper-spray, knife or weighted-knuckle/SAP gloves), legal tools (which are items that ‘are not so made [sic] or adapted but carried with the intention of causing injury to the person’ and thus are carried with the intention to use them as weapons (e.g. torch) (Bashir, 2018: n.p.)), protective clothing (e.g. stab vest or cut resistant hand gloves) and alarm devices (e.g. lone worker alarm or ‘screamer’). In addition, respondents had the option to add other SPMs.

However, when considering *all* different types of SPM *combinations* (including ‘Mixture of Proactive and Inactive SPMs’), it was found that overall 59 PPE were used by 54 (12.8%) respondents out of those 421 (100%) who provided information on their current SPMs at work. These 59 PPE were used either exclusively, in combination with each other or in combination with other types of SPMs (skills, tactics and/or inactive SPMs). In more detail, these 54 respondents carried 6 weapons, 10 legal tools, 34 wore protective clothing, 8 carried alarm devices and 1 wore a bodycam (**Table 30**).

Table 30. All Personal Protection Equipment used by the Overall Sample (100%, *N*=421)

Type of PPE	Frequency
Weapon	6
Legal Tool	10
Protective Clothing	34
Alarm Device	8
Bodycam	1
Total	<i>N</i>=59

This quantitative data suggests that one in ten RSGs *also or exclusively* carry PPE in order to protect themselves from the risk of physical assault at work. Notwithstanding, it was felt that some PPE were appropriate to inflict physical harm whilst others were not. This is why it was decided to further divide the PPE into two sub-categories: offensive and inoffensive PPE.

7.2.1.1.1 Offensive vs. Inoffensive Personal Protection Equipment

On the basis of the already existing definition of ‘offensive weapon’, an offensive PPE was defined in this study as ‘any object that is made, adapted, or intended to be used to cause physical injury to a person’ whereas an inoffensive PPE is *not* made, adapted or intended to be used for that purpose (Oxford Dictionary of Law, 2013: 379-380). According to these definitions, weapons and legal tools (with the intention to use them as a weapon) were classified as offensive PPE whereas protective clothing, alarm devices and bodycams were classified as inoffensive PPE.

When viewing the *whole* data set (*n*=421) in relation to the division of offensive and inoffensive PPE, it was found that 3.1% (*n*=13) of respondents made use of offensive PPE (either exclusively weapons/legal tools or in combination with other SPMs except

inoffensive PPE), 9.0% (n=38) made use of inoffensive PPE (either exclusively protective clothing/alarm devices/bodycams or in combination with other SPMs except offensive PPE), 0.7% (n=3) made use of both offensive and inoffensive PPE (weapon/legal tool in combination with protective clothing/alarm device/bodycam or inactive SPMs), more than half (57.2%, n=241) made use of *exclusively* other SPMs (skills, tactics and/or inactive SPMs) and almost a third (30%, n=126) did not make use of any SPMs. These figures are visualised in **Table 31**.

Table 31. Offensive and Inoffensive Personal Protection Equipment

Type of PPE	Frequency	Percentage
Offensive PPE	13	3.1%
Inoffensive PPE	38	9.0%
Offensive <i>and</i> Inoffensive PPE	3	0.7%
Other SPMs	241	57.2%
No SPMs	126	30%
Total	N=421	100%

However, the questionnaire did not reveal *what kind of* offensive PPE participants carried at work. Fortunately, the researcher had the chance to talk to three interviewees who admitted to carrying a weapon at work and to a further four who carried a legal tool with the intention of using it as a weapon. Out of those three interviewees who carried weapons at work, one was equipped with a kubotan which is ‘a five to six-inch-long stick self defense weapon made of either steel, wood, strong plastic or other durable material [and used for] stabbing or attacking pressure points, or (...) hammer fist strikes’ (Kubotan Self Defense, 2013: n.p.). Another interviewee carried a stick and Interviewee 17 wore weighted knuckle gloves with plastic lining:

Interviewee: Well, they are riot gloves, they have got padding in here
[Interviewee points on his knuckles], they are proper riot gloves.

Researcher: So what is in the pad?

Interviewee: Plastic.

In addition, interviewees were asked if and what types of offensive PPE their RSG colleagues carry at work. A quarter of interviewees responded that they used to work with or talked to RSGs who carry weapons at work. According to Interviewee 2,

kubotans (also with knife attachments) are “quite common” amongst RSGs: “(...) I know people who carry them [kubotans] and I know guards who have certain shaped pendants with sharp edges”. Interviewees also mentioned batons, weighted knuckle gloves and pepper-sprays such as Interviewee 15: “(...) there's this one kid who got some pepper spray type stuff” and Interviewee 4 reported: “I've come across a retail site (...) and there was an old chap he used to carry a baton (...)”.

On the one hand, these findings provide some support for Jenkins et al.'s (2012) study who also identified the carrying of weapons in their sample of protective service workers. However, in contrast to their (US) sample, none of the RSGs in this research was found to carry firearms. Still, the usage of sticks or batons (maces or weapons used to hit) and the carrying of kubotans with knife attachments, which is comparable to carrying knives, are in line with Jenkins et al.'s findings. Further, the findings in this study match those of Porter et al.'s (2015) and Button's (2007) research whose sample of British RSGs and door staff expressed the desire to be equipped with non-lethal weapons such as truncheons, CS gas or pepper-sprays. The findings also show some parallels to Monaghan's (2003) research where some of his door staff sample were found to carry concealed weapons, such as expandable batons and knuckle-dusters.

On the other hand, it has to be borne in mind that few of the (victimised) interviewees mentioned carrying weapons at work in order to be better prepared for future WV, which implies that the majority of interviewees chose different forms of self-protection. This, in turn, provides some support for research that did not find any link between former victimisation and weapon acquisition (e.g. Jobu and Curry, 2001). However, four further interviewees admitted to carrying a legal tool at work with the intention of using it as a weapon. In that context, two interviewees stated that they would use their radio to hit aggressors, such as Interviewee 1:

I mean it [radio] could double up as a baton. You could grab the aerial and lump somebody with it if you needed to which was the exact thing I had in my head after that incident. If anybody approaches me now this radio is going to be used as a baton (...).

Interviewee 2 bought a large metal torch for that purpose and used to carry one which “had like a jagged edge for breaking glass in emergencies” but for him “there was nothing about glass” admitting that he “would use that if [he] had to”:

I carry a torch now, quite a heavy one (...) I would have no problem turning it around and using it and that is the reason I carry a pretty long heavy torch. For me it is a baton (...) I would use it to hit someone over the head (...).

Further, Interviewee 16 made sure to stand close to items such as shopping baskets, trolleys or metal racks in his store with the intention to misuse them as defensive tools:

Interviewee: I think that helps in a way that you have got things near you (...) that you could use to defend yourself with (...).

Researcher: *Do you have any preference of items you like to be surrounded by?*

Interviewee: Metal items. (...) you have got arms that have got clothes on. You can easily take all them off, tip it off (...) We have got plastic pull trolleys and (...) If someone walked up and said ‘I’ve got a knife’ or something I would pick one of these trolleys up and whack him round the head with it (...).

Beyond that, a third of the interviewees knew or used to work with RSG colleagues who carried a legal tool. Most of these interviewees knew “a few” (Interviewee 6), “some” (Interviewee 15) or even “a lot of guards” who “carry big, heavy torches” (Interviewee 2) which sometimes were even used with “an attachment where you slot it through and it would turn into a great big nightstick” (Interviewee 20) “in case they [RSGs] do get in a bit of bother they can hit the person with it” (Interviewee 7). In addition, interviewees mentioned RSG colleagues who wore steel toe cap boots for offensive self-defence purposes and carried pens which they pressed into perpetrators’ body parts traversed by nerves (pressure points) to better control them.

However, the most extraordinary items identified were baseball bats (Interviewee 9) and self-built tasers (Interviewee 20):

Researcher: *Some bring their baseball bats?*

Interviewee: They will hide it, don't let management see it or anything in the shop. It is just... they are hidden. (Interviewee 9)

Interviewee: I've known [RSG] officers get little batteries and turn them into tasers with two live cables on them.

Researcher: *Batteries into tasers?*

Interviewee: Yeah. You know like the square Duracel batteries?

Researcher: *Yeah.*

Interviewee: I've known over the years people converting them into tasers. (Interviewee 20)

These qualitative findings on weapons and legal tools helped to better understand the range of offensive PPE used by RSGs. However, some interviewees were able to give additional insights into their usage of inoffensive PPE. A quarter made use of protective clothing but nobody carried alarm devices or a bodycam. Interviewees' protective clothing consisted of stab vests, protection materials woven into the jacket and cut resistant hand gloves: "I wear black gloves. I always wear gloves, even in summer (...)" (Interviewee 17). In addition, some inoffensive PPE could be identified during the interviews which were not captured in the questionnaire. One interviewee carried a set of handcuffs and some interviewees knew RSG colleagues who carry red-dye spray (also called 'Farb gel spray criminal identifier') which does not harm but disorients the attacker by blinding him temporarily with harmless red dye (UK Preppers Guide, 2017).

Concerning protective clothing, more than a quarter of interviewees came across "some" (e.g. Interviewee 13) and even "lots and lots and lots of guards" (Interviewee 2) who "use slash proof gloves [and/or] body armour" (Interviewee 16), matching Monaghan's (2003) findings on the usage of protective clothing across security work in

the night-time economy (NTE). Beyond that, one of the interviewees even met one RSG colleague who “bought his own bodycam” (Interviewee 6) and further three knew “quite a few (...) chaps” (Interviewee 16) who “bring in handcuffs to work” (Interviewee 7). Overall, as a third of interviewees stated that they carried offensive PPE as a result of their WV victimisation, the qualitative findings provide some support for research which has identified a link between crime victimisation and the acquisition of weapons (e.g. Asencio et al., 2014; Nansel et al., 2003). The findings on the misuse of various legal tools additionally support the research of Button (2007) as well as Monaghan (2003) and help to understand what one of Button’s RSG participants meant when he indicated that RSGs tend to apply many different types of offensive PPE other than torches.

It also has to be highlighted that the majority of interviewees did *not* make use of offensive PPE. When comparing the findings on personal alarm devices with those of Jenkins et al.’s (2012) results, only a few participants made use of this type of inoffensive PPE. However, some interviewees seemed to wear protective clothing at work which mirrors the desire of some of Nalla and Cobbina’s (2016) and Porter et al.’s (2015) SG samples for adequate protection equipment. It also echoes the findings of Löfstrand et al. (2016) who found that some of their RSG sample wore hand gloves during shifts in order to be better protected from contagious diseases. Yet, in contrast to Ralph’s (2004), Walker’s (2004) and Button’s (2007) studies, the carrying of handcuffs was found to be very uncommon amongst participants. In sum, even when considering different combinations of PPE, the quantitative data shows that the majority of respondents who carry PPE made use of inoffensive PPE. This suggests that the majority of RSGs carry inoffensive PPE. However, the qualitative data also revealed that some RSGs seem to think that the use of offensive PPE is the most appropriate way to protect themselves from WV. This constitutes a problem as such SPMs pose a serious threat to not only perpetrators’, customers’, RSG colleagues’ and retail staff’s physical well-being but also to companies’ reputations.

7.2.1.2 Skills

Secondly, the quantitative analysis focused on participants' usage of skills as a form of self-protection. Out of those respondents who were found to apply *exclusively* proactive SPMs (100%, n=242), the majority (76.9%, n=186) *exclusively* used their skills to protect themselves. The skills identified in the questionnaire were 'physical fitness' (when respondents stated that they try to stay physically fit) and 'Increased Awareness' which was when respondents made a conscious change in their attentiveness, for example: "Be extra aware" (questionnaire respondent) or "I stay aware of my surrounding areas and stay calm and collected" (questionnaire respondent).

However, when considering *all* different types of SPM *combinations* (including 'Mixture of Proactive and Inactive SPMs'), it was found that, overall, 52.5% (n=221) out of those respondents who gave insights into their current self-protection behaviour at work (100%, n=421) either exclusively, in combination with each other or in combination with other types of SPMs (PPE, tactics and/or inactive SPMs) made use of skills. 51.3% (n=216) reported to stay physically fit ('Physical Fitness') and 1.2% (n=5) actively paid more attention at work ('Increased Awareness'). This suggests that one in two RSGs rely on their own skill-set in order to protect themselves from the risk of WV.

Notwithstanding, the questionnaire did not reveal what exactly respondents undertook in order to increase their physical fitness but as almost half of the interviewees made use of physical fitness as a SPM, deeper insights could be gained. A few interviewees did endurance sports such as running, walking and cycling to have a physical advantage over perpetrators. Beyond that, more than one quarter did weight training but it was found that interviewees did this sport for different reasons. Most wanted to increase their physical strength in order *to be stronger* than their opponent: "Yeah, I've been to the gym (...) I think that helps. Knowing you have got a bit of strength behind you. Not necessarily to hurt that person but to stop that person from hurting you" (Interviewee 15). However, a few increased their amount of muscle *to appear stronger* with the hope of deterring perpetrators such as Interviewee 4: "Because when a person looks at you and thinking 'Hold on a second, he is quite bulky'

they might think twice before retaliating (...) and think (...) ‘We are not going to mess with him’.” Hoping to deter perpetrators by developing a strong invincible physical appearance is something which has already been identified in door staff (Hobbs et al., 2002; Hobbs et al., 2007; Tomkins, 2003; Monaghan, 2000; Winlow et al., 2001; DeMichele and Tewksbury, 2004; Swords, 2012). This suggests that ‘bulking up’ for deterrence reasons is not something which is exclusively linked to the NTE but can also be found in the retail security industry.

A third of interviewees stated that they worked on their physical fitness by doing martial arts. However, most of these interviewees did not specify what kind of martial arts they were doing and only revealed that they learned “how to protect [themselves], how to fight” (Interviewee 12), that they “picked up a few techniques” (Interviewee 14) or practised some “control and restraint, self-defence moves” (Interviewee 20). Only two interviewees provided more details about their martial arts training. These interviewees did “some Kung Fu, (...) some Karate, (...) some Thai Boxing” (Interviewee 13) and “boxing” (Interviewee 15). A few interviewees, amongst them Interviewee 12, indicated that they participated in martial arts classes because of the risk of WV in their jobs:

Interviewee: I train hard at a gym. It is not a ‘gym’ gym, it is a fighting gym. So you learn (...) how to fight, you know? (...) I will go two or three times a week just to ensure in my mind that if a situation arose I would know how to protect myself.

Researcher: *Have you started that because of your [retail security] job?*

Interviewee: Yeah, I started that because of the job because I just wanted to know that I could handle myself.

This comment mirrors the frequently identified linkage between violence victimisation and victims’ decision to participate in self-defence courses (e.g. Cubbage and Smith, 2009) and provides some support for Monaghan’s (2000) study whose sample of door staff stated that they gained confidence and self-assurance through attending martial arts classes. This in turn might provide an explanation for the desire of some of Nalla

and Cobbina's (2016) SG sample to receive self-defence training and why their sample believed that this type of training would prepare them for WV incidents.

In sum, the quantitative data suggests that most RSGs make use of their skill-set in order to protect themselves from the risk of WV. This constitutes a parallel to security work in the NTE where the acquisition of 'techniques of the body' were found to be of high importance to door staff in order to be better protected from the risk of assaults (Monaghan, 2003: 21). However, whilst 'bulking up' for deterrence reasons or increasing one's awareness appears reasonable, the application of fighting skills can be problematic if perpetrators get injured or if RSGs overestimate the effectiveness of their own fighting skills.

7.2.1.3 Tactics

Thirdly, participants' usage of tactics as a form of self-protection was examined quantitatively. Only very few (2.9%, n=7) out of those respondents who were found to use exclusively proactive SPMs (100%, n=242) made *exclusive* use of tactics. The tactics identified in the questionnaire were 'Proximity of Co-Workers' and 'Keeping Distance'. 'Proximity of Co-Workers' was recorded when respondents added comments indicating that they ensure they have physical assistance from RSG colleagues and/or retail staff when dealing with perpetrators, for example: "[I] Try to ensure I always have assistance close by" (questionnaire respondent). 'Keeping Distance', on the other hand, was recorded when responses indicated that participants consciously try to observe a certain distance between themselves and perpetrators when approaching them, for instance: "Keep space between myself and theifs [sic]" (questionnaire respondent).

Even when considering *all* different types of SPM *combinations* (including 'Mixture of Proactive and Inactive SPMs'), it was found that still overall only 2.4% (n=10) out of those who gave insights into their current self-protection behaviour at work (100%, n=421) either exclusively, in combination with each other or in combination with other types of SPMs (PPE, skills and/or inactive SPMs) made use of tactics. Also, only very few (1.9%, n=8) reported to seek the proximity of co-workers when approaching

perpetrators and even fewer (0.5%, n=2) consciously kept their distance from perpetrators when approaching them. This suggests that only very few RSGs rely on tactics in order to protect themselves from the risk of physical assault at work.

In addition, some interviewees gave insights into their usage of tactics. More than a quarter stated they “go with somebody” (Interviewee 1) or they “find help” (Interviewee 3) when approaching potentially violent persons. Here, it could be observed that interviewees used this tactic for different reasons. For most of these interviewees it was important to outnumber the perpetrator in order to be in a physically better position when getting into a fight: “I would make sure I have [physical] support. (...) that they were near, you know? So that I would have them there if... you know what I mean?” (Interviewee 1). For Interviewee 5, however, the intention was to deter the aggressive persons with the presence of his co-workers: “If they [aggressors] realise that all the security guards are watching they will tell you straight up ‘Oh yeah, you got back-up... Okay’ and start swearing and they walk out the store. ‘Goodbye’. Gone.” For Interviewee 10, however, not only the presence of his co-workers was important but also the presence of customers when approaching perpetrators. He believed that customers were likely to ensure quick help from the police or ambulance in case he loses control over the situation: “[I approach aggressors] where there’s a lot of people so if something happened like someone can call the police or ring ambulance if somebody stabs you. So you stand a chance of surviving.” Also, one fifth of interviewees mentioned that they always made sure to “keep them [aggressors] at arm’s length” (Interviewee 20) in order to be “out of reach” (Interviewee 19). Thus, some RSGs seem to use that tactic to decrease the likelihood of getting assaulted by increasing the distance an attacker has to overcome.

Additionally, the interviews revealed further tactics used by RSGs which had not been identified in the questionnaire. A few interviewees mentioned observing a certain standing position when approaching aggressive persons. These interviewees believed that “the way you stand”, namely “with a solid base”, having “your hands quite high (...) like shoulder height” was suitable to send a warning to aggressors and to deter them from attempting an assault by transporting the message ““Okay, this guy’s

prepared to defend himself” (Interviewee 19). This finding mirrors what Monaghan (2003) identified in his sample of door staff.

Another tactic identified in the interviews was what the researcher named ‘strategic bluffing’. A few interviewees pretended that backup was already on their way in order to frighten off aggressors by telling them that “the police have been called” (Interviewee 2) or “so-and-so is coming (...) even if this is before (...)” they “(...) had a chance to contact anyone” (Interviewee 15). The most prevalent tactic, however, was to point out in-store closed-circuit television (CCTV) cameras. One third of interviewees regularly told aggressors “that they have been caught on CCTV and it is still recording” (Interviewee 18) and that they “have got all these cameras watching” (Interviewee 16). Interviewees assumed that aggressors “know they [CCTV cameras] are there” (Interviewee 17) and that aggressors “know it is evidence” (Interviewee 16) which could be used against them by the police and courts. This tactic was utilised to deter aggressors by making them either leave the store or to “calm [them] down a little” (Interviewee 19) as reported by Interviewee 9:

“(...) you will see them look at the camera and sometimes I will say ‘Well, you pulled that knife but there is fifteen cameras watching you right now, every move’ and that is a deterrent to say that (...)”

This mirrors the finding of Porter et al. (2015) whose sample of SGs was found to value the deterrent effect of CCTV cameras. However, none of the interviewees mentioned any tactics used by RSG colleagues which could either mean that they did not come across any RSG colleagues who made use of tactics or that RSGs rarely share information on self-protection tactics. In sum, the quantitative data suggests that only few RSGs make use of tactics in order to protect themselves from the risk of WV. This is regrettable as all identified tactics appeared to be reasonable forms of self-protection which seemed to increase the safety for RSGs with only little risk for themselves or others.

7.2.1.4 Mixture of Proactive Self-Protection Measures

Lastly, some questionnaire respondents were found to make use of a mixture of proactive SPMs. A mixture was recorded when respondents reported to make use of a combination of two or more proactive SPMs (e.g. PPE *and* skills). A total of 8.7% (n=21) out of those respondents who were found to apply exclusively proactive SPMs (n=242) made use of a mixture of different types of proactive SPMs. This suggests that almost one in ten RSGs apply a variety of proactive SPMs in order to protect themselves from the risk of WV which could mean that some RSGs feel the desire to 'be on the safe side' and to reduce the risk of WV to a minimum by not relying on one SPM only. In sum, the overall data suggests that most RSGs make use of proactive SPMs by relying mostly on their own skill-set followed by the application of a mixture of proactive SPMs, carrying (predominantly inoffensive) PPE and applying tactics.

However, certain discrepancies between the questionnaire and interview findings as well as some assumptions must be pointed out and their potential meanings addressed. Firstly, *none* of the seven interviewees who mentioned carrying an offensive PPE (weapon or legal tool) at work admitted to this type of SPM in the questionnaire. This could mean that also other questionnaire respondents were reluctant to provide truthful answers about their usage of offensive SPMs. Secondly, certain proactive SPMs might have been considered as such an obvious measure by participants (e.g. being more cautious (skills) or keeping a distance (tactics)) that some might not have thought about adding such information when answering questions about SPMs. Thirdly, *none* of the interviewees had mentioned in the questionnaire that they sought the proximity of their co-workers when approaching aggressors, that they made sure to observe a certain distance from aggressors, that they approached aggressors in a certain standing position, and that they used strategic bluffing or pointed out CCTV cameras. However, the application of these SPMs was mentioned during the interviews. Thus, it is possible that not all of the participants in this study mentioned all of the proactive SPMs they use. These aforementioned points suggest that the dark-figure of types and extent of proactive SPMs within the retail security industry might be higher than the data initially suggested at the beginning of this chapter. Overall, the findings in this section show that most RSGs feel the need to

make use of SPMs which enable them to confront perpetrators. On the one hand, this is seen as a positive as it indicates that most RSGs take their security role seriously by taking measures which help them to defend their store, customers and retail staff as well as they can. On the other hand, it was found that RSGs use many different forms of proactive SPMs, some of which are likely to increase the danger of physical injury for themselves and others.

7.2.2 Inactive Forms of Self-Protection: Avoidance and Withdrawal

As a next step, the quantitative analysis focused on RSGs' usage of SPMs which were intended to avoid confrontations with future aggressors. It was found that 8.5% (n=36) out of those respondents (both victims and non-victims of WV) who answered the question on their current SPMs at work (100%, n=421) made use of *exclusively* inactive SPMs (*Question 21*). This form of self-protection was recorded when respondents admitted to ignoring crime or antisocial behaviour in their store so that they could avoid trouble. In addition, the questionnaire asked victimised respondents whether they would *consider* changing anything about their job because of their last experience of physical assault at work (*Question 23*). Even though the responses to this question could not be counted as *current* SPMs, it was felt that they needed to be included in this section as they reveal information about RSGs' *considerations* to apply inactive SPMs in the future. As a consequence, this section deals with avoidance and withdrawal behaviours. Inspired by Elliot's (2008: 3) definition, participants 1) made use of *avoidance behaviours* if they applied 'behavior directed away from negative stimuli' (WV) *whilst staying* in the security industry and 2) applied *withdrawal behaviours* when *leaving* the security industry. Firstly, avoidance behaviours could be segmented into a) Ignoring Crime or Antisocial Behaviour; b) 'Passing the Buck'; and c) Changing to a Less Dangerous Security Job.

7.2.2.1 Avoidance Behaviours

7.2.2.1.1 Ignoring Crime or Antisocial Behaviour

As already mentioned above, 8.5% (n=36) of the respondents (100%, n=421) made use of *exclusively* inactive SPMs. However, when considering *all* different types of SPM *combinations* (including 'Mixture of Proactive and Inactive SPMs'), it was found that overall 12.6% (n=53) out of those who gave insights into their current SPMs at work (100%, n=421) either exclusively or in combination with proactive SPMs (PPE, skills and/or tactics) made use of this type of inactive SPM. This suggests that more than one in ten RSGs ignore crime or antisocial behaviour at work so that they can avoid trouble. When this topic was raised during the interviews a quarter of interviewees admitted to applying this SPM at work occasionally. One interviewee described himself as being generally reticent in approaching aggressors whereas another one was reluctant to approach a particular group of individuals (Irish gypsies) as, in his experience, this group was known to be excessively violent. Other interviewees ignored crime or antisocial behaviour when it was committed by persons who they "know they are aggressive" (Interviewee 3) and/or if they "might see a group" (Interviewee 2) because an increase in number of perpetrators seemed to equal an increase in perceived danger as reported by Interviewee 2:

Interviewee: (...) you think 'Christ, I am going to walk down this aisle because they are in that one and hopefully (...) we can avoid each other'. And they have gone. 'Oh, thank god'.

Researcher: *So what kind of situations were these situations?*

Interviewee: So mainly that would be through groups and I don't mean (...) like teenagers (...) I'm on about proper groups of lads.

This echoes the finding of Stanko and Hobdell (1993) whose sample of male violence victims perceived groups as particularly dangerous. When talking about RSG colleagues, interviewees believed that "everyone in retail security at some point" (Interviewee 2), "quite a few" (Interviewee 16), "a lot" (Interviewees 3, 7 and 15) and even "most guards will turn a blind eye to it" (Interviewee 9). Overall, almost three-quarters of interviewees "heard stories" of (Interviewee 10) or "have seen"

(Interviewee 16) RSG colleagues ignoring crime at work as reported by Interviewee 8: “We’ve seen it with some of our relief officers that they don’t want to be involved in it. (...) unless they are specifically asked to by the [store] manager, they would just ignore the anti-social behaviour” and Interviewee 15 remembered:

(...) if someone dodgy came in or someone who was barred from the store came in (...) He [RSG colleague] would run straight upstairs and go to the toilet. ‘Oh, I didn’t see – I was in the toilet’ or something like that.

In sum, the quantitative data suggests that a high number of RSGs ignore crime or antisocial behaviour during their shifts in order to avoid trouble. In addition, the qualitative data indicates that this type of SPM can often be a reaction to WV, which is consistent with the findings within the general workforce showing that some people tend to avoid certain types of activities following victimisation (Stanko and Hobdell, 1993; Mitchell and Everly, 1997; Spry, 1998). Also, the data confirms the findings of Löftstrand et al. (2016) whose sample of RSGs were reluctant to intervene in certain violent situations. This finding is a reason for concern as it means that many RSGs neglect their duties which is neither in security companies’ nor in the retail clients’ interest.

7.2.2.1.2 ‘Passing the Buck’

Moreover, another type of avoidance behaviour was identified in the interviews which was named ‘Passing the Buck’. This term was adopted from one interviewee and recorded when participants did *not* ignore crime or antisocial behaviour in their store but shifted the responsibility onto somebody else. This kind of avoidance behaviour was recorded in a third of interviewees who “let the police handle it” (Interviewee 18) in cases where they could not “be arsed with the hassle” (Interviewee 14) because perpetrators were assumed to be “too violent (...) to handle” (Interviewee 20) and participants worried about getting their “head kicked in” (Interviewee 17). In addition, ‘Passing the Buck’ was something which could be observed in RSG colleagues by a fifth of interviewees, amongst them Interviewee 1:

I know there is a supermarket in [city in England] (...). He [the RSG colleague] will shout out for the police rather than dealing with it himself. (...) and I hear that every day (...) I think it is... yeah, they are trying to get someone else to deal with it, passing the buck.

Thus, the qualitative data suggests that some RSGs protect themselves from the risk of WV by delegating the responsibility to somebody else, such as RSG colleagues or the police. Whilst delegating the danger to the police appears to be a reasonable form of avoidance behaviour, 'Passing the Buck' to RSG colleagues is unacceptable because it increases the danger for RSG colleagues who might be unable to cope with certain situations alone.

7.2.2.1.3 Changing to a Less Dangerous Security Job

Furthermore, the questionnaire asked respondents whether they have considered any job changes due to their last experience of WV (*Question 23*). One in ten (10%, n=22) out of the 220 victimised respondents who answered the question stated they would consider changing to a less dangerous security job either within or outside the retail security industry. When raising that topic in the interviews, none of the participants were currently thinking about such changes. However, a fifth mentioned that they had changed stores in the *past* due to the high levels of violence at their former retail workplace, like Interviewee 1 who said: "The store in town (...) brought the wrong crowd in and I wanted to try and get out of that because I don't want to deal with angry people all of the time". Further to this, Interviewee 16 talked to RSG colleagues who admitted to him that WV made them change to less dangerous security jobs:

There has been a couple [of RSGs], yeah, that it has affected them so much that they have said 'I tell you what, I'm going back to corporate security', you know? Where they are just looking after a guardhouse or something, a gatehouse.

In sum, the quantitative data suggests that the experience of WV makes one in ten victimised RSGs think about changing to a less dangerous security job. This finding is

consistent with previous research which frequently identified victims' tendency to avoid areas where they have been victimised (e.g. Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). Further, it confirms the research of Porter et al. (2015) who found some of their SG sample actively seeking less dangerous security jobs following WV victimisation and a third of their sample believing that violence makes their SG colleagues think about changing to a less dangerous security job.

7.2.2.2 Withdrawal Behaviour: Leaving the Security Industry

The quantitative analysis continued by focusing on RSGs' intention to leave the security industry as a form of self-protection against WV. A quarter (25%, n=55) out of those victimised respondents who answered *Question 23* (n=220) reported thinking about leaving the security business and not doing any type of security work anymore because of their last experience of WV. Amongst the interviewees, more than a quarter admitted to such considerations such as Interviewee 14: "(...) I've been tempted a few times to say 'You know what? I've had enough. I can't be arsed no more. It's too much hassle'". Indeed, the prospect of repeat victimisation made these interviewees not "want to get to work" anymore (Interviewee 10). Instead, they considered changing to a job unrelated to security work like Interviewee 16 who "toyed with the idea a couple of times of going sitting on [his] arse somewhere and that's it (...)". Such considerations accrued from the desire for a type of employment with a lower likelihood of getting assaulted which becomes evident in a comment made by Interviewee 2: "It's much easier to do something else, sit in an office, work on a computer, even building or something, physically hard but not threatening as such" and Interviewee 6 added: "I think I would be lying if I said 'It hadn't crossed my mind'. I don't want to be going to work and getting mugged every other day of the week" and lastly Interviewee 9 who said: "The one thing that does go through your mind 'I don't need this, I will get another job' (...)". When it came to their RSG colleagues, a third of interviewees "heard about" (Interviewee 4), have "known" (Interviewee 9) and have "seen and heard" (Interviewee 7) "a few" (Interviewee 4), "some" (Interviewee 17), "many" (Interviewee 3), "lots of" (Interviewee 7) and even "many, many, many (...) I would say hundreds, yeah" (Interviewee 9) of guards who left the security industry because of the risk of WV. In that context, Interviewee 3 mentioned conversations

with former RSG colleagues whose motivation for leaving the industry seemed to be the elimination of the risk of WV. In these conversations his colleagues told him that they “‘don't want to do this job, it's kind of risky’” and Interviewee 7 reported that some of his former RSG colleagues were “saying that they cannot cope with this [WV]”. However, the most remarkable account was provided by Interviewee 9 who told about his former RSG colleague:

I have known a guy who was really badly beaten up. (...) he was actually in a coma after it. (...) he told me that he couldn't do it [retail security] anymore. He has nightmares over it. He walks with his head down in the street when he is walking. He doesn't want to make eye contact with anybody because of the trauma he had been through (...).

Thus, the quantitative data indicates that the experience of WV makes one in four victimised RSGs think about leaving the security industry. This supports the findings in relation to studies of WV victims' avoidance behaviours within the general workforce (e.g. De Puy et al., 2012) and confirms those of Porter et al. (2015) who found some of their SG sample considered leaving the security industry following WV victimisation. Based on these results, it is suggested that high turnover rates (e.g. Nalla and Cobbina, 2016) as well as low levels of commitment within the security industry might not only be attributable to factors such as long working hours or low pay (Button, 2007; Hainmüller and Lemnitzer, 2003) but might also be a consequence of WV victimisation or due to the prospect of future victimisation. This finding indicates that many victimised RSGs feel unprotected at their workplace to such an extent that giving up their job seems to be the lesser of two evils.

In sum, the overall data suggests that RSGs who make use of inactive SPMs most commonly think about leaving the security industry followed by ignoring crime at work, changing to a less dangerous security job and 'Passing the Buck'. However, similar to the discussion on RSGs' application of proactive SPMs, the data on inactive SPMs is not without flaws, so two points need to be addressed: Firstly, none of the interviewees who stated they sometimes 'Pass the Buck' and only a quarter of those

interviewees who admitted to sometimes ignoring crime at work admitted to this SPM when filling out the questionnaire. Furthermore, not all interviewees had stated in the questionnaire that they think about leaving the security industry because of their experiences of WV. This shows that not all interviewees revealed the full extent of their inactive SPMs. Secondly, the researcher only had the chance to talk to RSGs who changed to a less dangerous *retail* store which means that no data could be collected from SGs who had left the *retail* security industry due to WV victimisation and now work in less dangerous security jobs (e.g. warehouse or concierge security). Also, this study did not include any of those RSGs who still work in the *retail* security industry but left their frontline position due to WV victimisation (e.g. changing to a backroom position). This shows that all RSGs who executed a change *within* the retail security industry due to their experiences of WV could not be reached in this study. Thus, it must be assumed that the dark-figure of inactive SPMs amongst RSGs might be higher than the data suggests.

7.3 The Emotional Driving-Factors behind the Adaptation of Self-Protection Measures

After having gained more information on the types and prevalence of SPMs used by RSGs, the question arose as to *why* RSGs decide to draw on SPMs. In order to answer that question, the qualitative analysis focused on participants' emotional driving-factors. When talking to interviewees, it was noticed that for many of them worry was their justification for making use of SPMs but also sometimes a reason for *not* making use of certain SPMs. Thus, the following section is divided into (1) Worries which Facilitate the Adaptation of SPMs and (2) Worries which Inhibit the Adaptation of SPMs.

7.3.1 Worries which Facilitate the Adaptation of Self-Protection Measures

Several interviewees made comments which suggest that a number of concerns regarding future WV facilitated their adaptation of SPMs. These worries could be categorised into participants' a) worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being), b) worry about their loved ones' well-being and c) loved ones' worry about participants' well-being.

7.3.1.1 Worry about Re-Experiencing Negative Emotions (Own Well-Being)

Firstly, the qualitative analysis revealed that some interviewees' decision to use SPMs was facilitated by their worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being). As a reminder, in Chapter 5 it was concluded that RSGs' overall emotional experience of WV is shaped by the violent act (e.g. the punch, the kick) as well as a variety of contextual factors (CFs). Having this conclusion in mind, it is not surprising that most participants were able to describe WV incidents which led to negative emotions but sometimes also to neutral or even positive emotions. However, despite the experience of partly neutral or positive emotions in relation to assaults, the qualitative data suggests that overall interviewees perceived WV incidents predominantly as negative. As a consequence, comments were made indicating that interviewees did not want to re-experience WV. In that context, interviewees were determined that "it just can't happen anymore" (Interviewee 17), that they are "not going in that situation again" (Interviewee 8), that they "ain't being attacked again" (Interviewee 1) and that they "never want to go through that again" (Interviewee 9).

When considering measures to minimise or eliminate the risk of future WV, interviewees were often found to be driven by emotions which were attributable to their experiences with CFs. These emotions, in turn, were relevant when interviewees decided about the suitability of potential SPMs which becomes evident in the following section. To begin with, a comment made by Interviewee 10 suggests that the experience of an unexpected assault (CF Facing the Unknown) can make RSGs apply

SPMs in the form of tactics ('Keeping Distance') as this experience made him observe a safe distance to aggressive persons in subsequent dangerous situations at work:

(...) the way he [perpetrator] approached me... very polite, you know? He doesn't show any sign so that's when he actually hit me (...) so that is why I am worried (...) and I have learned from it. (...) I always try and keep a distance (...).

Furthermore, a comment from Interviewee 9 shows that a negative violence experience with a particular group of perpetrators (CF Type of Perpetrator) can drive RSGs to make use of SPMs in the form of avoidance behaviours ('Ignoring Crime or Antisocial Behaviour' and/or 'Passing the Buck'):

I will never do anything like that again with [Irish] gypsies. They are too dangerous (...) They are the ones I am concerned about big-time and I won't get involved. (...) I will not have them arrested (...) it's just not worth it after what happened to me. They are the only ones I will shy away from because of my experience of them. I never want to go through that again.

Similarly, a comment from Interviewee 17 indicates that a negative WV experience with a young perpetrator (CF Type of Perpetrator) can make RSGs use SPMs in the form of skills ('Physical Fitness'):

The first thing I did next day, I went into the garage, I've got a multi-gym in there, and I thought 'That can't happen anymore, it just can't happen anymore.' And I went on there and I was just pumping iron, like, for two hours, in there. And since it happened I must have lost two stone. I've been on a diet. I've started doing a lot more physical things because I realised that a 15-year-old nearly got the upper hand of me.

Beyond that, a comment made by Interviewee 12 suggests that a negative experience with a lack of physical customer assistance (CF Customer Reactions) during a WV incident can shape RSGs' risk perception concerning future situations which in turn is assumed to have an impact on some RSGs' self-protection behaviour:

(...) there's plenty of customers that look on but no one tends to get involved (...) you can't rely on anyone (...) you have always got to go in with the mind that you are going to be there by yourself. If someone helps think 'Great', if they don't then you have got to act like you are on your own.

Similarly, a comment from Interviewee 14 indicates that a negative experience with slow police backup (CF Police Response) can shape RSGs' risk perception as related to future WV incidents which is also assumed to have an impact on some RSGs' decision to apply SPMs:

The police can turn up within seconds, they could be just around the corner and they will turn up and they will support you (...). In other situations, the police don't turn up, they turn up ten, fifteen minutes after the incident has happened (...).

Additionally, a comment made by Interviewee 8 shows that a negative experience with unsuitable equipment (CF Equipment) can trigger the usage of SPMs in form of inoffensive PPE ('Protective Clothing') in RSGs:

Researcher: *Did you have any equipment on you [when you were stabbed with the syringe]?*

Interviewee: At that point, no. So the kit that we are provided is a thin thermal jacket and shirt, so not great. That's changed now but that's from my personal investment because I don't want to be in that scenario again. I have turtle-skin gauntlets woven into my jacket, I use turtle-skin gloves which are needle proof and I also use a stab vest for my protection (...).

Also, a comment made by Interviewee 1 suggests that a negative experience with RSG backup (CF Manpower) can shape RSGs' risk perception concerning future assaults and make RSGs consider using SPMs in the form of offensive PPE ('Legal Tool with the intention to use it as a weapon'):

(...) he [RSG colleague] is still half a mile away in town so no, not even the radio could have saved me. Like I said, it [the radio] doubles up as a baton. You could hit somebody with it but that's it.

Lastly, a comment made by Interviewee 2 indicates that a negative experience with a lack of physical assistance from retail staff (CF Staff Reactions) can shape RSGs' risk perception with regard to future WV which in turn is assumed to have an impact on RSGs' self-protection behaviour:

(...) in retail you will often be working with a lot of female staff, maybe some young people doing part-time work and maybe some older people so the semi-retired. So without casting aspersions on any of those groups they are less likely to want to get involved (...) there are exceptions but I don't think this proves the rule.

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that the worry about re-experiencing negative emotions attributable to experiences with unpredictable assaults (CF Facing the Unknown), certain type of perpetrators (CF Type of Perpetrator), unreliable customer

assistance (CF Customer Reactions), undependable police backup (CF Police Response), unsuitable equipment (CF Equipment), uncertain RSG backup (CF Manpower) or retail staff backup (CF Staff Reactions) can shape RSGs' risk assessment and decision-making process concerning their self-protection behaviour. This suggests that the worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being) can facilitate RSGs' usage of SPMs.

7.3.1.2 Worry about Loved Ones

Secondly, the qualitative analysis revealed that some interviewees' use of SPMs was facilitated by their worry about their loved ones' well-being. A fifth of interviewees were worried that when they are "going out with [their] family and everything someone might hurt them (...) or when they [children] are going to school, they [perpetrators]" might "do something bad" (Interviewee 3). In that context, Interviewee 12 expressed his worry about his partner's physical well-being and seemed to be less concerned about his own: "Well, my concern is her safety. I'm not too fussed about mine". Thus, these interviewees were worried about their loved ones' *physical* well-being.

In addition, a further fifth of interviewees worried that their loved ones might either observe future assaults or see its physical impact which might make them suffer emotionally. In that context, Interviewee 17 told about an assault which was observed by his grandchildren who even months later remembered when "that nasty man was hitting Grandad" and Interviewee 4 believed that he "could have ended up in Hospital" after he was assaulted which he assumed "would have been traumatising for [his] kids, for [his] family, friends". Thus, these interviewees were worried about their loved ones' *emotional* well-being.

As a consequence, some of these interviewees thought that "if you have got a young family the best thing you can do is turn a blind eye to stuff like that" as "your family can be victims as well and that is the most upsetting part about it" (Interviewee 9). One interviewee who had spoken to RSGs who had quit their retail security job reported that "they say it is more risky for them and for their family (...). That is why

they don't want to do it [anymore]" (Interviewee 3). Thus, the fact that some interviewees have "a family at home" (Interviewee 18), "young kids" (Interviewee 5) or "a young family now" (Interviewee 2) was found to have an influence on their willingness to take risks and consequently on their decision to use various inactive SPMs in form of avoidance behaviours as observed in Interviewee 14 ('Changing to a Less Dangerous Security Job'):

(...) me and my partner at the time had just had her [pointing at his daughter]. So having my little one was more forefront of 'Do I go to a quieter shop or do I stick to a shop that I know that at some point it could get worse?' (...) [and] I left.

In addition, the same interviewee reported that the worry about his daughter was the motivation for him to use SPMs in the form of skills ('Increased Awareness') at his new workplace and/or in the form of tactics ('Keeping Distance') in order to minimise the risk of future WV:

As soon as I make a stop, my daughter comes into my head because I know she could be walking about with her mum and I think 'Does she really want to see me fighting, does she want to see me with a black eye the next day or come and visit me in hospital?' So you try and do it the safest way possible (...).

This suggests that the worry about their loved ones' physical and emotional well-being can facilitate RSGs' usage of SPMs.

7.3.1.3 Loved Ones' Worry about Participants

Thirdly, some comments indicate that not only does participants' worry about themselves or about others facilitate their self-protection behaviour, but also other peoples' worry about participants. As shown at the beginning of Chapter 6, a third of interviewees were aware that their accounts of WV incidents made their loved ones worry about interviewees' well-being which is consistent with the victimology

literature on the indirect impacts of crime (Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). Consequently, some interviewees reported that they do not tell their loved ones about any incidents at work as they “probably wouldn't want [interviewees] working here” (Interviewee 18) and “nag [interviewees] to get a different job” (Interviewee 9). Interviewee 16 was also approached by concerned SG friends who told him that he should not “have to put up with all this bullshit” and should change to a less dangerous security site where they were patrolling because they “have got none of that [WV] where [they] work”. This suggests that also the worry of loved ones about RSGs can facilitate RSGs’ usage of SPMs in the form of avoidance or withdrawal behaviours as observed in Interviewee 5 (‘Changing to a Less Dangerous Security Job’ or ‘Leaving the Security Industry’):

(...) I say to my wife ‘Oh, this happened’ and she says ‘You can pack it in now, I don’t want you to get injured, we got grandchildren to look after’ which is true. 2018 and that’s it. That’s when my licence runs out.

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs’ adaptation of SPMs can be facilitated by their worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being) but also by their worry about loved ones or loved ones’ worry about RSGs. This finding provides further support for the frequently identified linkage between fear (worry) and crime victims’ decision to make use of proactive (e.g. Allen, 2018) as well as inactive forms of self-protection (e.g. Rader, 2017) and echoes Hopkins and Fox’s (2013: 12) findings on crime victims’ ‘self-protection mentality’.

7.3.2 Worries which Inhibit the Adaptation of Self-Protection Measures

On the other hand, some interviewees made comments suggesting that a number of worries in relation to future WV inhibited their adaptation of certain SPMs. These worries could be categorised into participants’ a) worry about legal/occupational consequences; b) worry about harm; c) worry about escalation; d) worry about effectiveness; and e) worry about being perceived as unmanly (masculinity).

7.3.2.1 Worry about Legal/Occupational Consequences

Firstly, particularly when it came to the usage of offensive PPE, a number of interviewees expressed worry about legal consequences. In that context, some interviewees were aware that they are “not allowed” (Interviewee 9) or “not supposed to carry that” (Interviewee 4) as carrying offensive PPE would be “against the law” (Interviewee 9) and “also [be] a crime” (Interviewee 3). This knowledge made these interviewees worry about ending up “on the wrong side of the law” (Interviewee 16), about getting “prosecuted” (Interviewee 4) and about being “taken to Court” (Interviewee 13) when making use of such items. Furthermore, interviewees’ worry about legal consequences went hand-in-hand with their worry about losing one’s employment. Interviewees were concerned that they “can say goodbye to [their] job” (Interviewee 4) because they “can’t work in the security industry no more” if they “get a criminal record” (Interviewee 12). They were aware that they “have got to justify everything that [they] do” (Interviewee 16) and that “one wrong move” (Interviewee 14) could mean that “they could be removed from the industry altogether” (Interviewee 13) when using offensive PPE in a physical confrontation. Conclusively, the qualitative data suggests that the worry about legal/occupational consequences can inhibit RSGs’ usage of SPMs in the form of offensive PPE (‘Weapons’ and ‘Legal Tools’) at work because using such PPE might lead to a criminal record and endanger their employment status. This was captured in a comment from Interviewee 14:

I've been tempted to carry some pepper spray (...) [but] if somebody came up to me and I used it I could say goodbye to my licence, or not? So that is one thing that obviously goes through my head. So I haven't bought any.

However, the worry about occupational consequences was also found to prevent some interviewees from using SPMs in the form of avoidance behaviours (e.g. ‘Ignoring Crime or Antisocial Behaviour’). In these cases, interviewees were convinced that if somebody from the management perceived them as “useless” (Interviewee 9), “not sufficient” (Interviewee 16) or as “not effective they [managers] will get rid of” them (Interviewee 8) which is supported by a comment from Interviewee 7: “The [store]

manager might say “Go and get him,” and if you don’t (...) [he might say] “(...) I want somebody else, you know? (...) then your job’s gone.”

7.3.2.2 Worry about Harm

Secondly, other interviewees were reluctant to carry offensive PPE because they “could harm someone else” (Interviewee 7) and “could do a lot of damage to somebody” (Interviewee 16). Thus, these interviewees refrained from using SPMs in the form of offensive PPE out of worry of severely harming the perpetrator, as suggested by Interviewee 9 (‘Weapon’): “(...) I would not be able to hurt another person with a knife so I am not going to use one (...)”. Also, a few interviewees expressed concern of being disarmed by perpetrators and getting hurt by their own defensive tool such as Interviewee 8 (‘Weapon’): “(...) they [perpetrators] are probably going to take the knife off you and use it against you.” Moreover, a few interviewees expressed their worry of putting “the whole team at risk” (Interviewee 8) and causing “a threat to customers” by “carrying something” (Interviewee 14) and Interviewee 13 was concerned that leaving the security industry (withdrawal behaviour) might escalate “the risk to the staff and the customers”. This interviewee believed that SPMs in the form of withdrawal behaviour “is only going to make the situation worse for that store” which was his justification to refrain from making use of this type of SPM:

If (...) you let that assault drive you out of the industry, then there is a risk that the mentality becomes among the criminals that the best way of committing offences of shoplifting and thefts in stores is to also use physical violence (...).

Conclusively, more than a quarter of interviewees consciously decided against the usage of SPMs in the form of offensive PPE as well as withdrawal behaviour because they were concerned about causing harm to the perpetrator, getting harmed or to exposing bystanders to a greater risk of harm. This suggests that the worry about harming somebody or getting harmed can inhibit RSGs’ usage of certain SPMs.

7.3.2.3 Worry about Escalation

Thirdly, some interviewees thought that the usage of weapons, legal tools, protection gear and handcuffs (PPE) “has the opposite effect”, “makes them [perpetrators] want to get threatening (...)” and might make them “lose the temper” (Interviewee 19). Interviewees 13 and 15 thought that “If you are carrying a weapon, you have got more of a risk of escalating situations (...)” (Interviewee 13) because “a stab vest or mace, spray or handcuffs or anything like that (...) makes people think ‘He will need them, you know? I will have a scrap with him’” (Interviewee 15) which is also supported by a comment made by Interviewee 17:

(...) some people walk into the shop and there’s a security guard with gloves on even and a stab vest and, you know, steel capped boots or whatever and shin pads and all that. They just think ‘Oh’. It might provoke them (...).

Further, Interviewee 7 refrained from pointing out in-store CCTV cameras to perpetrators for deterrence purposes (tactics) as he believed that this SPM was likely to provoke perpetrators even more: “I wouldn’t tell someone [about the CCTV cameras]. (...) nine out of ten times they [perpetrators] will get aggressive if you say that. (...) It’s just like telling a child to stop doing something. They’ll do it, you know?”. In total, a quarter of interviewees were found to refrain from using SPMs in the form of PPE or tactics because they were concerned about provoking perpetrators in tense situations and consequently about escalating situations. This is in line with Farrimond et al.’s (2018) finding on door staff who abstained from using certain PPE for de-escalation purposes. The finding suggests that the worry about escalating a situation can inhibit RSGs’ usage of certain SPMs.

7.3.2.4 Worry about Effectiveness

Fourthly, some interviewees were found to worry about the effectiveness of certain SPMs. Interviewee 20 believed that offensive PPE (‘Legal Tool’) was impractical as “by the time you picked that thing [torch] up and swing it... (...)” the assault would have

already happened. This view was shared by Interviewee 8 who was disappointed about the effectiveness of red-dye-spray (used to disorient the attacker) (inoffensive PPE) after testing its impact on a friend: “(...) I asked a friend to attack me and while he was attempting to attack me I sprayed a full canister in his face (...). I wouldn’t consider it a safe measure. He literally just laughed”. For a similar reason, Interviewee 19 considered handcuffs (inoffensive PPE) to be ineffective as “both your hands are taken up and you could still be assaulted by their [perpetrators’] free hand”. In addition, a few interviewees felt that there was no point in improving one’s physical fitness (skills) for deterrence purposes. These interviewees believed that not all perpetrators were impressed by body size because some were assumed to be “disturbed some way in their mind” (Interviewee 17) or skilled fighters who are used to fighting stronger opponents anyway as illustrated in a comment made by Interviewee 20: “(...) you could be the biggest, built like a tank and you could still get someone the size of Harry Potter take you down.” In sum, a quarter of interviewees believed that various PPE as well as an enhanced skill-set would not “stop you from being assaulted” (Interviewee 18) which made them worry about the effectiveness of these SPMs. This suggests that the worry about the effectiveness of SPMs can inhibit RSGs’ usage of certain SPMs.

7.3.2.5 Worry about Being Perceived as Unmanly (Masculinity)

Lastly, a fifth of interviewees decided against the usage of certain SPMs out of worry of being perceived as weak which in turn holds the danger of being perceived as unmanly (David and Brannon, 1976). These interviewees felt the need to make it clear that the experience of WV “didn’t put [them] off” (Interviewee 17) and that violence would not make them ignore crime or antisocial behaviour at work in order to avoid trouble (avoidance behaviour) or leave the security industry (withdrawal behaviour). Those interviewees’ reasons for not making use of such inactive SPMs were that they considered themselves to be “extremely stubborn” (Interviewee 15) or emphasised that “it’s [their] job” (Interviewee 15). In that context, Interviewee 4 said: “I won’t leave a job because of the experience I have had, no. No Benjamin. I’m pretty hard knocked on that one” and Interviewee 15 explained:

No, I've never thought of quitting (...) it is going to take a lot to make me quit and someone punching me or being like that, that is not going to make me want to quit. (...) A lot of people would have quit or thought about quitting, if they were put in my position back at that incident (...) I am not one of them (...).

This suggests that the worry about being perceived as unmanly (masculinity) can inhibit RSGs' usage of certain SPMs. Overall, the qualitative findings in this section confirm those of Button (2007) who found that a large number of his RSG sample refrained from applying offensive PPE out of concern that the PPE might be used against them (*worry about harm*) or lead to an escalation in violence (*worry about escalation*). Further, it could be argued that the attitude of some of Button's sample that security staff should be capable of dealing with perpetrators unarmed might have originated from masculinity ideals (*worry about being perceived as unmanly*). However, to the researcher's knowledge no studies to date reveal a *worry about legal/occupational consequences* and a *worry about effectiveness* as reasons for why some RSGs refrain from the application of offensive PPE. Furthermore, these findings might provide an explanation for why some of Jenkins et al.'s (2012) sample of protective service workers felt the need to undertake proactive forms of SPMs whilst others did not.

Conclusively, the qualitative data suggests that victimised RSGs' adaptation of SPMs is facilitated but also inhibited by a number of worries. Interestingly, the qualitative data also showed that some interviewees were exposed to different worries at the same time. This suggests that RSGs conduct what is called a 'weighing of worries' in this study where RSGs are confronted with both facilitating and inhibiting worries which help them to identify a SPM they consider suitable. This finding is believed to be of high importance as it suggests that RSGs undergo a decision-making process where security companies (and possibly other institutions) might get the chance to intervene and steer RSGs' decision in a desirable direction.

7.4 The Overall Objective for using Self-Protection Measures

Following the exploration of participants' emotional driving-factors behind the adaptation of SPMs, it was examined qualitatively what participants' overall objective was for using SPMs. In that context, more than a third of interviewees gave insights into how the usage of their SPMs made them feel during their shifts. The SPMs which these interviewees used comprised of offensive PPE in the form of weapons (weighted knuckle gloves), legal tools (torch, metal items/stock), inoffensive PPE in the form of protective clothing (stab vests, protection materials woven into the jacket) and skills in the form of physical fitness (martial arts, gym). These interviewees described how their SPMs made them feel 'good' (Interviewee 4), 'very comfortable' (Interviewee 8), 'a bit better' (Interviewee 17), 'more confident' (Interviewee 15), 'more secure' (Interviewee 2), 'safer' (Interviewees 14 and 15) and 'a little bit more protected' (Interviewee 15). Based on these comments the impression created was that SPMs helped interviewees to reduce their worry about re-victimisation, which becomes evident in a comment from Interviewee 2: "I would not go to work now without my vest, without my torch (...) I personally would not be able to work now without [them], not at all. (...) it gives you a certain feeling of security, you know?", and Interviewee 8 reported:

I now feel more comfortable at work wearing the protective clothing that I do. (...) Without that investment for myself, I would have left a long time ago. I didn't feel safe after the incident and until I bought that vest I now feel much more confident going into most incidents.

In sum, the qualitative data suggests that RSGs make use of SPMs in order to maintain or regain their feeling of safety. This is consistent with the victimology literature that suggests victimisation often creates the desire in victims to regain autonomy and control by engaging in preventative behaviour (Dunn, 2011; Dinisman and Moroz, 2017). In addition, this finding is consistent with Hobbs, Hadfield, Lister and Winlow (2005) whose door staff sample felt the need to make use of strategies which ensured the maintenance of self-preservation in their extremely hostile work environment. However, based on what has been found in this research it must be assumed that

RSGs' overall objective for self-protection is not only the maintenance or increase of their own safety but also their loved ones' safety and to reassure their loved ones about RSGs' safety at work.

7.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter focused on RSGs' behavioural reactions to WV by exploring the types and the prevalence of their SPMs and the reasons as to why they make use of SPMs. It was identified that the majority of RSGs make use of proactive SPMs in the form of PPE, skills and tactics. However, others were found to use – or consider using – inactive SPMs, most commonly in the form of leaving the security industry, ignoring crime or antisocial behaviour at work in order to avoid trouble, changing to a less dangerous security job and 'Passing the Buck'. Further, the chapter identified that both proactive and inactive forms of self-protection are used because RSGs worry about their own well-being, their loved ones' well-being and because their loved ones worry about RSGs' well-being, therefore different types of SPMs helped to reassure RSGs or their loved ones. The next chapter assesses the results of the three results/discussion-chapters in light of the theories presented earlier in Chapter 3 with the aim of producing a theoretical model.

Chapter 8

Production of a Theoretical Model

8.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to produce a theoretical model which helps to better understand retail security guards' (RSGs) experiences of, and reactions to, workplace violence (WV) (e.g. Willig and Wheeler, 2016) by combining components of the theories presented in Chapter 3 with the empirical data collected in this study (Chapters 5 to 7). This chapter begins with an illustration of the three contexts that contribute to the development of the theoretical model and answers the three sub-research questions (Chapter 1). Subsequently, the final theoretical model is presented which shows how the three contexts are linked with each other.

8.2 Contributory Contexts

8.2.1 The Contexts that help to understand Retail Security

Guards' Emotional Reaction to Workplace Violence

To begin with, this study found that participants developed a variety of positive, neutral and negative emotions following WV victimisation. In order to better understand *why* participants developed different emotions, the results were viewed through the lens of cognitive appraisal theory (CAT). As a reminder, the main purpose of Lazarus' (1966) CAT is to explain differences in emotional states among different individuals who have experienced similar events. In that context, CAT assumes (1) that emotions are the result of cognitive appraisals of an event and (2) that these cognitive appraisals 'express a relation between *person* and *external environment*' (Matthews et al., 2002: 256). According to CAT, an event is appraised in a two-stage process before an emotion is produced. In the primary appraisal stage, individuals appraise whether an event has any meaning for their sense of self, goals or values, whereas in the secondary appraisal stage they evaluate the sufficiency of their coping resources

(Bippo and Young, 2012). Consequently, an event which is appraised as meaningful (primary appraisal stage) and exceeds an individual's coping resources (secondary appraisal stage) is believed to be emotionally more significant than an event which is appraised as meaningless (primary appraisal stage) and/or which can be coped with (secondary appraisal stage). As this research was about violence against retail security guards (RSGs), it was interpreted that the violent act (e.g. punch) constituted the 'event' according to CAT. The data revealed that the event 'violent act' had a meaning for participants' sense of self, goals and values (Bippo and Young, 2012) because it held the potential to cause them harm. In addition, as all accounts of the violent act were found to be dependent on an *external* factor (perpetrator), it was believed that this act was part of the *external environment*. Furthermore, participants gave insights into how they perceived the event. Here, the data showed that participants focused on their *own person* by conducting individual appraisals of what types of assault or injuries they considered as overpowering or rather bearable. Participants who gave the impression that they appraised an assault as overpowering were found to develop rather negative emotions whilst participants who appraised an assault as bearable developed rather neutral or even positive emotions. Thus, participants seemed to evaluate the sufficiency of their personal coping resources in relation to assaults which, according to CAT, is part of the secondary appraisal stage (Power and Dalgleish, 2007).

Hence, it is suggested that RSGs conduct two appraisals concerning an assault. Firstly, RSGs appraise whether the assault has any meaning for them which is always the case because it has the potential to harm them (primary appraisal stage). As assaults require the presence of a perpetrator, RSGs' focus is on the *external environment* at this stage. Secondly, RSGs appraise whether they can cope with the type of assault and the injuries received from the assault or not (secondary appraisal stage). RSGs who can cope with it consider the assault as emotionally less significant whereas RSGs who cannot cope with it consider it as emotionally more significant. At this stage, it is suggested that RSGs' coping resources are dependent on their *personal* perception of what type of assaults and what type of injuries are considered overpowering or rather bearable. Thus, in line with CAT, RSGs are believed to differ in their perceived level of emotional suffering caused by WV due to differences in appraising the type of assault

and the received injuries. In order to better outline the application of CAT in this work, its basic ideas are visualised in **Figure 4**.

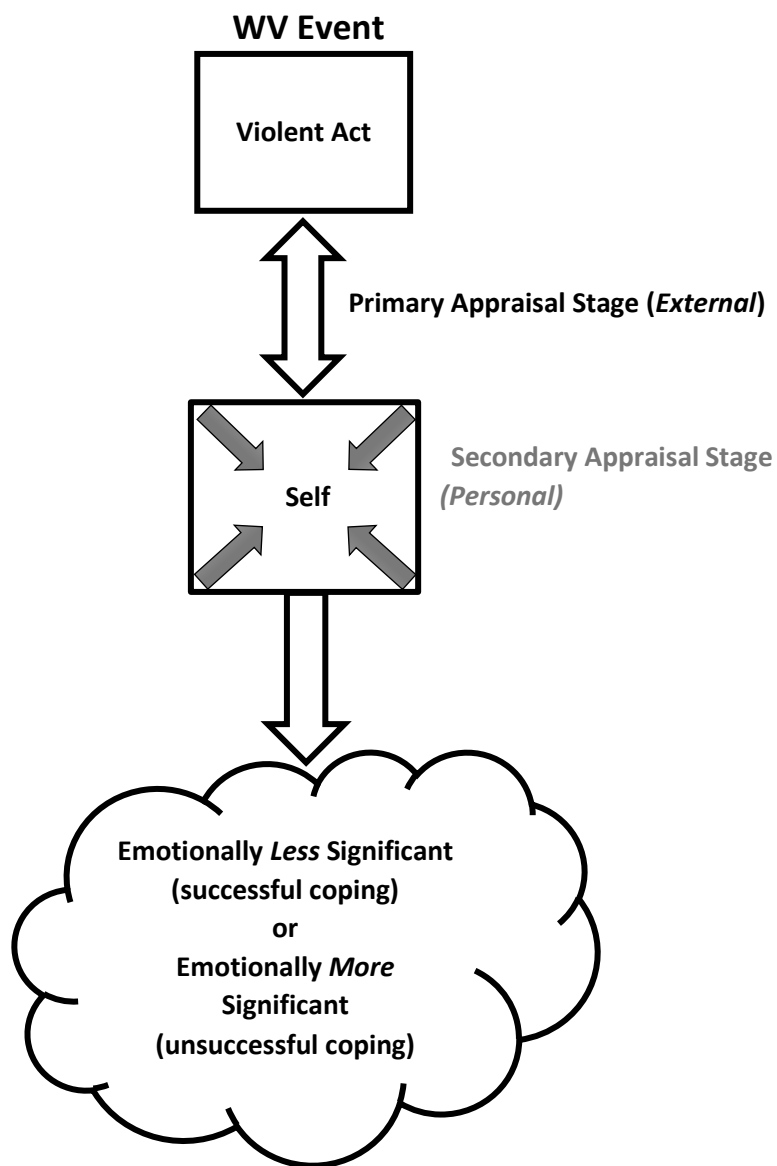


Figure 4. Appraisal Process according to Cognitive Appraisal Theory

Consequently, the data provided strong evidence for CAT showing that participants who experienced similar events (violent acts) developed different types of emotions (Matthews et al., 2002) due to their subjective appraisals and the personal meanings they ascribed to these events (Garcia-Prieto and Scherer, 2006). Notwithstanding, three observations were made which require further discussion. Firstly, CAT is not clear on what 'an event' comprises so it has had to be assumed that it focuses on the violent act (e.g. punch) only. However, the data revealed that a variety of CFs also had

meaning for participants as they too held the potential to influence the harm to them. Like the violent act, CFs were found to be dependent on *external* factors such as other individuals (e.g. customers) or physical items (e.g. equipment). This indicates that not only the violent act but also CFs are part of the primary appraisal stage. Furthermore, the data revealed that participants conducted different appraisals of CFs by drawing on their individual social backgrounds, and/or personal preferences, experiences, assumptions, understandings and expectations. Thus, again participants seemed to focus on their *own person* at this stage. Depending on how participants appraised CFs they developed various positive, neutral or negative emotions. Taken together, the data showed that participants did not only conduct an appraisal of the violent act but also of CFs in relation to their *own person* which resulted in the development of emotions, indicating that CFs are also part of the secondary appraisal stage. For these reasons, it is suggested that both the violent act *and* CFs are part of RSGs' emotional experience of WV events.

Secondly, when participants were exposed to unexpected violence (CF Facing the Unknown) the findings of this study did not align with what has been suggested by CAT. Indeed, participants still seemed to appraise this CF as meaningful because it also held the potential to influence the harm to them (primary appraisal stage). However, during the secondary appraisal stage it could be observed that some participants evaluated their coping resources (level of control over the dangerous situation) as *insufficient* but still developed a positive emotion (workplace edgework). This raises the question as to whether all differences in emotional development are attributable to differences in *cognitive* processes only. In that context, the literature around neuroscience, for example, strongly disagrees. According to neuroscientists, not only cognitive processes play a role in how humans experience events emotionally but also innate differences in personalities/characters (e.g. Tomova, Heinrichs and Lamm, 2018; Sperry, 2016; Farde, Plaven-Sigra, Borg and Cervenka, 2018). This might explain why some participants developed positive emotions (workplace edgework) following WV events even though these events exceeded their coping resources (no control over the dangerous situation). In addition, the data showed that some participants' coping resources had *increased* over time due to frequent exposure to violence (resilience)

which might explain the development of neutral emotions. Vice versa, it can be assumed that others' coping resources had *decreased* over time which could explain why some RSGs are able to cope with violence at the beginning of their career but leave their frontline position later on due to repeat WV exposure. For these reasons, it cannot be ruled out that there might have been more influencing factors involved than only cognitive processes which influenced participants' development of emotions. Based on this observation, the researcher has to agree with Watson and Spence (2005) who criticise CAT as being too rigid as also neurobiological (or other) differences might play a role in the development of emotions. Hence, it is suggested that influencing factors other than cognitive processes must also be considered when exploring RSGs' development of emotions following WV incidents.

Thirdly, CAT does not specify what 'emotionally less significant' and 'emotionally more significant' means. The data showed that participants expressed rather positive or neutral emotions concerning WV events when they gave the impression that they could cope with that experience. On the other side, participants expressed rather negative emotions when they reported difficulties in coping. Hence, it is suggested that RSGs develop predominantly positive or neutral emotions concerning the WV event if they are overall able to cope with the WV event (violent act and CFs) and develop predominantly negative emotions if they are, overall, unable to cope with the event. In order to better outline the modification of CAT, the aforementioned suggestions are visualised in **Figure 5** and highlighted in red:

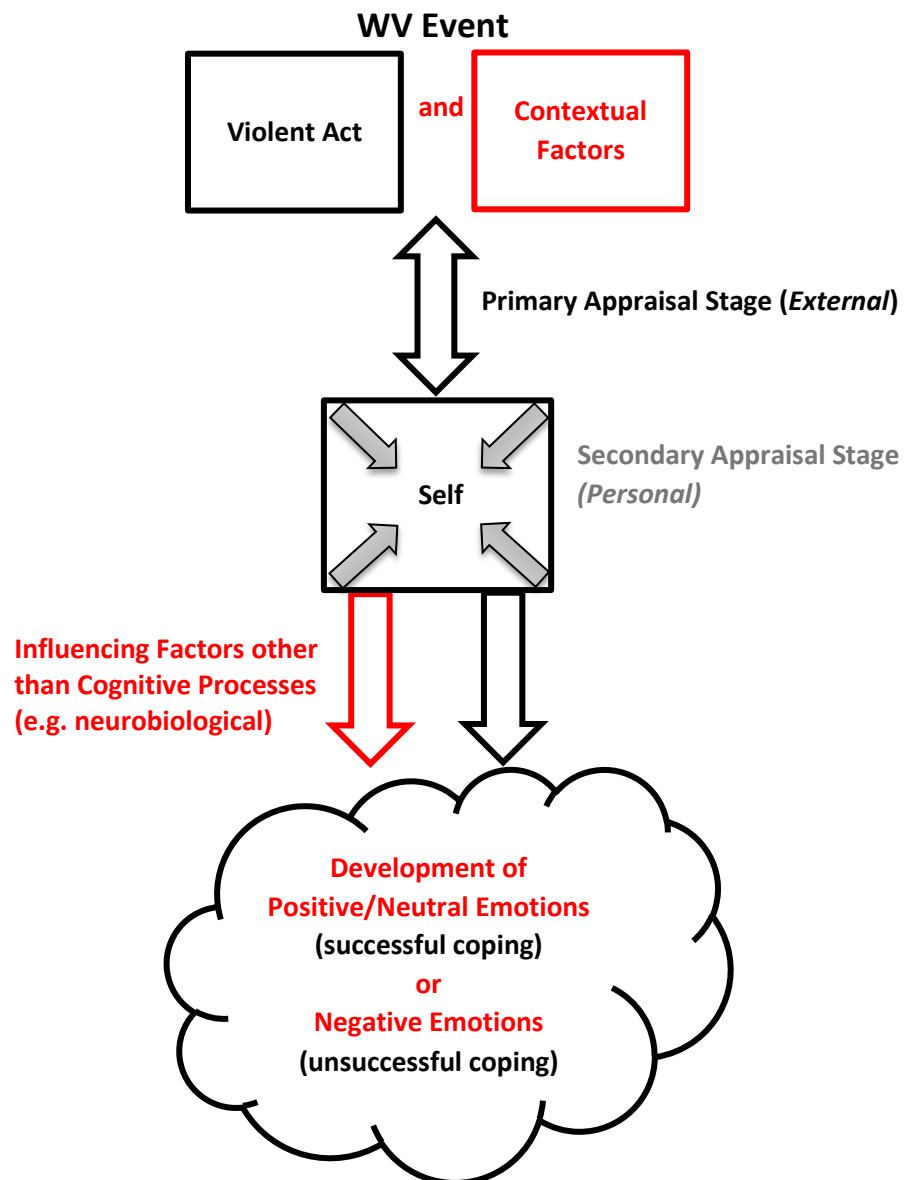


Figure 5. Appraisal Process identified in this Research

In conclusion, the aim of Chapter 5 was to gain information which would aid answering sub-research question number one, which asks: To what extent do cognitive appraisals shape the development of emotional responses in victimised RSGs? Viewing the data through the lens of CAT helped to understand that victimised RSGs appraise both the violent act and CFs (WV event) cognitively by considering their individual social background and/or personal preferences, experiences, assumptions, understandings and expectations. Depending on whether RSGs can cognitively cope with WV events or not, they develop a variety of positive, neutral or negative emotions. However, the data also revealed that not only cognitive processes seem to be involved in the development of emotions but also other influencing factors (e.g. neurobiological

elements or resilience). Thus, it can be concluded that cognitive appraisals shape the development of emotional responses in victimised RSGs to a large extent, but they are not the only contributing factor.

8.2.2 The Contexts that help to understand Retail Security

Guards' Occupational Reaction to Organisational

Emotional Support

Furthermore, in order to better understand *why* participants developed different occupational responses following the provision or lack of organisational emotional support (OES), the results were viewed through the lens of social exchange theory (SET) and organisational support theory (OST). As a brief reminder, broadly speaking SET assumes that something which has been received has to be returned in order to build up a trustful relationship between two individuals (Homans, 1958) whereas OST applies this social exchange rule to organisations and their employees. As SET is a substantial element of OST, this section refers to both theories as OST hereafter. The basic idea of OST is that employees *perceive* their organisation as supportive (POS) if they develop the subjective belief that their 'organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being' (Eisenberger et al., 1986: 501). Once employees develop that belief, they feel obliged to reciprocate the received support with higher levels of (affective) commitment in the form of increased loyalty, organisational identification and involvement (Lambert et al., 2015). This trade of social resources (support against commitment) is assumed to lead to the development (or maintenance) of a trustful relationship between employer and employee (Emerson, 1976). On the opposite side, the theory assumes that employees who believe that their employer does not care about their well-being *perceive* their organisation as *not* supportive (no POS). As a consequence, employees do not feel obliged to reciprocate anything to their organisation, resulting in lower levels of commitment and the prevention or destruction of a trustful relationship between employee and organisation.

This thesis defined a WV incident as a situation in which participants could expect support from both their security company and the retail client (hereafter referred to as 'companies'). The data showed that the degree to which participants subjectively believed that their companies valued their contributions and cared about their well-being (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002) evoked an emotional response in participants. When participants perceived their companies as supportive (POS), they were found to experience positive emotions whereas participants who perceived their companies as unsupportive (no POS) experienced negative emotions. On the one hand, those participants who expressed positive emotions as a result of POS were found to feel the desire and moral obligation to reciprocate the social resource (support) they had received after a WV incident by taking care of their companies' welfare which is consistent with previous research (e.g. Marique et al., 2012; Arshadi, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2015). Participants' reciprocation expressed itself in higher levels of loyalty and work motivation which also mirrors previous findings around OST (e.g. Wong, 2017; He and Brown, 2013).

In more detail, participants were found to *continue* their job by showing reduced intentions to terminate their contracts (e.g. Kalidass and Bahron, 2015) and reduced withdrawal behaviours (e.g. Krishnan and Mary, 2012). In addition, they were found to do a *better* job by helping out more in stores (e.g. Caesens et al., 2016) or having fewer days off (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1990). Moreover, as also identified in previous research (e.g. Zafirovski, 2005), it was identified that participants develop trust towards their organisations as they believed that they could rely on their employers if they were victimised in the future. This means that the development of a high-quality relationship between participants and their companies following the provision of support could be observed, as is described by OST (Kurtessis et al., 2015; S Malik and G Malik, 2015; Emerson, 1976).

Hence, it is suggested that RSGs who receive support (OES) from their companies develop the subjective belief that their companies value their contribution (physical defence of stock, staff and customers) and care about RSGs' emotional well-being (POS). Once RSGs develop that belief, they feel obliged to reciprocate the received

support to their companies in the form of increased levels of commitment. As a result, RSGs and their companies develop or maintain a trustful work relationship. In order to better outline the application of OST in a successful support situation following WV in this thesis, its basic ideas are visualised in **Figure 6**.

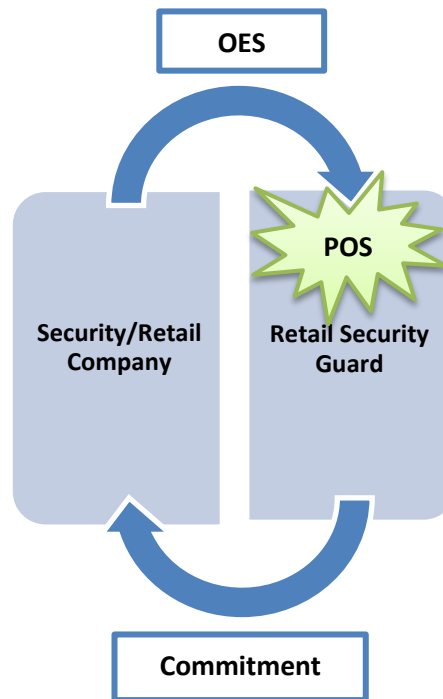


Figure 6. Successful Support Situation according to Organisational Support Theory

On the other hand, when participants experienced low levels of POS, they described feeling ‘like a number’ leading to the development of negative emotions which is in line with the aforementioned literature. This in turn was found to have a negative impact on their commitment. Most of these participants reported lower levels of loyalty and work motivation which expressed itself in job/store changes or the refusal to fulfil work tasks properly. In addition, some participants reported that a lack of POS prevented or destroyed the development of a trustful relationship with their employers. Following OST, it is suggested that the observed lack of commitment was a consequence of participants’ disappointment as they seemed to expect their companies to reciprocate their work effort with the provision of appropriate support. Not receiving appropriate support is believed to have broken the social exchange rule that something which has been received has to be returned (Cropanzano and Mitchell,

2005), leading to participants accusing their organisations of ingratitude and ultimately to the prevention or destruction of a trustful relationship as suggested by Zafirovski (2005).

Hence, in an unsuccessful support situation it is suggested that RSGs who do *not* receive support (no OES) from their companies do *not* develop the subjective belief that their companies value that they defended stock, staff and customers and that companies do *not* care about their emotional well-being (no POS). Once RSGs have developed that belief, they do *not* feel obliged to reciprocate anything to their companies which expresses itself in decreased levels of commitment. As a consequence, RSGs and their companies do *not* develop or maintain a trustful work relationship. In order to better outline the application of OST in an unsuccessful support situation following WV in this work, its basic ideas are visualised in **Figure 7**.



Figure 7. Unsuccessful Support Situation according to Organisational Support Theory

In sum, the data provided strong support for OST by showing that high levels of POS led to positive emotions and to the development of commitment in participants, whereas low levels of POS resulted in negative emotions and prevented or destroyed

participants' commitment. However, two observations were made which require further discussion. Firstly, the term 'organisation' appeared quite nebulous to the researcher so it felt necessary to disentangle the term in order to understand *whose actions* (support source) were responsible for whether participants developed POS or not and why. Here, it was discovered that for many participants it was of relevance that the support source originated from their own security company. The data also revealed that participants had OES experiences with all three organisational components (management, supervisors and co-workers) within companies so that the analysis supported the approach taken by Ahmed et al. (2012), Chou and Robert (2008) Cole et al. (2002) and Woo (2009) and simultaneously contradicted the one taken by Greenglass et al. (1997) and Woo and Chelladurai (2012) who suggest excluding employees' management as a support source when applying OST. However, some organisational components were of higher importance to participants than others. Support from supervisors (area managers) and co-workers (RSG colleagues) was of higher relevance for participants than support from management (HR department). As opposed to management, supervisors and co-workers were believed to be able to empathise better because they were assumed to have their own experiences with WV. Consequently, it is suggested that RSGs perceive a support source as supportive if the source is part of their own security company and able to empathise.

Secondly, the term 'support' (OES) appeared highly subjective so that it was felt necessary to disentangle that term as well in order to understand *what actions* (support action) made participants develop POS and why. It was observed that support actions were only perceived as supportive (POS) by participants when the action was considered as appropriate. The appropriateness of support was found to be characterised by not only the Type of OES but also by the Speed of OES, the Communication Style and the Duration of OES. Interestingly, it was also found that participants developed POS when appropriate support was merely offered. Consequently, it is suggested that RSGs perceive a support action only as supportive if they consider the Type of OES, the Speed of OES, the Communication Style and the Duration of OES as appropriate. Alternatively, RSGs are believed to perceive the

support action as supportive if appropriate support is merely offered. In order to better outline the modification of OST in a successful support situation in this work, these suggestions are visualised in **Figure 8** and highlighted in red:

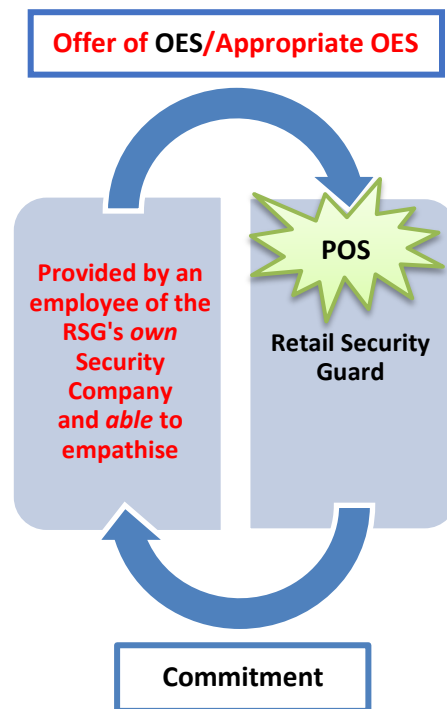


Figure 8. Successful Support Situation identified in this Research

On the other hand, it was observed that participants perceived a support source as unsupportive if the source was unable to empathise and often if the source was external to their own security company. Thus, it is suggested that RSGs do *not* perceive a support source as supportive if the source is external to their own security company and/or the source is unable to empathise. Furthermore, it was observed that not only a lack of support led to low levels of POS in participants. Not even being offered support, support actions which were considered as inappropriate and exposure to secondary victimisation were found to have the same effect. Thus, it is suggested that RSGs perceive a support situation as unsupportive if their companies do not offer or provide support, if RSGs consider the Type of OES, the Speed of OES, the Communication Style and the Duration of OES as inappropriate or if RSGs are exposed to secondary victimisation. In order to better outline the modification of OST in an

unsuccessful support situation in this thesis, these suggestions are visualised in **Figure 9** and highlighted in red:



Figure 9. Unsuccessful Support Situation identified in this Research

The aim of Chapter 6 was to gain information which aids in answering sub-research question number two, which asks: How do RSGs who are in need of OES experience (a lack of) support and what does this experience mean for their organisational commitment? Viewing the data through the lens of SET and OST helped to understand that RSGs consider (at least) the offer of appropriate OES as essential for their feeling of being valued (POS) whereas no offer of OES, a lack of OES, inappropriate OES or secondary victimisation make them feel worthless (no POS). Whilst POS elicits positive emotions in RSGs leading to high levels of commitment, no POS triggers negative emotions resulting in low levels of commitment. This suggests that the experience of (a lack of) OES following WV victimisation plays an essential role in RSGs' development of commitment they feel towards the organisations they are working for.

8.2.3 The Contexts that help to understand Participants'

Behavioural Reaction to Workplace Violence

Beyond that, in order to better understand *why* participants developed different types of security responses following their experience of WV, the results were viewed through the lens of Jackson and Gray's (2010) concept of functional and dysfunctional worry of crime (CFDWC). As a brief reminder, the concept challenges the conceptualisation of worry as an exclusively negative emotion by arguing that worry can also drive individuals to apply advantageous self-protection behaviours. Based on that notion, the concept aims to categorise individuals who consider their risk of future victimisation into three categories: (1) *functional worriers* who are worried about crime, take precautions that make them feel safer and judge their quality of life to be unaffected by either their worries or their precautions ('good' worry); (2) *dysfunctional worriers* who are worried about crime and have their quality of life reduced by either their worries, their precautions or both ('bad' worry); and (3) *unworried individuals* who are not worried about crime regardless of whether they take precautions or not or if they judge their quality of life to be affected or not.

Functional Worry

The data showed that the majority of participants applied some type of SPM in order to protect themselves from the risk of WV. These participants were found to be driven by their worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being). This worry was strongly related to the experience of CFs which were present during past WV incidents as they seemed to have influenced the occurrence or development of violent acts. Interestingly, this finding provides support for both Jackson and Gray's CFDWC *and* the critics of their concept for the following reason. Indeed, participants did experience a wide range of negative emotions (e.g. Reijntjes et al. 2011; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2010) when being exposed to violence and CFs. Thus, it could be argued that not only worry but also other negative emotions (e.g. embarrassment, anger) were the driving-factor for applying SPMs as argued by, for example, Lane et al. (2004) and Hartnagel and Templeton (2012). Notwithstanding this, a closer look at the participants' statements gave the impression that they *worried*

about experiencing such negative emotions again which motivated them to 'do something about it'. This, in turn, is in line with Jackson and Gray's CFDWC.

Moreover, the fact that all of those participants who were found to apply some form of SPM were still working in the security industry suggests that their quality of *work life* was unaffected by either their worries or their precautions. This suggests that all participants of this study who applied active or inactive (avoidance behaviours only) SPMs were functional worriers as their worries seemed to make them develop a 'defence against crime involving straightforward adaptations and behaviours', a problem-solving strategy that helped them to 'exert control over perceived risks' and encouraged them to prepare for threats at their workplaces (Gray et al., 2011: 78) helping them to maintain or regain their feeling of safety at work. This suggestion contrasts with the empirical research of Jackson and Gray (2010) and Gray et al. (2011) who found that the experience of crime makes victims withdraw. However, the findings of the current study are in line with those of Hopkins and Fox (2013) whose sample of crime victims also developed a form of self-protection strategy which did not seem to destroy the quality of their *work life*. Hence, it is suggested that RSGs who make use of proactive SPMs and/or inactive SPMs in the form of avoidance behaviours are *functional worriers*.

Dysfunctional Worry

Further, the suggestion that all participants in this study were functional worriers implies that all of their former RSG colleagues who had left the security industry due to the anticipation of violence were dysfunctional worriers. Like with functional worriers, it is believed that their worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being) informed dysfunctionally worried (ex-) RSGs' security response. However, in contrast to the functionally worried participants, it is conjectured that this group experienced an assault which made them worry to such an extent that they believed that leaving the security industry was the only way to maintain or regain their feeling of safety. Hence, it is believed that due to the worry about future WV, dysfunctionally worried RSGs did not see themselves as able to work in the industry any longer, meaning that both their worries and their precautions (withdrawal behaviour only)

reduced the quality of their *work life*. Consequently, it is suggested that RSGs who make use of inactive (withdrawal behaviours only) SPMs are *dysfunctional worriers*.

Unworried

Further, participants were identified who do not make use of any SPMs. These participants were allocated to the unworried group. As opposed to functionally worried participants and dysfunctionally worried RSGs, it is conjectured that this group already possessed skills (e.g. martial arts) which might have put them in a superior physical position to assailants in past WV incidents. It is speculated that past superiority made these participants assess the danger of future WV (or the risk of future injury) as lower in comparison to their co-participants who did not possess any protective skills. As a result, it is assumed that this group experienced overall positive or neutral emotions in relation to the WV incident, was not worried about future WV, never lost their feeling of safety at work and thus saw no need to use any SPMs in order to maintain or regain their feeling of safety. As the participants in this group are assumed to be unworried about future WV and evidently are still working in the security industry, their *work life* also seems to be unaffected. Thus, it is suggested that RSGs who do not make use of any SPMs are part of the *unworried* group. In order to better outline the application of the different worry-categories of the CFDWC in this work, its basic ideas are visualised in **Figure 10**.

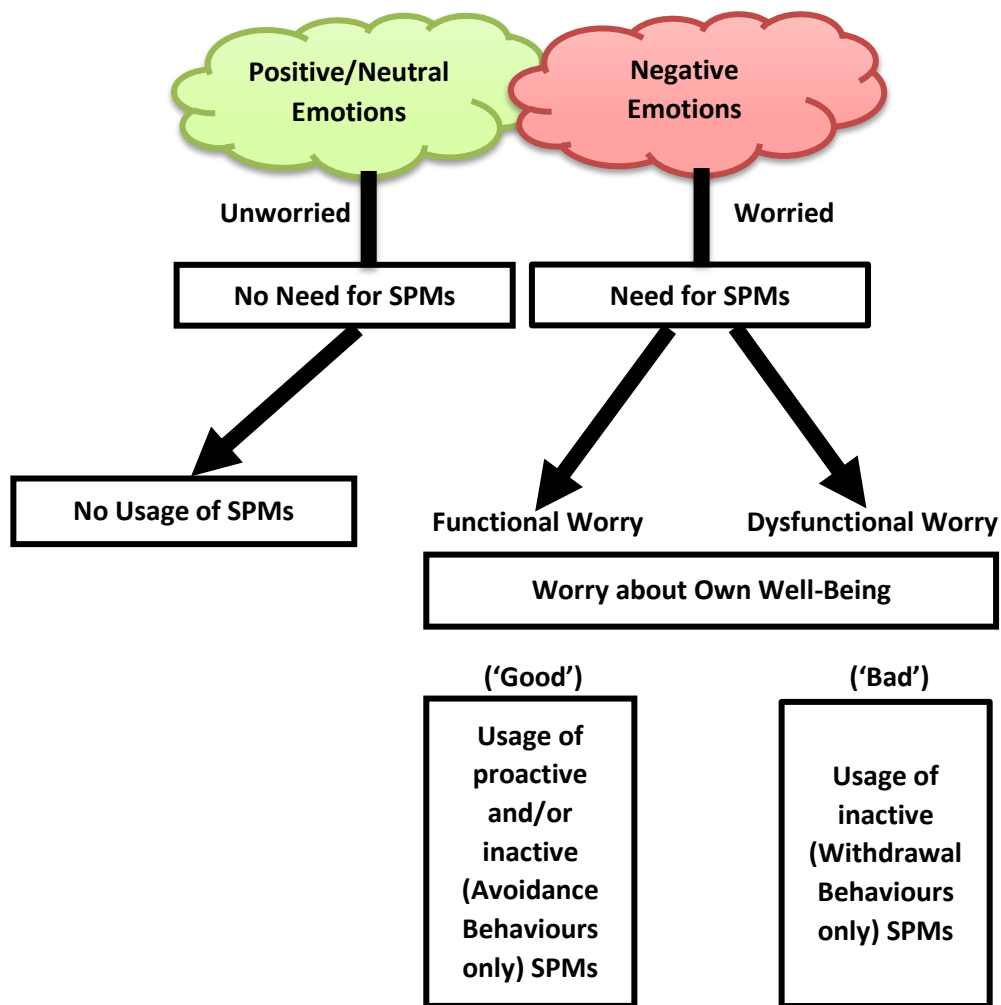


Figure 10. Categories of Worry according to the Concept of Functional and Dysfunctional Worry of Crime

Consequently, the data provided some support for Jackson and Gray's CFDWC because all three 'worry-groups' could be identified. However, three observations were made during the data analysis which require further discussion. Firstly, the CFDWC is not clear on *who or what* individuals worry about. As Jackson and Gray (2010: 8) write that worriers take (or do not take) measures which make 'them feel safer', it must be assumed that the worriers in their concept exclusively use SPMs because they worry about their *own* well-being. Notwithstanding, the data revealed that worry was not only directed at participants' *own* person and that it was not exclusively participants' worry about *themselves* which made them draw on SPMs. Rather, also participants' worry about their loved ones and their loved ones' worry about participants drove participants to use SPMs. This suggests that RSGs do not only make use of SPMs due to

worry about themselves but also because of the worry about their loved ones and/or because of their loved ones' worry about RSGs.

Secondly, according to Jackson and Gray (2010: 2), functional worry is a 'good thing' as it motivates protective activity against future harm and promotes beneficial action whereas dysfunctional worry is a 'bad thing' because it drives individuals to withdraw or disengage from normal routine activities (Hopkins and Fox, 2013). However, the data revealed that some of the worried participants use 'good' SPMs that made them feel safer and which did not affect their work life (*functional worriers*), but at the same time endangered their employment and their companies' reputations. Thus, their SPMs could likewise be considered as 'bad' (e.g. offensive PPE). In turn, based on what the data suggests, it could be argued that leaving the security industry, and thus making use of a 'bad' (*dysfunctional*) SPM, could be considered as 'good' (*functional*) for both RSGs and their companies if RSGs are unable to fulfil their work tasks anymore following a WV incident. Thus, some worried RSGs who use 'bad' SPMs (*dysfunctional worriers*) are believed to have improved instead of reduced the quality of their *work life*. Consequently, it is suggested that there exist some functional and dysfunctional SPMs which can be 'good' and 'bad' at the same time.

Thirdly, the CFDWC offers three categories of worry namely *functional*, *dysfunctional* and no worry (*unworried*). However, the data revealed a high number of participants who do not use any SPMs as well as a range of worries which inhibited the application of SPMs. For that reason, it is believed that there might a fourth category which has not been covered by the CFDWC so far. This fourth category is named '*Inhibited Worry*'. Like the 'unworried group', inhibited worriers are assumed to also not use any SPMs. Like functional and dysfunctional worriers, it is suggested that members of this group do worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being), worry about their loved ones and/or that their loved ones worry about them. However, in contrast to the aforementioned groups, inhibited worriers are believed to worry too strongly about legal/occupational consequences, harm, escalation, effectiveness and/or about being perceived as unmanly so that they refrain from using active or inactive (avoidance behaviours only) SPMs but at the same time they do not worry

enough to apply inactive SPMs in the form of withdrawal behaviours. As a consequence, they continue working in exactly the same position they are in without using any type of SPM. If that was the case, this group might help to provide a further explanation as to why many participants in this study did not use any SPMs. Hence, it is suggested that some RSGs who do not make use of any SPMs might fall under a fourth category (*inhibited worriers*). This suggestion implies that worry can drive RSGs to make use but also to *not* make use of SPMs. In order to better outline the modification of the CFDWC in this thesis, these suggestions are visualised in **Figure 11** and highlighted in red:

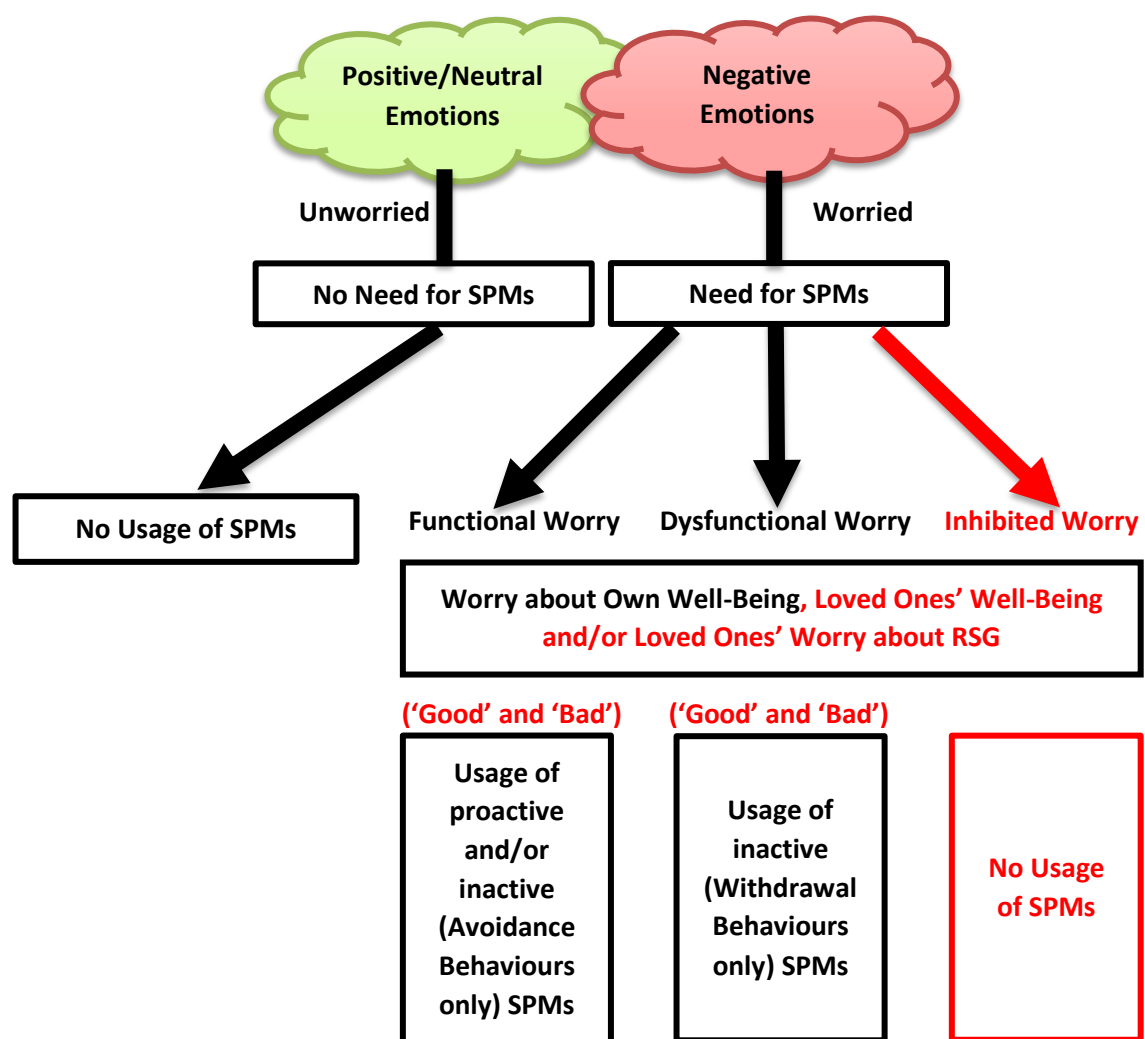


Figure 11. Categories of Worry identified in this Research

In conclusion, the aim of Chapter 7 was to gain information which assists with answering sub-research question number three, which asks: How does worry attributable to WV incidents shape the development of functional and dysfunctional

security responses in RSGs? Viewing the data through the lens of CFDWC helped to understand that RSGs' worry was directed at various sources, can lead to 'good', 'bad' but also to 'good *and* bad' SPMs, has facilitating but also inhibiting power, and, lastly, that it can also drive RSGs to *not* make use of any SPMs at all. Thus, worry was found to be a multi-faceted construct of which all facets play a big part in RSGs' decision to make use of both functional and dysfunctional SPMs in order to protect themselves from future WV. For that reason, it is concluded that worry attributable to WV incidents shapes the development of functional and dysfunctional security responses to a large extent.

8.3 Understanding Retail Security Guards' Experiences of, and Reactions to, Workplace Violence

Based on these contributory contexts, a theoretical model could be produced which helps to understand RSGs' emotional reaction to WV, occupational reaction to OES and behavioural reaction to WV. However, due to a lack of female participants in the qualitative part of the fieldwork it has to be emphasised that the model refers to *male* RSGs only. To begin with, the theoretical model takes effect in cases where RSGs are exposed to a WV event. Even though the violent act is seen as the starting point in RSGs' WV experience, this model suggests that the violent act is only one out of many factors contributing to the overall WV experience. Thus, a WV event is believed to consist of two *external* components: the violent act (e.g. the punch or kick) and CFs which are triggered by the violent act. It is conjectured that RSGs conduct two appraisals concerning an assault. In the primary appraisal stage, RSGs appraise both the violent act and CFs as meaningful because both have the potential to harm or at least influence the harm to them. In the secondary appraisal stage, it is suggested that RSGs appraise the sufficiency of their *personal* coping resources in relation to whether they can cope with the type of assault and the received injuries as well as with the CFs they are exposed to. These CFs include the Type of Perpetrator, Customers Reactions, Police Response, Equipment, Manpower and Staff Reactions. It is further suggested that RSGs draw on their individual tolerance levels, socialisation, understandings,

preferences, experiences, assumptions and expectations when appraising the relevance of the violent act and CFs.

RSGs who appraise their coping resources as sufficient are believed to develop predominantly positive or neutral emotions concerning the WV event whereas RSGs who appraise their coping resources as insufficient develop predominantly negative emotions. However, cognitive processes are believed to constitute only one element out of many, so other influencing factors (e.g. neurobiological elements or resilience) must be considered in the development of RSGs' emotions in relation to the WV event (e.g. Facing the Unknown).

The model further suggests that RSGs who developed predominantly positive or neutral emotions do not feel the need for organisational support whilst RSGs who developed predominantly negative emotions do feel the need for support. Those RSGs who do not feel the need for support are not interested in receiving OES, are not offended if companies do not offer or provide OES and consequently maintain their level of commitment even if they have not been offered or provided with appropriate OES. Those RSGs who do feel the need for support can be sub-divided into two groups: (1) RSGs who are offered or provided with appropriate OES and (2) RSGs who are not.

RSGs in group 1 are interested in receiving OES and are offered or provided with appropriate OES from an appropriate support source who is part of their own security company and able to empathise. This makes this group feel valued and results in the development of high levels of organisational commitment and the development or maintenance of a trustful work relationship between themselves and their security company. RSGs in group 2, on the other hand, are also interested in receiving OES but are not offered or provided with appropriate OES or are even exposed to secondary victimisation from either an appropriate support source or an inappropriate support source who is external to RSGs' security company and/or who is unable to empathise. This makes this group feel worthless and results in the development of low levels of organisational commitment and the prevention or destruction of a trustful work relationship between themselves and their security company.

Furthermore, the model conjectures that RSGs who developed predominantly positive or neutral emotions do not feel the need for SPMs whilst RSGs who developed predominantly negative emotions do feel the need for SPMs. Those RSGs who do not feel the need for SPMs are *unworried* about future WV and consequently do not make use of any SPMs. On the contrary, those RSGs who do feel the need for SPMs are driven by their worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (own well-being), their worry about their loved ones' well-being and/or by their loved ones' worry about RSGs. However, their decision-making process concerning SPMs can be inhibited by their worry about legal/occupational consequences, harm, escalation, effectiveness and/or about being perceived as unmanly. Depending on RSGs' individually perceived intensities of different types of worry ('weighing of worries'), RSGs' behavioural response falls in one of the three groups: (1) *functionally worried* RSGs who apply proactive and inactive (avoidance behaviours only) SPMs; (2) *dysfunctionally worried* RSGs who apply inactive (withdrawal behaviours only) SPMs; and (3) *inhibited worried* RSGs who do not apply any SPMs.

Lastly, the model has to be checked against the philosophical foundations of this thesis (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1) to ensure that it is theoretically sound. Following the relativist ontological approach taken in this work, the model is theoretically sound if it accepts the possibility of multiple interpretations of reality (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). This model accepts that RSGs interpret violent acts and CFs (external components), their individual coping resources (own person), the appropriateness or inappropriateness of support sources and support actions as well as the suitability of certain SPMs individually. Hence, this model is in line with the relativist ontological stance of this thesis.

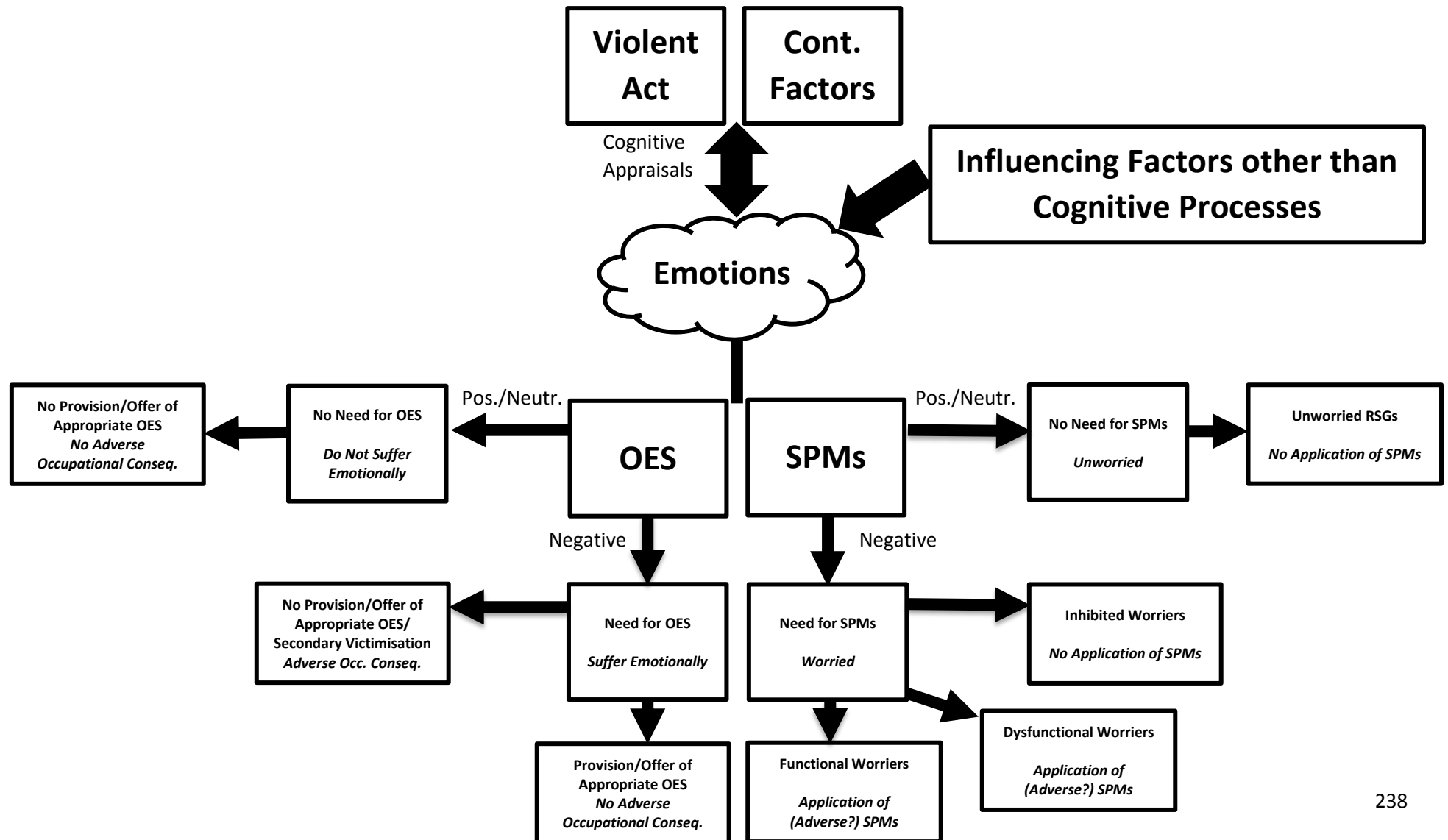
Furthermore, according to the constructivist epistemological approach taken in this work, the model is theoretically sound if it accepts that knowledge is a socially and culturally constructed human product (Ernest, 1999), that meanings are constructed by social actors when interacting with others and with the environment they live in (Amineh and Asl, 2015; Crotty, 1998) and that meanings and experiences are socially produced and reproduced (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This model accepts that RSGs'

knowledge is influenced by their social and cultural backgrounds (e.g. perception of victimisation, acceptance of vulnerability), that meanings are constructed by RSGs when interacting with, for example, perpetrators, customers or support sources in their particular work environment (retail store) and that the meanings of these experiences can be altered over time. Thus, the model is also in accordance with the epistemological stance of this thesis. Conclusively, as this theoretical model was found to comply with the philosophical foundations of this thesis it can be considered theoretically sound. For a better understanding, the produced theoretical model is visualised in **Figure 12**.

8.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter illustrated the three contexts that contributed to the production of a theoretical model which helps to better understand RSGs' experiences of, and reactions to, WV. The next and final chapter discusses the implications of this thesis for current research, theory, policy as well as future research and answers the main research questions of this study.

Figure 12. Visualisation of the Produced Theoretical Model



Chapter 9

Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

This final chapter outlines some of the study's headline findings. The chapter begins with a presentation of the academic contributions of the research and continues with the recommendations for future practice. Afterwards, the recommendations for future research are addressed before this thesis ends with some concluding thoughts and an answer to the main research questions.

9.2 Academic Contribution of the Research

In this section, the academic contributions of the research are presented with respect to retail security guards' (RSGs) emotional responses to workplace violence (WV), the role of organisational emotional support (OES) for both RSGs and their security companies as well as the relevance of self-protection measures (SPMs) for RSGs.

- ***Both the violent act and contextual factors (CFs) shape RSGs' emotional responses to WV:***

This study began with an exploration of RSGs' experience of, and emotional reaction to, WV. The aim of this exploration was to investigate the role of contextual factors (CFs) accompanying the violent act in order to identify their perceived impact on RSGs' emotional well-being. To better examine which emotions were triggered by the violent act and which ones by CFs, it was decided to disentangle the WV event. So far, the WV literature has only applied such a multi-dimensional approach to the police (De Puy, et al., 2015; Page and Jacobs, 2011). Consequently, this study builds upon the research gaps identified by Paese et al. (2014) who stressed that it is important to apply this approach to the SG profession. This study found that the vast majority of violent acts are perceived negatively by RSGs but also that incidents often elicit neutral and

sometimes even positive emotions. However, although the data initially suggested that those RSGs who experience neutral emotions have developed resilience against violence throughout their security career, it was uncovered that many of these RSGs merely *pretend* to have become resilient in order to do their masculine role expectations justice. Particularly the discovery of positive emotions is of high importance as it indicates that many RSGs are 'workplace edgeworkers' who enjoy the excitement attached to dangerous situations. To date, this phenomenon has never been explored in the retail security industry. By gaining more knowledge on RSGs' emotional responses to violent acts, this study builds upon the gap identified by Porter et al. (2015) because little research has been conducted on the consequences of physical WV on SGs' emotional well-being (Ahmad and Mazlan, 2013; Leino et al., 2011). In addition, this study investigated seven CFs, most of which originated from Symonds' (1970) categorisation of work stressors within the police force. Overall, it was found that not only the violent act but also uncertainty about the development of dangerous/violent situations, different types of perpetrators, customer reactions, police response, availability and functionality of work equipment as well as backup from RSG colleagues and retail staff shape RSGs' emotions during WV incidents. This is an important finding as Symonds' (1970) categories were extensively used to explore police officers' emotional well-being (Houdmont et al., 2012; Sagar et al., 2014) but it is the first time that his concept of occupational stressors has been applied to workers in the (retail) security industry. Overall, the findings on CFs in this study build upon a significant amount of WV research which claims to have found a direct link between violence and victims' emotional well-being because these studies have overlooked the influence of workplace-specific contextual factors.

In order to better understand RSGs' emotional reaction to WV incidents, this study made use of cognitive appraisal theory (CAT) which aims to explain differences in individuals' emotional development with differences in their appraisals of a situation. It was shown that RSGs who experienced similar events (WV) developed different types of emotions due to their subjective appraisals and personal meanings they ascribed to these events (Garcia-Prieto and Scherer, 2006). Even though CAT has often been applied to the police force (e.g. Esteves and Gomes, 2013; Colwell et al., 2011;

Paulsen, 2008; Tong et al., 2007) no studies could be identified which made use of this theory in relation to SGs and RSGs in particular. Thus, by applying CAT to a different occupational setting than previous research and by additionally producing further evidence in that new setting, this thesis makes a valuable contribution to the extant theoretical literature around CAT. In addition, applying CAT to the retail security industry helped to refine the theory in three ways. Firstly, this research found that both the violent act *and* CFs are part of RSGs' appraisal process which suggests that the term 'event' in CAT is a multi-dimensional construct. Secondly, the data of this study suggests that there might be more influencing factors than only cognitive processes shaping individuals' development of emotions (e.g. neurobiological factors). This finding challenges the fundamental idea of CAT which is that all differences in emotional development are attributable to differences in *cognitive* processes only. Thirdly, this study identified that individuals develop predominantly positive or neutral emotions if they are able to cope with an event and develop predominantly negative emotions if they are unable to cope with an event. This helps to specify the nebulous terms 'emotionally *more* or emotionally *less* significant' used in CAT when describing emotional outcomes.

- ***RSGs want support from their security company:***

Furthermore, this study identified that the majority of RSGs (75.6%, n=343) want to be supported after WV victimisation and that almost all of these RSGs (97.7%, n=335) want to receive support from their workplace. When exploring 'the workplace' closer it was found that the vast majority of RSGs (92%, n=296) want their security company to be involved in the support process and most (65.6%, n=211) even want to receive support from their security company only. This finding is of high relevance as it shows the importance of security companies for RSGs in the support process. For that reason, many RSGs see their area manager (AM) as their most important point of contact after WV victimisation because AMs are perceived as a representative of the employing security company.

- ***Supporting RSGs is beneficial for security companies:***

In addition, this study also explored RSGs' perception of, and occupational reaction to, OES. The aim of this examination was to explore the perceived effects of (a lack of) OES on victimised RSGs who are in need of support in order to comprehend its importance for their organisational commitment. By observing the processes of a support situation involving security personnel, this study builds upon the research gap identified by Poisat et al. (2014) and De Puy et al. (2015) because there was a paucity of research on the effects of OES on victimised SGs (Nalla and Cobbina, 2016; Leino et al., 2011) and the findings that had been conducted to date were rather inconsistent. In order to better understand RSGs' perception of, and occupational reaction to, OES, this study made use of social exchange theory (SET) and organisational support theory (OST) (both theories referred to as OST from here on) which aim to explain the social exchange processes between employer and employee in a support situation and its effects on employees' development of organisational commitment. It was identified that once RSGs consider their security company's support source and support action as appropriate, they develop the feeling of being valued. This in turn was found to create positive emotions, to enhance the trust RSGs feel towards their security company and to result in higher levels of commitment which expressed itself in both increased organisational loyalty and work motivation. Interestingly, not only the actual provision but the mere offer of support could lead to such positive emotional and occupational responses in RSGs. On the other hand, if these requirements were not observed, RSGs developed feelings of worthlessness which in turn created negative emotions towards the security company, prevented or destroyed the trust towards the company and led to lower levels of commitment resulting in decreased organisational loyalty and work motivation. Additionally, no support (ignorance or relativisation) as well as secondary victimisation (e.g. blaming) had the same negative effect on RSGs.

Even though OST has been extensively applied to a variety of professions, this theory has received only minimal scholarly attention in protective service occupations such as the police (Boateng, 2014) and the author is not aware that OST has ever been applied to the (retail) security industry. Thus, by applying OST to a different occupational setting than the police and by additionally producing further evidence in that new

setting, this thesis makes a valuable contribution to the existing theoretical literature around OST. Furthermore, this work builds upon the gap identified by Yun et al. (2015) and S Malik and G Malik (2015) as it explored the development of organisational commitment through a qualitative lens which helped to produce knowledge on *why* employees in security settings prefer certain support sources or support actions above others. In addition, applying OST to employees in the retail security industry helped to refine the theory in two ways. Firstly, this research revealed that not all organisational support sources are equally important for employees' development of perceived organisational support (POS) because RSGs were found to choose their AMs and/or RSG colleagues above their security companies' HR departments. Secondly, this study showed that 'support' is a multi-layered concept as it was found that not only the type of support but also the speed of support, the communication style and the duration of support need to match employees' expectations for them to develop POS. In sum, by identifying the requirements that are important in a support source and support action in order to evoke POS in RSGs, this study makes a valuable contribution to research on the antecedents of POS in OST.

- ***RSGs compensate for feeling unsafe at work with SPMs:***

Moreover, this study indicates a very high WV rate within the sample as more than half (52.7%, n=257) of the respondents had experienced physical violence at some point in their career. Beyond that, it was found that more than three-quarters (79.5%, n=202) of these respondents had a WV experience within the year prior to the start of the research (2015/2016). These findings contribute to the extant WV literature as to date little research has focused on WV victimisation in security guards (SGs) compared to other risk occupations (Leino, 2013; Vanheule et al., 2008; De Boer et al., 2002) and particularly in SGs within the retail security industry (Porter et al., 2015). In addition, it was shown that three-quarters of participants (74.8%, n=190) who were victimised in 2015/2016 were assaulted without a weapon or object and/or more than a quarter (28%, n=71) with a weapon or object. Many of the interviewees' accounts showed that unarmed assaults were so intense that they held the clear potential for serious injury (e.g. strangling). By gaining more knowledge on the types of violence against RSGs this study builds upon the gap identified by Porter et al. (2015). Moreover, it was found

that almost two out of three RSGs (60.6%, n=149) were injured following a WV incident and that every fifth injury was serious (22.8%, n=34). This discovery helped to close a further research gap as little was known about the effects of WV on SGs' physical health compared to other occupations (Ahmad and Mazlan, 2013; Button, 2007).

Considering these alarming findings, exploring RSGs' behavioural reaction to WV appeared to be a reasonable undertaking. The aim of this exploration was to examine the usage of different types of SPMs in order to understand RSGs' emotional driving-factors for these precautions. It was shown that the majority of RSGs (70%, n=295) take measures to protect themselves from the risk of WV by making use of a variety of SPMs such as weapons, legal tools (with the intention to misuse them as weapons), protective clothing, alarm devices, bodycams, by relying on their skill-set and/or using tactics but also by ignoring crime at work, delegating the responsibility to others, (thinking about) changing to a less dangerous security job or by (thinking about) leaving the security industry. By investigating the extent of RSGs' usage of proactive and inactive SPMs as well as RSGs' motivations for their WV-related SPMs, this study builds upon the gaps identified by Porter et al. (2015) as little was known about the extent SGs, and RSGs in particular, make use of offensive weapons or security responses other than physical protection devices for self-protection purposes at work. Also, the findings on inactive SPMs make a valuable contribution to the WV literature as previous research mostly overlooked (the risk of) WV victimisation as a motivational factor to leave the (retail) security industry. Furthermore, this study found that differences in RSGs' self-protection behaviour are due to differences in their types of worries, of which some facilitate the application of SPMs whereas others inhibit their application. It is assumed that inhibiting worries are also the reason why some RSGs do not make use of any SPMs. By investigating the emotional driving-factors for RSGs' self-protection behaviour, this study closes a further research gap as nothing was known about *why* SGs make use of SPMs, *why* they choose some SPMs above others and to what extent the usage of SPMs is attributable to WV experiences and the fear of repeat victimisation (Schreck et al., 2018; Asencio et al., 2014). In sum, the fact that one in two RSGs falls victim to WV and that most RSGs feel the need to undertake their

own SPMs against WV indicates that the protection measures provided by security and retail companies do not suffice in creating a feeling of safety at RSGs' workplaces.

In order to better understand RSGs' behavioural reaction to WV, this study made use of the concept of functional and dysfunctional worry of crime (CFDWC) which categorises individuals who consider their risk of future victimisation into three groups: functional worriers, dysfunctional worriers and unworried individuals. This study identified functionally worried, dysfunctionally worried and unworried RSGs and thus provides further support for the CFDWC. To date, only a few studies have made use of the CFDWC and none were found using this concept to categorise the worries of workers in the (retail) security industry. In addition, aside from Hopkins and Fox (2013), the concept has been applied exclusively to community settings. Thus, by applying the CFDWC to a different occupational setting than previous research and by additionally producing further evidence in that new setting, this thesis does not only make a valuable contribution to the theoretical literature around individuals' behavioural reactions to worry of crime but also to the extant theoretical literature around the CFDWC. Additionally, applying the CFDWC to RSGs refined the concept in three ways. Firstly, the findings of this study suggest that individuals who consider the risk of future victimisation do not only make use of SPMs because of the worry about themselves but due to the worry about their loved ones or to reduce their loved ones' worry. Secondly, this research found that SPMs cannot always be strictly divided into 'good' and 'bad'; rather, there exist some functional and dysfunctional SPMs (e.g. weapons) which can be 'good' (potentially effective in overpowering perpetrator) *and* 'bad' (potentially dangerous for victims themselves and likely to cause them legal problems) for crime victims at the same time. Thirdly, this study indicates that worry can drive crime victims to apply but also to *not* apply SPMs because some participants were identified whose worry inhibited the usage of certain SPMs. Overall, by further analysing the behavioural processes involved in the construction of emotional responses to crime and how they are mobilised and expressed, this study builds upon the gap identified by Gray et al. (2011) and Hopkins and Fox (2013).

9.3 Recommendations for Future Practice

The next section presents the recommendations for future practices within the retail security industry concerning the protection of RSGs and the support provided to them.

- ***Security and retail companies should provide RSGs with training, equipment and manpower in order to prevent RSGs from making use of undesirable SPMs:***

This study was able to gain many insights which are of high relevance for future practice. To begin with, this research identified a very high rate of armed and unarmed assaults within the retail security industry resulting in a high number of injuries. This suggests that the issue of WV against RSGs deserves attention from both researchers and decision-makers in policy and industry. As already stressed by Porter et al. in 2015, the implementation of a national database is recommended, which might not only help to better monitor WV victimisation rates against RSG staff but also to measure the effectiveness of WV countermeasures which might be implemented in the future. Additionally, the high rate of assaults and injuries suggests that the current measures taken by security and retail companies do not suffice to protect RSGs from physical harm. This is problematic as this study found that worry about future victimisation can be a strong emotional driving-factor for RSGs to make use of their own SPMs. However, some of the identified SPMs which were used by the RSGs in this research appear to be less desirable than others because they are likely to cause harm (e.g. weapons), produce legal difficulties, have a negative impact on companies' reputation and/or lead to a loss of the employee (e.g. leaving the security industry) which is connected to financial loss for companies. For these reasons, decision-makers in the retail security industry are urged to implement official protection measures for RSGs which do not only increase their feeling of safety but also their actual safety at work by simultaneously decreasing RSGs' urge to make use of less desirable SPMs. In that context, recommendations are made in relation to training, equipment and manpower.

Training

The current training RSGs receive lasts 28 hours and mainly comprises awareness training (SIA, 2015b). However, according to the findings in this research, RSGs are exposed to WV as often as their colleagues in other areas of the security industry. This indicates that the training RSGs receive does not seem to suffice, something that has already been stressed by McDonnell, Gould, Adams, Sallis and Anker (2014). Thus, as RSGs can be exposed to similar risks like door staff (Liempt and Aalst, 2015; Hobbs et al., 2002; Lister et al., 2000; Winlow et al., 2001), it is argued that not only door staff (SIA, 2018b) but also RSGs are in need of *regular* and *practicable* physical intervention training and behavioural conflict management training, echoing recent recommendations made by Porter et al. (2015), Sweet (2017) and Button (2007). These types of training might not only help to reduce the number of assaults against RSGs (behavioural conflict management training) but may also lower the number of injuries for both RSGs and perpetrators equally (physical intervention training) (Porter et al., 2015). In more detail, based on suggestions made by Zarola and Leather (2006), it is recommended that behavioural conflict management training commences by helping RSGs to understand the origins and the legal context of WV. This should elaborate on what counts as WV (definition), what facilitates violence (risk factors), how warning signs of escalations can be spotted and what is allowed in order to protect oneself from physical assault at work (reasonable force). Providing RSGs with such theoretical knowledge should help them to be confident in their actions and in the applicable law which is fundamental when approaching potentially violent persons (McMahon, 2014). This should be followed by training in non-physical management of violence, including diffusion and de-escalation methods, verbal communication skills and non-verbal skills with the aim of teaching RSGs strategies which help them to avert acts of violence. With regard to physical intervention training, RSGs should be trained in breakaway, control and restraint techniques in order to prepare them for worst-case scenarios. Such techniques should enable them to effectively and proportionately stop physically aggressive perpetrators until the arrival of the police. However, in order to be practicable, both types of training must be tailored around the specific needs of RSGs' particular work environment (Nater, 2010; Hobbs et al., 2002), which is why it is recommended to choose instructors who have work experience within the retail

security industry. Also, the findings in this study suggest that not all RSG backup is seen as helpful by RSGs. For that reason, consistency in training is required so that there is a clear understanding amongst RSGs of what approach must be taken when assisting RSG colleagues in need. A unified tactical training programme where RSGs are taught how to intervene in a team situation might help to overcome this problem.

The data further suggests that many RSGs prefer to receive physical backup from retail staff in WV situations. However, such backup is related to practical and legal difficulties. Firstly, not all retail staff are physically able to intervene and secondly, retail staff cannot and should not be urged to risk their physical health as it is RSGs' legal obligation to protect the client from harm instead of increasing the danger for retail staff by involving them in a physical confrontation. Still, it is believed that retail staff are able to assist RSGs in WV situations without getting physically involved. Retail staff could be trained to better assess dangerous situations and to develop a feeling for when police presence is required, which might give them the confidence to contact the police autonomously. This might help to decrease the danger for RSGs' physical well-being as early emergency calls would reduce the waiting-period between assault and police arrival. Moreover, observing the incident and serving as a witness of the assault might also help to improve RSGs' emotional well-being because this form of assistance might save RSGs from potential accusations and judicial errors in the aftermath. When it comes to the protection of RSGs' emotional well-being, it has to be accepted that some of the explored CFs which are present during WV situations are out of companies' control and thus cannot be predicted or easily influenced. Still, RSGs could be prepared mentally for unexpected assaults (CF Facing the Unknown), for the encounter with perpetrators who are out of their comfort zone (CF Type of Perpetrator), for undesirable customer behaviours (CF Customer Reactions) and disappointing police behaviours (CF Police Response). Addressing these CFs already in a training environment might help to reduce the negative impact of these CFs on RSGs' emotional well-being.

Equipment

Furthermore, companies are advised to particularly consider the purchase of three types of equipment when making security decisions. Firstly, communication devices are of high importance because they are likely to speed up police and/or RSG colleague backup. Being directly connected to the police or RSG colleagues from surrounding stores might make up for a lack of manpower in one's own store and enhance RSGs' protection without employing a second RSG on the premise. However, the purchase of communication devices only makes sense if RSG personnel and their communication counterpart are properly trained in handling this type of equipment and if the communication counterpart is either able to personally provide quick backup or is at least able to forward the information to individuals who can. Secondly, providing RSGs with protective clothing such as stab vests might not only help to thwart knife attacks but also to lessen the impact of unarmed assaults such as punches and kicks. Certainly, such equipment is unlikely to reduce the number of assaults against retail security staff but may help to at least reduce the high number of injuries which have been discussed above. Indeed, protective gear can be costly but security companies could purchase small amounts in different sizes and lend them to their on-duty RSG staff. However, as visible protection gear might put customers off (Porter et al., 2015) and consequently conflict with retail companies' interest, designs should be chosen which are worn under clothing and thus are invisible and discreet. Thirdly, the data in this study also suggests that visual recording equipment such as closed-circuit television cameras (CCTV) or bodycams can help to exonerate RSGs. The data indicates that these items can have a deterrence effect on some aggressors which is why it is suggested that such equipment might help reduce the number of assaults. Beyond that, it was found that visual recording devices can help to prevent RSGs from overstepping the mark and to ensure proportionality. Both visual recording equipment and communication devices have been recommended as suitable tools for security staff in the night-time economy (Porter et al., 2015) and are believed to be of similar importance to retail security staff.

Manpower

Lastly, it is recommended to generally increase the number of RSGs on site. This would not only enhance the safety of RSGs but also that of customers, retail staff and even

perpetrators. However, the researcher is aware that such a step is wedded to an increase of costs for retailers and thus might be considered as an unattractive option. Alternatively, as already suggested above (see '*Equipment*'), decision-makers in the retail security industry should at least consider to further expand on the overarching provision of radio devices for RSGs, enabling them to communicate with each other and/or the police and thus to ensure quicker backup if needed.

- ***RSGs should receive an appropriate offer of OES from their AM after every WV incident in order to avoid OES-related turnover rates:***

This study showed that most RSGs (75.6%, n=343) feel the need for support. The vast majority want to receive support at their workplace (97.7%, n=335) and ideally from their security company (92%, n=296) which is why the establishment of organisational support networks within security companies is strongly recommended. It is believed that clearly formulated guidelines would minimise the risk of security companies overlooking important steps in the support process when being confronted with the victimisation of one of their employees. For that reason, security companies should begin with the production of a WV response plan which determines roles, responsibilities (*support source*) and action plans (*support action*). Concerning roles and responsibilities (*support source*), the qualitative data identified RSGs' AMs and/or their RSG colleagues as ideal human support sources. For that reason, security companies are advised to assign WV response teams which consist of (or are at least accompanied by) RSGs' AMs who have their own experiences of WV as this might help to combine RSGs' desire for empathic and intra-organisational OES. However, it is necessary that human support sources have a clear understanding of the content of their company's WV response plan and comprehend why it is important to observe that plan (Wojcik, 2014). Human support sources should be trained in the effects of successful and unsuccessful support situations on RSGs' emotional well-being (feeling of being cared about vs. feeling of being 'just a number') as well as on RSGs' organisational loyalty and work motivation (development or maintenance of organisational commitment vs. prevention or destruction of organisational commitment). Here it is important that human support sources understand that a 'tick box mentality' during support situations is insufficient. Instead, they should internalise

the content of the WV response plan and develop respect towards psychological issues and psychological services throughout the training. This seems essential because if human support sources do not believe in the importance and effectiveness of OES on RSGs' welfare, then RSGs will not believe it either (Miller, 2008). For both the development of appropriate WV response plans and the development of training schedules, the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) could be consulted. When it comes to action plans (*support action*), RSGs should ideally receive a visit from the response team/AM within the first hour after *every* WV incident. Once the team/AM has arrived in-store, it is recommended to give victimised RSGs the opportunity to have a conversation but to also give them the freedom to talk about their topic of choice. However, the offer to talk should be made in a confidential environment in the absence of co-workers, members of the retail staff or members of the public in order to receive a truthful response on RSGs' needs unbiased by masculine role expectations. As the mere offer of OES was found to have similar effects on RSGs' feelings of being valued, response teams/AMs are also advised to *always* offer OES. The offer should be made regardless of how trivial an incident may seem to the response team/AM at first glance as this study found that not 'only' violence but also the exposure to CFs can cause emotional harm in RSGs. Lastly, response teams/AMs should follow up on RSGs repeatedly and offer OES on more than one occasion – even if RSGs initially denied the need for support. In cases where RSGs decline the offer of response team/AM support, RSGs should be provided with contact details of an anonymous support service ideally consisting of RSGs who also have their own experiences of WV. Based on what has been found in this study, it is believed that observing these requirements will help to increase victimised RSGs' emotional well-being. This, in turn, is likely to improve RSGs' organisational loyalty as well as their work motivation and consequently decrease turnover rates which are related to high costs for organisations.

9.4 Future Research

This section begins with some advice to researchers who plan to conduct studies on WV before the recommendations for future research concerning RSGs' emotional responses to WV are illustrated. Afterwards, the chapter outlines recommendations for further research on the effects of support sources and support actions for RSGs' development of perceived organisational support (POS) and for RSGs' usage of, and driving-factors for, SPMs.

- ***Advice to future researchers:***

To begin with, researchers who plan to conduct studies on WV are advised to consider the existence of CFs when exploring the impact of assaults on employees' emotional well-being. This appears essential in order to examine WV experiences comprehensively and to obtain a clearer picture of the actual sources of victims' emotional distress. Further, when it comes to the exploration of emotions through the lens of CAT, this study showed that participants' primary appraisal of *various* factors which occur *at the same time* contributed to their overall appraisal of an event and consequently to their development of emotions. Thus, researchers who apply this theory are advised to be generous when defining the scope of appraised 'events'. Moreover, this study suggests that individuals' development of emotions is not only based on cognitive but also on other factors (e.g. neurobiological). Consequently, it is recommended that future researchers be open to the existence of influencing factors other than cognitive processes when applying CAT and to present research findings on CAT less rigidly. Also, it was revealed that participants developed a variety of negative, neutral and positive emotions in relation to WV experiences. For that reason, future research should make use of more specific terms when using CAT and when discussing the emotional outcome of their studies by moving from a two-way-approach (emotionally *more* and *less* significant) to at least a three-way-approach (*positive*, *neutral* and *negative* emotions).

Moreover, this study made use of OST and it was decided to disentangle the term 'organisation'. This proved to be beneficial as it could be explored in detail *who* (and

who not) is of help to RSGs in support situations and *why*. The same applies to the term 'support' in OST. Disentangling this term helped to understand *why* RSGs perceive a support action as helpful (or not). For that reason, researchers who apply OST in future studies are strongly advised to observe the micro-levels of the terms 'organisation' and 'support' in order to produce practicable results. Furthermore, this study found that organisational *emotional* support also generates POS and that this type of support can have the same impact on employees as other antecedents of POS. For that reason, it is suggested that emotional support – as a form of social support – should also be subsumed under the term 'support' when applying OST in future projects.

Beyond that, this study made use of the CFDWC. It was found that RSGs' protection strategies are shaped by their worry about themselves but also about the worry about their loved ones and their loved ones' worry about RSGs. Thus, researchers who apply the CFDWC are advised to not only focus on the worry of crime victims' own persona but also to consider the worries of and about individuals in their personal environment. In addition, it was revealed that there exist some functional and dysfunctional SPMs (e.g. weapons) which can be 'good' (potentially effective in overpowering perpetrator) and 'bad' (potentially dangerous for victims themselves and likely to cause them legal problems) for crime victims at the same time. For that reason, it is recommended that future researchers consider the particular (occupational) setting when applying the CFDWC and when categorising SPMs as 'good' (*functional*) or 'bad' (*dysfunctional*). Lastly, this study potentially identified a fourth category of worriers (*Inhibited Worriers*). Future researchers are advised to take the existence of this fourth category into account as it might help to understand why individuals who have considered the risk of future victimisation do *not* make use of SPMs even though they are worried about crime.

- ***More research on RSGs' emotional responses to WV is needed:***

Despite the identified academic contributions, not all aspects around the topic of WV could be addressed or explored to a satisfactory level. For that reason, future research is needed to examine some phenomena in further depth. To begin with, the qualitative

approach of this study helped to gain valuable insights into RSGs' emotional responses to WV victimisation. However, it is questionable whether the insights of 20 interviewees suffice to paint an accurate picture of the whole RSG population within the UK. For that reason, future research could further investigate RSGs' emotional reactions to WV by re-applying a qualitative approach but with a much larger sample of interviewees. Beyond that, this study applied Symonds' (1970) notion of occupational stressors to RSGs for the first time. This means that all CFs dealt with in this research are under-explored within the retail security industry. Hence, more qualitative research is needed in order to better understand the emotional impact of identified CFs on RSGs' well-being and to potentially discover further CFs which might have been overlooked in this research. In addition, this study focused on CFs which were present *during* a WV incident. However, it is possible that some of these (and potentially other) CFs are also relevant in the *aftermath* of a WV incident. For example, future research could look into RSGs' emotional response to customer reactions or treatment by the police *following* WV incidents (e.g. emotional support, secondary victimisation) as for some RSGs the aftermath might still be part of the overall WV experience. In relation to CFs, particularly four CFs demand further exploration. Firstly, further research should explore the CF Facing the Unknown in order to find out what elements of danger and/or violence are particularly enjoyable for RSG workplace edgeworkers, whether there are certain character traits which distinguish RSGs who enjoy (the danger of) violence from those who do not, and – most importantly – whether some RSG workplace edgeworkers are likely to provoke WV incidents. Secondly, more knowledge is needed regarding the CF Type of Perpetrator. As the qualitative sample in this study was exclusively male, it would be interesting to explore how the identified power dynamics and gender role expectations between RSGs and perpetrators might play out with female RSGs. Thirdly, further research is needed on the CF Equipment in order to confirm RSGs' perception that the usage of visual recording equipment deters aggressors from assaulting retail security staff. In that context, a longitudinal observational research design in stores where there is a high risk of WV might help to examine whether the usage of more obvious CCTV and/or bodycams has an impact on the number of incidents. Also, future research could focus on offenders of WV against RSGs and examine their decision-making process in

relation to the (potential) deterrence effects of visual recording equipment. Further knowledge in that field might help to improve tactical training and consequently help to enhance the protection of RSGs. Fourthly, this study identified a new CF (Staff Reactions). More research is needed to further explore the impact of this CF on RSGs' emotional well-being during WV incidents.

- ***More research on the effects of support sources and support actions on RSGs' development of POS is needed:***

When it comes to OES, this study identified AMs and potentially RSG colleagues as ideal human support sources for RSGs due to their ability to empathise. However, there might be further attributes in human support sources considered to be important by RSGs which might have been overlooked in this study (e.g. reliability, likability). More knowledge on that topic might help to gain further insights into RSGs' development of POS and to refine WV response plans by appointing human support sources who meet victimised RSGs' individual needs. Similarly, this research identified certain conditions in relation to support actions which are of importance to RSGs in order to develop POS. However, researchers have neglected such a multi-dimensional approach when applying OST. For that reason, it seems necessary to explore the relevance of these newly discovered conditions for RSGs' development of POS on a larger scale. Here, a quantitative design could be used by creating a questionnaire which focuses on these antecedents of POS only. This might also lead to the identification of further conditions which have been missed in this study (e.g. preferred gender of the human support source).

- ***More research on RSGs' usage of and driving-factors for SPMs is needed:***

Concerning self-protection behaviours, some interviewees mentioned that they had used proactive SPMs in the *past* but refrained from using them after a while. Such SPMs were not captured by the questionnaire in this study as it asked about RSGs' *current* self-protection behaviour only. Thus, future research could focus on RSGs' *past* usage of proactive SPMs and additionally try to capture RSGs' reasons for stopping or changing their usage of SPMs. Beyond that, this study only reached *active* frontline RSGs. Future research could try to sample *former* frontline RSGs and explore what role

past victimisation and/or the prospect of future WV played in their decision to change positions or to leave the (retail) security industry. Knowledge in this field might help to confirm or reject the theoretical conclusions in this study which determined former RSGs as dysfunctional worriers. Moreover, it was found that almost a third of active RSGs (30%, n=126) do not make use of any SPMs. Based on this finding, it was theorised that some RSGs refrain from using SPMs due to inhibiting worries. However, as this research explored RSGs' usage of SPMs and not their reluctance to use SPMs, further investigations are required in order to confirm or reject this conjecture empirically.

In addition, this study found that different types of worry shape RSGs' decision to (not) apply SPMs. Future research could use these findings and apply a quantitative approach in order to explore whether different *quantifiable intensities* of worry have an impact on the usage of certain types of SPMs (e.g. offensive vs. inoffensive PPE) or if there is a *significant relationship* between certain types of worries and certain types of SPMs. Also, a qualitative design could focus on RSGs' facilitating and inhibiting worries in relation to the usage of SPMs as there might be further facilitating and inhibiting worries which have not been identified in this study. Beyond that, this research dealt with RSGs' desire to make use of SPMs following their *own* experiences of attempted or actual physical WV. Future research could investigate whether mere *threats* against the own person, *witnessing* WV against co-workers or even *hearing* stories about WV incidents have similar effects on RSGs' decision to use (or to not use) certain SPMs. Furthermore, it was concluded that PPE in the form of communication devices, protective clothing and visual recording devices but also behavioural conflict management and physical intervention training might help to maintain or regain RSGs' feeling of safety at work. Future research could explore whether RSGs who are already equipped with such PPE or who already received such training consider these SPMs as sufficient in order to feel safe at their workplaces and, if not, why.

Also, this study identified that many RSGs consider occupational changes as a response to WV victimisation. Future research is encouraged to focus on this group in order to find out whether the SPMs which have been suggested in this chapter would help to

make them stay in their stores and/or the (retail) security industry. Knowledge in that field might help to reduce the high turnover rates within the industry (e.g. Nalla and Cobbina, 2016). Generally, as women were not represented in the qualitative part of this study, future research is advised to gain qualitative insights into female RSGs' perceptions of WV, OES and usage of SPMs. Lastly, all the general-knowledge claims which derived from the qualitative findings of this study require verification. A quantitative design could be used to confirm or reject the general-knowledge claims of this research by making use of a questionnaire which addresses, for example, the relevance of CFs for RSGs.

9.5 Conclusion: How Retail Security Guards Experience, and React to, Workplace Violence

The following conclusions stem from information which had been provided by 488 questionnaire respondents and 20 interviewees. To date, no other study has explored assaults on RSGs on a larger scale (Porter et al., 2015) so it can be assumed that the findings of this research provide valuable insights into WV in the retail security industry. Having analysed the quantitative and qualitative data of this study, it is obvious that violence against workers within the retail security industry is a serious problem. Not only do RSGs get punched, kicked, strangled, pushed and spat at but they are also attacked with bottles, syringes and knives. Such assaults cause RSGs bruises, cuts and broken bones, often leaving them feeling anxious, sad and angry. However, RSGs' emotional responses cannot be reduced to perpetrators' violent actions alone. Facing the Unknown, Type of Perpetrator, Customer Reactions, Police Response, Equipment, Manpower and Staff Reactions also contribute to how RSGs feel after an incident. As most incidents elicit negative emotions in RSGs, it is of high importance to take care of RSGs after an assault. However, many RSGs are let down by their companies by not receiving the offer or provision of support, by being blamed for what has happened or by receiving support which does not match their needs. Such negligence does not only make RSGs feel worthless but also causes negative feelings towards their employers who failed to fulfil their duty of care in guards' eyes.

Decreases in loyalty as well as the development of adverse work attitudes are a frequent consequence leading to RSGs not fulfilling their work tasks properly anymore, changing stores or even leaving the (retail) security industry. These insights help to answer the first main research question, which asks how RSGs experience WV. Even though a violent act heralds the WV incident, it does not conclude with the violent act. A WV incident is a multi-layered phenomenon which is also shaped by a variety of CFs as well as security and retail companies' responses to incidents. Hence, all three components make a strong contribution to how RSGs experience WV events and to whether RSGs are able to emotionally cope with WV experiences or not.

Beyond that, the inference that re-victimisation is likely can make RSGs worry about re-experiencing negative emotions (their own well-being), can make them worry about their loved ones' well-being but also can make RSGs' loved ones worry about RSGs. As the experience of WV often proves to RSGs that current SPMs are inefficient, they can develop the drive to do something in order to protect themselves. Whilst some become proactive, others chose to maintain or regain their feeling of safety by removing themselves from the risk which is wedded to a decrease in RSGs' productivity (e.g. ignoring crime at work) and sometimes even with the loss of guards' productivity (e.g. leaving the security industry). These observations help to answer the second main research question, which asks what the experience of WV means for RSGs' self-protection behaviour. It can be stated that the experience of WV is not only meaningful for RSGs themselves but also for those close to them. Protecting oneself, loved ones or oneself for the sake of loved ones from reliving a similar situation becomes paramount and leads to the development of protection strategies which are subjectively believed to be suitable to reduce the risk of WV.

To sum up, many websites which deal with high-risk jobs make use of the slogan 'Violence – It's Not Part of the Job' (e.g. Unison, 2018; NHS, 2012) but unfortunately the data in this study suggests otherwise. Violence can be part of the job and, based on what has been found in this thesis, it must be concluded that violence *is* part of the job within the retail security industry. Even though this conclusion is regrettable, ignoring such findings does not help to tackle this problem. Instead, the retail security industry

as well as retailers should acknowledge the extent of violence against RSGs and minimise the risk of WV as much as possible by implementing efficient protection measures and by maximising the support for victimised RSGs by developing appropriate support networks.

Two years after the fieldwork, the researcher continued to receive emails from a few of his participants who told him about current developments in their jobs and further WV incidents which occurred after the interviews. In one of these emails, a participant told the researcher about a further incident involving a knife which did not only result in him being cut but also – yet again – left him unsupported by his security company. This experience finally left him disillusioned and convinced him that there was absolutely nothing which could be done to change what the retail security industry has become. It is examples like this which underline the importance of this research as it illustrates the dangers RSGs are defencelessly exposed to, the failure of insufficient or non-existent support networks within the retail security industry and its negative impact on the work motivation of an initially highly motivated retail security guard.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Overview of Workplace Violence Definitions

Source	Workplace (where)	Violence (what)	Perpetrator (who)
1. European Commission (n.d.) (commonly used)	(2) ...in circumstances related to their work...	(1) 'Incidents where persons are abused, threatened or assaulted... (3) ...involving an explicit or implicit challenge to their safety, well-being, or health.'	-
2. (Australian) National Occupational Health and Safety Commission (NOHSC) (n.d.)	-	(2) ...so as to cause injury to a worker, including threatening statement or behaviour which gives a worker a reasonable cause to believe he or she is at risk.'	(1) 'The attempted or actual exercise by a person of any force...
3. Health and Safety Executive (HSE) (2015)	(2) ...in circumstances related to their work.'	(1) 'Any incident in which a person is abused, threatened or assaulted...	-
4. Medecins Sans Frontieres (1993)	(3) ...in circumstances arising out of the course of his or her employment.	(1) 'Any incident in which an employee is abused, threatened or assaulted...	(2) ...by a member of the public... (4) Assaultants may be patients, clients or co-workers.'
5. Wynne, Clarkin, Cox and Griffiths (1997)	(2) ...in circumstances related to their work, including commuting to and from work,...	(1) 'Incidents where staff are abused, threatened or assaulted... (3) ...involving explicit or implicit challenges to their safety, well-being or health.'	-
6. Barling, Dupre and Kelloway (2009)	-	'Workplace violence is a distinct form of workplace aggression that comprises behaviors that are intended to cause physical harm.'	-
7. LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002)	-	'Workplace violence is the physical or psychological behaviors intended to cause employees physical harm or threat.'	-
8. Upson (2004)	(2) ...which occurred while the victim was working,...	(1) 'Workplace violence is all assaults or threats,...	(3) ...that were perpetrated by members of the public.'
9. Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) (2002)	-	'Workplace violence is violence or the threat of violence against workers.'	-
10. U.S. Legal Definition (2015)	(2) ...that occurs in a work setting...	(1) Workplace violence is an act of aggression, physical assault, or threatening behaviour... (3) ...and causes physical or emotional harm to customers, coworkers, or managers.'	-
11. Occupational Health and Safety Act (1990) (a)	(4) ...in a workplace,...	(1) 'Workplace violence is the exercise of physical force... (3) ...against a worker, ... (5) ...that causes or could cause physical injury to a worker.'	(2) ...by a person...
12. Occupational Health and Safety Act (1990) (b)	(2) ...in a workplace...	(1) Workplace violence is a statement or behaviour that it is reasonable for a worker to interpret as a threat to exercise physical force against the worker, ... (3) ...that could cause physical injury to the worker.'	-
13. Canadian Centre for Occupational Health and Safety (n.d.) as cited in Crisis Prevention Institute (2015)	(2) ...in his or her employment.'	(1) 'Workplace violence is any act in which a person is abused, threatened, intimidated or assaulted...	-

Appendix 2 – Online Questionnaire

A Study on Retail Security Officers' Experiences of, and Reactions to, Workplace Violence

Dear Participant,

The following questionnaire is to gather information from Retail Security Officers about their experiences of workplace violence and their reactions to it. Your participation in this project is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study any time before you submit your response. The responses you do give will remain absolutely confidential and anonymous. Data from this research will be held securely and will be reported as a combined total. Details of your identity will not be collected.

The questionnaire will only take ten minutes to complete. If you have any questions about this project, feel free to contact the PhD researcher Mr Benjamin Koeppen (bck4@le.ac.uk) or his supervisors Dr Matt Hopkins (mh330@le.ac.uk) and Professor Adrian Beck (bna@le.ac.uk). If you would like to contact our briefed victim support service, please contact Victim First on 0800 953 9595 (free) or by email support@victimfirst.pnn.gov.uk.

By completing this questionnaire you have the chance to win one of ten £20 Amazon vouchers or one £50 Amazon voucher. If you wish to enter the prize draw, please provide your email address on the last page. If you win one of the Amazon vouchers you will be informed via email.

Consent Statement

- I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the research anytime before I submit my response, without giving any reason.
- I am aware of what my participation will involve.
- I understand that all my responses will be stored securely using a password-protected storage device which will protect electronic storage so only the researcher can access them.
- Any questions that I have about the research have been satisfactorily answered.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely yours,

Benjamin Koeppen
PhD Researcher

If you agree to participate in this research, please tick the 'I agree'-button.
Then click on the 'Next'-button in the right corner to continue to the next page.

☐ *I agree*

Q1 Please state your **gender**:

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Other, please specify:

Q2 Please state your **ethnicity**:

- ☐ White
- ☐ Black or Black British
- ☐ Asian or Asian British
- ☐ Mixed
- ☐ Other, please specify:

Q3 Please state your **age**:

- ☐ 18 to 25
- ☐ 26 to 35
- ☐ 36 to 45
- ☐ 46 to 55
- ☐ 56 to 65
- ☐ older than 65

Q4 Please tick the highest level of your **educational attainment**:

- ☐ University
- ☐ A Levels
- ☐ GCSE/O Level
- ☐ No qualifications
- ☐ Other, please specify:

Q5 **Locations** where you currently work:
[please tick all the boxes that apply]

- ☐ North East
- ☐ North West
- ☐ Yorkshire and the Humber
- ☐ East Midlands
- ☐ West Midlands
- ☐ East of England
- ☐ London
- ☐ South East
- ☐ South West
- ☐ Wales
- ☐ Scotland
- ☐ Northern Ireland

Q6 **Years of work experience** as a retail security officer working with the public:

- ☐ Less than 1
- ☐ 1 to 5
- ☐ 6 to 10
- ☐ 11 to 15
- ☐ 16 to 20
- ☐ More than 20

Q7 Have you **ever** been physically assaulted in your time as a retail security officer by a member of the public (e.g. customer)?

Examples of Physical Assault:

*hitting, kicking, scratching, pushing, shoving, grabbing
or trying to do so*

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Skip To: End of Block If Q7 = No (2)

Q8 **In the past 12 months**, whilst on duty, how many times has a member of the public (e.g. customer):

(Q8a) Physically assaulted you **with** a weapon or object

▼(Drop down menu ranging from '0' to 'more than 20')

(Q8b) Physically assaulted you **without** a weapon or object

▼(Drop down menu ranging from '0' to 'more than 20')

Q9 Thinking of your last experience of physical assault, what was the **most severe** injury you received?

[please tick only one box]

- ☐ No injury
- ☐ Scratches, bruises and/or red marks, slight bleeding
- ☐ Cut, strong bleeding
- ☐ Broken bone(s)
- ☐ Stab wound
- ☐ Other, please specify:

Q10 Did **anybody from your Security or Retail Company** know about your last experience of physical assault at work (e.g. you told someone or someone saw that you were assaulted)?

[please tick all the boxes that apply]

- ☐ Someone from my Security Company's HR department
- ☐ My area manager at the Security Company
- ☐ Fellow security officer(s)
- ☐ Someone from the Retail Company's HR department
- ☐ The store manager at the Retail Company
- ☐ Member(s) of staff at the Retail Company
- ☐ No, nobody knew about it

Q11 Thinking of your last experience of physical assault at work, did anybody from your **SECURITY Company** (e.g. HR, area manager or fellow security officer) offer any emotional support (e.g. asked if you were OK or offered to talk)?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Skip To: Q14 If Q11 = No (2)

Display This Question:

If Thinking of your last experience of physical assault at work, did anybody from your SECURITY Comp... = Yes

Q12 Who out of your **SECURITY Company** provided this emotional support?

[please tick all the boxes that apply]

☐ Someone from my Security Company's HR department

☐ My area manager at the Security Company

☐ Fellow security officer(s)


Q13 How did they support you emotionally (e.g. offered to talk, offered a cigarette or a cup of coffee)?

[OPTIONAL but please write a brief answer]



Q14 How did the way that you were treated make you feel about your **SECURITY Company**?

[click and drag the blue marker to the appropriate answer]

<p>7-Point-Scale:</p> <p>'Less Loyal' (-3, -2, -1)</p> <p>'Same as before' (0)</p> <p>'More Loyal' (+1, +2, +3)</p>	
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Q15 Thinking of your last experience of physical assault at work, did anybody from the **RETAIL Company** (e.g. HR, store manager or retail staff) where you were working offer any emotional support (e.g. asked if you were OK or offered to talk)?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Skip To: Q18 If Q15 = No (2)

Display This Question:

If Thinking of your last experience of physical assault at work, did anybody from the RETAIL Company... = Yes

Q16 Who from the **RETAIL Company** provided this emotional support?

[please tick all the boxes that apply]

☐ Someone from the Retail Company's HR department

☐ The store manager at the Retail Company

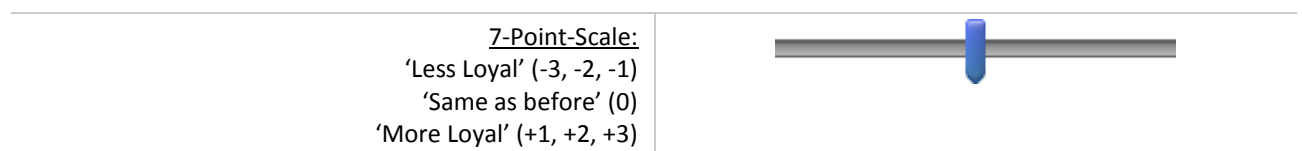
☐ Member(s) of staff at the Retail Company

Q17 How did they support you emotionally (e.g. offered to talk, offered a cigarette or a cup of coffee)?

[OPTIONAL but please write a brief answer]

Q18 How did the way that you were treated make you feel about the RETAIL Company?

[click and drag the blue marker to the appropriate answer]



Q19 If you were to be a victim of physical assault at work **in the future**, who would you like to receive emotional support from?

[please tick all the boxes that apply]

- ☐ Psychologically trained staff at my Security Company or the Retail Company
- ☐ Someone from my Security Company's HR department
- ☐ My area manager at the Security Company
- ☐ Fellow security officer(s)
- ☐ Someone from the Retail Company's HR department
- ☐ The store manager at the Retail Company
- ☐ Member(s) of staff at the Retail Company
- ☐ Other person at my workplace, please specify:

- ☐ Someone **not** from my workplace, please specify:

- ☐ Nobody, I would not want to receive any emotional support

Skip To: Q21 If Q19 = Nobody, I would not want to receive any emotional support (10)

Q20 What type of emotional support would you like to receive?

- ☐ I would like to talk about the violent incident and my feelings
- ☐ I would like to talk about the violent incident but not about my feelings
- ☐ I would like to talk, but not about anything related to the violent incident
- ☐ Other type of emotional support, please specify:

Q21 Do you do any of the following in order to protect yourself from the risk of physical assault at work?

[please tick all the boxes that apply]

- ☐ I carry a weapon (e.g. pepper spray, knife or weighted-knuckle/SAP gloves)
- ☐ I carry a legal tool (e.g. torch) in order to use it as a weapon
- ☐ I try to stay physically fit (e.g. martial arts or gym)
- ☐ I bought my own protective clothing (e.g. stab vest or cut resistant hand gloves)
- ☐ I bought my own lone worker alarm (personal alarm device or 'screamer')
- ☐ Sometimes I ignore crime or antisocial behaviour in my store so that I can avoid trouble
- ☐ Other, please specify:

- ☐ I do not do anything in order to protect myself

Display This Question:

If Have you ever been physically assaulted in your time as a retail security officer by a member of...
= Yes

Q22 Do you protect yourself **because of** your last experience of physical assault at work?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ I am not sure
- ☐ No

Display This Question:

If Have you ever been physically assaulted in your time as a retail security officer by a member of...
= Yes

Q23 Have you considered changing anything about your job **because of** your last experience of physical assault at work?

[please tick all the boxes that apply]

- ☐ Yes, changing to a less dangerous job not related to security work
- ☐ Yes, changing to a less dangerous security job (e.g. less dangerous branch or position ('backroom'), not doing night-shifts anymore)
- ☐ Other changes, please specify:

- ☐ No, I have not thought about changing anything about my job

Q24 Participation in Further Research

It would be greatly appreciated if you were willing to give a face-to-face interview and answer further questions about your workplace violence experience(s). As a token of appreciation for your help you would be given **£15.00 cash money** for your participation in the interview. The researcher would travel to a **location which suits you** and your identity would be kept **confidential**. Talking to you is the only way to find out more about any problems security officers face at work. This will help us to improve your safety and the support provided to you.

☐ **Yes, please contact me under the following email address or telephone number:**

☐ **No**

Q25 Final Comments [OPTIONAL]

If you have any other comments, please write in the box below:

Q26 Participation in Prize Draw

[OPTIONAL]

If you wish to enter the prize draw to win one of the Amazon vouchers (£20 or £50), please provide your **email address**:

(Closing date for receipt of entry is 1 March 2017. Vouchers cannot be substituted for a cash alternative. Winners will be informed via email by 8 March 2017 at the latest. There is an equal chance to win the vouchers as they will be raffled among the participants.)

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey. Your time and views are very much appreciated.

Please click on the 'Next'-button for the last time.

**Benjamin Koeppen
PhD Researcher
bck4@le.ac.uk**

**Victim Support Service
dial 0800 953 9595 (free)
support@victimfirst.pnn.gov.uk**

Appendix 3 – Interview Topic Guides Schedule

Basic Information Interview

Interview no.: _____

Date of interview: _____

Location of interview: _____

Duration of interview: _____

Basic Information Interviewee

Gender: _____

Ethnicity: _____

Age group: _____

Highest level of
educational attainment: _____

Locations where s/he
currently works: _____

Years of work experience
as a retail security guard
working with the public: _____

1) WV Incident

- Can you please describe the violent incident in your time as a RSG you consider to be the most significant and tell me why the incident is memorable for you?

By 'most significant' I mean the violent incident which you still remember very clearly and which is the incident you tell friends about when they ask you if you ever had trouble at work.

Facing the Unknown

- How do you feel when you approach customers who might cause trouble?
- Have you ever experienced any excitement in dangerous situations at work?

Type of Perpetrator

- Is there an assault in your time as a RSG which you remember particularly well because there was something special about the person who assaulted you?
- How did that make you feel?

Customer Reactions

- How did customers usually react when you were assaulted?
- How did that make you feel?

Police Reactions

- How did the Police react during/following WV incidents?
- How did that make you feel?

Equipment

- What work equipment did you have on you when you were assaulted?
- How did the presence/absence of XY make you feel?

Manpower

- In your time as a RSG, did you always have to deal with violent customers on your own or did you sometimes have backup from other Guards in these situations?
- How did their presence/absence make you feel?

2) Organisational Emotional Support

- What did your Security Company and the Retail Company do when they heard that you got assaulted? And by 'company' I mean everybody: RSG peers, Retail Staff, your Area Manager, the Store Manager, HR and so on.
- How did that make you feel?
- How did the (lack of) support make you feel about your Security Company and the Retailer you were working for?
- If you were to be a victim of physical assault in the future, who would you like to receive emotional support from and what would you expect them to do? Why?
- How important was the emotional support of the Area Manager of your Security Company to you after being assaulted? Why?
- What is more important to you after a physical assault at work: the support of people in your private life (e.g. wife, friends) or the support of people at your workplace? Why?

3) Self-Protection Measures

- What do you do in order to protect yourself from the risk of future assaults at work? Why XY/why nothing?
- Without saying any names, what do your RS Colleagues do to protect themselves from physical assaults at work?
- Again, without saying any names, do you know any RSGs who carry a weapon or something similar during their shifts in order to protect themselves from the risk of physical assault at work?
- Do you know any RSGs who sometimes ignore crime or antisocial behaviour in their store so that they can avoid trouble?
- Do you know any RSGs who quit their security job or thought about quitting after they have been physically assaulted?
- Have you ever thought about quitting your job after you have been assaulted in your job as a RSG? Why/Why not?

4) Final Questions

- Would you like to add anything to the interview?
- Would you like to be informed about the outcome of the study?

Email-address: _____

Appendix 4 – Letter of Invitation to Participate (Security Companies)

Email Subject Line: Research on Violence against Retail Security Guards



Dear [Security Company Manager],

My name is Benjamin Koeppen and I am a PhD researcher in the Department of Criminology at the University of Leicester. I am conducting a nationwide research project on Retail Security Officers' experiences of, and reactions to, workplace violence in collaboration with the Security Industry Authority (SIA) and the British Security Industry Association (BSIA). As you are probably aware, this is an important issue that has received little research attention. Our goal is to enhance Security Officers' work conditions and safety as well as to improve training and the support provided to them. In turn, these changes are likely to reduce absenteeism and lower the traditionally high turn-over rates of security staff.

To reach our goal, we would like to ask the Retail Security Officers employed by you to fill out a simple online questionnaire which should take no longer than ten minutes to complete. Your company's participation in this research is voluntary, but it would be greatly appreciated as it is essential for developing effective workplace violence reduction and response strategies. After completion of the study, you would receive a report summarising the main findings.

Your security personnel's responses will be anonymous and confidential, as will all data related to your company. All data will only be accessible to me but not to the SIA or the BSIA. I will not be sharing information about you or your workplace with the SIA, BSIA, your clients or anybody else outside of the research team. Furthermore, the Retail Security Officers working for your company have the right to withdraw at any point in time.

The questionnaire asks some basic questions about Retail Security Officers' experience of violent situations at work, their perception of organisational emotional support and their self-protection behaviour. A link to the questionnaire will be provided in an email which can then be circulated to your Retail Security Officers.

Thank you for taking the time to read this e-mail. I would be delighted if you were able to support this important research that is likely to generate findings of significant interest to your company. Please free feel to contact me via email so that we can discuss the next steps.

Yours sincerely,

Benjamin Koeppen
PhD Researcher
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
The Friars

154 Upper New Walk
Leicester
LE1 7QA

Email: bck4@le.ac.uk

Website: <http://www2.le.ac.uk/departments/criminology/people/phd/benjamin-koeppen>

RESPONSIBLE SUPERVISOR (1)

Dr Matt Hopkins
Senior Lecturer in Criminology
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
The Friars
154 Upper New Walk
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LE1 7QA
Telephone: +44 (0)116 252 5714
Email: mh330@le.ac.uk

RESPONSIBLE SUPERVISOR (2)

Professor Adrian Beck
Professor of Criminology
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
The Friars
154 Upper New Walk
Leicester
LE1 7QA
Telephone: +44 (0)116 252 5702
Email: bn@le.ac.uk

Staff Contact at the BSIA

Mr Trevor Elliott
Director of Manpower and Membership Services
Kirkham House
John Comyn Drive
Worcester
WR3 7NS
Telephone: +44 (0)7921 125092
Email: t.elliott@bsia.co.uk

Staff Contact at the SIA

Mr David Humphries
Director of Partnerships and Interventions
90 High Holborn
London
WC1V 6LJ
Telephone: +44 (0)20 7025 4175
Email: Dave.Humphries@sia.gsi.gov.uk

Appendix 5 – Newsletter Police and Security Initiative Network



Police & Security Community Network

[Home](#) [Alerts](#) [News](#) [Events](#) [Documents](#) [Information Request](#) [Submit Content](#)

[Home](#) > [News](#) >

Research on Violence against Retail Security Officers

1 July 2016

Dear Members, My name is Benjamin Koeppen and I am a PhD researcher in the Department of Criminology at the University of Leicester. I am conducting a nationwide research project on Retail Security Officers' experience of and reactions to workplace violence in collaboration

with the SIA and the BSIA. As you are probably aware, this is an important issue that has received little research attention. Our goal is to enhance Security Officers' work conditions and safety as well as to improve training and the support provided to them. In turn, these changes are likely to reduce absenteeism and lower the traditionally high turn-over rates of security staff.

To reach our goal, we would like to ask Retail Security Officers to fill out a simple online questionnaire which should take no longer than ten minutes to complete. Of course, security companies' participation in this research is voluntary, but it would be greatly appreciated as it is essential for developing effective



UNIVERSITY OF
LEICESTER

Appendix 6

Letter of Invitation to Participate (Questionnaire Participants)

Email Subject Line: Retail Security Officer Survey



UNIVERSITY OF
LEICESTER



Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Benjamin Koeppen and I am a PhD researcher in the Department of Criminology at the University of Leicester. I am undertaking research about Retail Security Officers' attitudes towards workplace violence, organisational support and self-protection at work.

Your employer [Security Company XY] has agreed to help out with this study by sending this email to you, asking you to participate in a short online survey. The survey will only take 10 minutes to complete. You can access the survey by **clicking on the link below** – this can be done either on a computer or smart phone/tablet. By completing this survey, you will also have the chance to win one of ten £20 Amazon vouchers or one £50 Amazon voucher:

WWW.LINK-TO-QUALTRICS.CO.UK

In order for you to participate, you must be a Retail Security Officer and resident in the UK. Your identity will remain anonymous and all the information you provide will be kept confidential.

Thank you very much for agreeing to help out with my research!

Yours sincerely,

Benjamin Koeppen
PhD Researcher
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
Email: bck4@le.ac.uk

Appendix 7 – Notification Email for Winners of the Prize Draw

Email Subject Line: WINNER OF THE PRIZE DRAW - Retail Security Officer Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

First of all, I would like to thank you again for your participation in my Retail Security Officer Survey which you completed between August and December 2016.

In the survey you provided your email address in order to participate in the prize draw. I am pleased to inform you that you have won one of the £20.00 Amazon vouchers.

In a moment, you will receive an email from Amazon containing the voucher.

I wish you all the best for 2017 and please take care of yourself at work.

With kindest regards,

Benjamin Koeppen
PhD Researcher
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
Email: bck4@le.ac.uk

Appendix 8 – Amazon Payment Confirmation Email (anonymised)

Your Order with Amazon.co.uk
Amazon.co.uk Gift Cards <auto-confirm@amazon.co.uk>
Mon 16/01/2017, 11:31 Koeppen, Benjamin C.
Inbox

Thank you for your Amazon.co.uk gift card order!

(Order #203-5429044-7481144)

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@yahoo.co.uk
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.com
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@sky.com
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.co.uk
Amount: £50.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@gmail.com
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@gmail.com
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.com
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.com
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.co.uk
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.co.uk
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Gift Voucher, E-mail Delivery
Send to: XXX@hotmail.co.uk
Amount: £20.00
Quantity: 1

Subtotal: £250.00
Postage & Packing: FREE
VAT: £0.00

TOTAL: £250.00

Thank you for shopping at Amazon.co.uk!

Please note: This e-mail was sent from a notification-only address that cannot accept incoming e-mail. Please do not reply to this message.

Amazon.co.uk
Earth's Biggest Selection
<http://www.amazon.co.uk>

Appendix 9 – Letter of Invitation to Participate (Interview Participants)

Email Subject Line: Interview for PhD Research Project University of Leicester



UNIVERSITY OF
LEICESTER



Dear Sir/Madam,

You recently filled out an online questionnaire for my research project exploring Retail Security Officers' attitudes towards workplace violence, organisational support and self-protection at work. Thank you very much again for taking part.

At the end of the questionnaire you stated that you are willing to give a face-to-face interview and answer further questions about your experience(s) of workplace violence. This is greatly appreciated. As a token of appreciation for your help you will be given £15.00 cash money for your participation in the interview. I will travel to a location which suits you and your identity will be kept confidential.

I now require details of when and where you would like to be interviewed. I would be grateful if you would send me the dates you are available **between 21st November and 14th December** and suggestions for **where** you would like to meet.

To ensure your answers are recorded accurately, the interview needs to be audio taped which is why I would ask you to choose a **quiet location**. The anonymous audio tapes will not be available to anyone but me.

Thank you very much for agreeing to help out with my research!

Yours sincerely,

Benjamin Koeppen
PhD Researcher
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
Email: bck4@le.ac.uk

Appendix 10 – Informed Consent Form (Interview Participants)

Informed Consent Form - Interview -

Please read this Informed Consent Form carefully before you decide to participate in the research.

This Informed Consent Form is for interview participants of the research project titled, “Security Officers’ Experiences of, and Reactions to, Workplace Violence”.

This Informed Consent Form has two parts:

- **Information Sheet (to share information about the study with you)**
- **Certificate of Consent (for signatures if you agree to participate)**

You will be given a copy of the full Informed Consent Form

Part I: Information Sheet

Introduction

My name is Benjamin Koeppen and I am a PhD researcher in the Department of Criminology at the University of Leicester. My focal point lies on Crime Prevention, Security and Risk Management. I am interested in examining how security officers experience violence victimisation, how they perceive organisational support, what self-protection measures they undertake in order to avoid future victimisation and why.

After you have heard more about the study, you will be asked to agree to participate. There might be some words you do not understand. Please ask me to stop as we go through the information and I will take time to explain. If any questions occur to you following the study, I would be happy to answer them via email.

Purpose

The study may help us to understand what factors shape security officers’ experience of workplace violence during and after an assault at work, particularly the effects of organisational support. Beyond that, this research may help to comprehend security officers’ motivations as related to different types of self-protection measures. The research results might be used to improve training for security officers as well as the organisational support provided to them. In this context you are invited to contribute suggestions for improvement.

Type of Research Intervention

In an interview you will be asked to answer some basic questions about your person, questions about your workplace violence experience(s), the support you did or did not receive from relevant organisations and questions about your strategies to avoid future workplace violence victimisation.

Selection of Participants

As you stated that you have experienced violence at work in the past, your feelings, perceptions, attitudes, opinions and reactions related to that event are essential for my research. In comparison to colleagues of yours who have not had that kind of experience, you can give insights into how you experienced the incident(s), how you perceived the support of your employer(s) and what measures you undertook in order to prevent future assaults at work.

Voluntary Participation

You do not have to agree to participate in the interview. If you choose not to participate you will not be disadvantaged in any way including the collaboration or assistance of your employer (your employing security company), your contractor (retail company you are/were working for), the BSIA or the SIA.

Protocol

For the purpose of transcribing the spoken word verbatim, the interview will be audio taped. If you do not wish to answer any of the questions during the interview, you may say so and I will move on to the next question. The interview will take place at a location you feel comfortable with and where you are protected from public view.

Duration

The interview will take approximately one hour. I expect this to be sufficient for all of the questions relevant to this topic. However, this time period is not rigid so you are welcome to expand on the topic, if you wish to do so.

Risks and Discomfort

I am aware of the fact that some questions might invade your privacy such as asking questions about former victimisation or personal feelings. If you do not feel comfortable answering any of the questions, please do not hesitate to say so – the question will then be skipped over. Also, in case you feel that you would benefit from talking to a professional following the interview, you can contact the victim support service listed on page 5 of this form. This victim support service already has been contacted and briefed by the PhD researcher so that they are aware of his research project and prepared to help you with any concerns related to your workplace violence experience.

Benefits and Incentives

In order to thank you for your participation you will be given £15.00 cash money. Furthermore, by participating in this research you have the possibility to enhance the work conditions for security officers in the UK and beyond, particularly concerning the provision of organisational support and the enhancement of workplace violence response plans. In addition, the results of this study might be used to improve training for security personnel.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality regarding all information is guaranteed by assigning your information a code number instead of any personal data and only I will know what your number is. The list connecting your name to the code, the recorded material and your consent form will be locked in a safe place to avoid any misuse. Only I or my responsible supervisors will have access to it. After completing the study in December 2017 the list will be destroyed and any recorded material deleted. Your anonymity will certainly be maintained and I will not be sharing information about you or your workplace outside of the research team.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

You have the possibility to end the interview or even withdraw your given consent about using your recorded answers at any point of time without mentioning any reason. In cases of withdrawal, all of the material related to your person (consent form, recorded material) will be destroyed immediately. If you want to withdraw from the study, please tell me to end the interview or contact either me or one of my responsible supervisors via phone or email to let us know (our contact details are listed on page 4 of this form). As mentioned above you do not have to fear any disadvantage and the support and assistance of your employing security company, your contractor, the BSIA and the SIA is still assured.

Who to contact concerning the Research Project:

If you have any questions you may ask them now or later, even after the study has started. If you wish to ask questions later or withdraw from the study, you may contact any of the following:

PHD RESEARCHER

Mr Benjamin Koeppen
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
The Friars
154 Upper New Walk
Leicester
LE1 7QA
Email: bck4@le.ac.uk

RESPONSIBLE SUPERVISOR (1)

Dr Matt Hopkins
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
The Friars
154 Upper New Walk
Leicester
LE1 7QA
Telephone: +44 (0)116 252 5714
Email: mh330@le.ac.uk

RESPONSIBLE SUPERVISOR (2)

Professor Adrian Beck
University of Leicester
Department of Criminology
The Friars
154 Upper New Walk
Leicester
LE1 7QA
Telephone: +44 (0)116 252 5702
Email: bn@le.ac.uk

Who to contact concerning Support:



At Victim First we are dedicated to supporting victims of crime and high risk antisocial behaviour. Our priority is to ensure you are given the support everyone needs to help them cope and recover from their ordeal. We recognise all victims' needs can be different and that is why our service is designed to be tailored to your requirements. Whether or not the crime has been reported, and regardless of when it happened, we are here for you.

Support may include;

1. **Emotional Support;** caseworkers are trained to listen, to empathise and to recognise the emotional impact that crime can have on a victim. Someone to talk to face to face (home visits or community visits), over the phone. We would provide information and advice on your specific circumstances.
2. **Access to Specialist Support;** we can either signpost you to an appropriate organisation or make a direct referral with your consent. We will always offer follow up support to ensure you do not feel you are being passed from person to person.
3. **Restorative Justice;** we have restorative justice specialists as part of our team, who can explore giving you the opportunity to communicate with the person who has offended against you
4. **Mental Health Support;** we have access to mental health nurses to ensure specialist support is given around your mental wellbeing.
5. **Crime Prevention Measures;** direct access to target hardening service who provide crime prevention assessment and measures within 48 hours of referral.
6. **Advocacy;** we can communicate on your behalf to help you to access services you are entitled to e.g. seeking support from local housing authority

Address:

Victim First
Mansfield House
74 Belgrave Gate
Leicester
LE1 3GG

Email:

support@victimfirst.pnn.gov.uk

Telephone:

[0800 953 9595](tel:0800 953 9595)

Source: <http://victimfirst.org/how-can-we-help/>

Part II: Certificate of Consent

1. I have read the above and am aware that my participation in this interview is voluntary.
2. I understand that the aim of the research is to gather information about security officers' experiences of, and reactions to, workplace violence and that I will be one of approximately twenty people being interviewed in this study. I also understand that I will get paid £15.00 cash money as a token of appreciation for participating in this interview.
3. If, for any reason and at any time, I wish to interrupt or stop the interview, I may do so without giving any explanation. Furthermore, I understand that I have the possibility to decline to answer any question or to withdraw afterwards without having to fear any consequences.
4. I am aware that the interview duration will be about one hour and that the interview will be audio taped. If I provide incriminating information, the interviewer will immediately rewind the tape and record over the potentially incriminating information. Additionally, notes will be written during the interview. If I do not agree to this method of interview, I will not be able to participate in the study.
5. I understand that my confidentiality as a participant in this research will remain secure and that any material related to my person will be anonymised and destroyed after completion of the study.
6. I am aware that my anonymity will be guaranteed and any information used will not be traceable to me.
7. I understand that the research study, including all questions, has been reviewed by the Department of Criminology, University of Leicester.
8. I have read and understood the information sheet and the consent form before signing it. All ambiguity was removed by the researcher and I have no further questions. However, if I have any questions about this study I can contact the PhD researcher or his supervisors at any time under the contact details listed on page 4 of this form.
9. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study and in the interview conducted today.
10. A copy of the Informed Consent Form was handed over to me.

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions that I asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to participate in this study and understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without affecting in any way my/our standing at my employing security company, my former or current contractor, the British Security Industry Authority (BSIA) or the Security Industry Authority (SIA).

- I received the £15.00 cash money before the commencement of the interview -

Print Name of Interview Participant

Signature of Interview Participant

Place

Date

Print Name of PhD Researcher

Place

Date

Signature of PhD Researcher
Mr Benjamin KOEPPEN

- Copy Interview Participant -

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions that I asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to participate in this study and understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without affecting in any way my/our standing at my employing security company, my former or current contractor, the British Security Industry Authority (BSIA) or the Security Industry Authority (SIA).

- I received the £15.00 cash money before the commencement of the interview -

Print Name of Interview Participant

Signature of Interview Participant

Place

Date

Print Name of PhD Researcher

Place

Date

Signature of PhD Researcher
Mr Benjamin KOEPPEN

- Copy PhD Researcher -

Appendix 11A – Ethical Approval

11/03/2016

Ethics Reference: 4761-bck4-criminology

TO:

Name of Researcher Applicant: Benjamin Koeppen

Department: Criminology

Research Project Title: 'Experiences of, and Reactions to, Workplace Violence: Qualitative and Quantitative Insights into Security Guards' Work'

Dear Benjamin Koeppen,

RE: Ethics review of Research Study application

The University Ethics Sub-Committee for Sociology; Politics and IR; Lifelong Learning; Criminology; Economics and the School of Education has reviewed and discussed the above application.

1. Ethical opinion

The Sub-Committee grants ethical approval to the above research project on the basis described in the application form and supporting documentation, subject to the conditions specified below.

2. Summary of ethics review discussion

The Committee noted the following issues:

Please note the comment made in the notes section of your application.

I hope that your research goes well

Hillary

3. General conditions of the ethical approval

The ethics approval is subject to the following general conditions being met prior to the start of the project:

As the Principal Investigator, you are expected to deliver the research project in accordance with the University's policies and procedures, which includes the University's Research Code of Conduct and the University's Research Ethics Policy.

If relevant, management permission or approval (gate keeper role) must be obtained from host organisation prior to the start of the study at the site concerned.

4. Reporting requirements after ethical approval

You are expected to notify the Sub-Committee about:

- Significant amendments to the project
- Serious breaches of the protocol
- Annual progress reports
- Notifying the end of the study

5. Use of application information

Details from your ethics application will be stored on the University Ethics Online System. With your permission, the Sub-Committee may wish to use parts of the application in an anonymised format for training or sharing best practice. Please let me know if you do not want the application details to be used in this manner.

Best wishes for the success of this research project.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Laura Brace
Chair

Appendix 11B – Ethical Approval

11/03/2016

Ethics Reference: 4761-bck4-criminology

TO:

Name of Researcher Applicant: Benjamin Koeppen

Department: Criminology

Research Project Title: 'Experiences of, and Reactions to, Workplace Violence: Qualitative and Quantitative Insights into Security Guards' Work'

Dear Benjamin Koeppen,

RE: Ethics review of Research Study application

The University Ethics Sub-Committee for Sociology; Politics and IR; Lifelong Learning; Criminology; Economics and the School of Education has reviewed and discussed the above application.

1. Ethical opinion

The Sub-Committee grants ethical approval to the above research project on the basis described in the application form and supporting documentation, subject to the conditions specified below.

2. Summary of ethics review discussion

The Committee noted the following issues:

Thank you for the detail provided in your amendment note, and good luck with the research. I hope the vouchers help!

3. General conditions of the ethical approval

The ethics approval is subject to the following general conditions being met prior to the start of the project:

As the Principal Investigator, you are expected to deliver the research project in accordance with the University's policies and procedures, which includes the University's Research Code of Conduct and the University's Research Ethics Policy.

If relevant, management permission or approval (gate keeper role) must be obtained from host organisation prior to the start of the study at the site concerned.

4. Reporting requirements after ethical approval

You are expected to notify the Sub-Committee about:

- Significant amendments to the project
- Serious breaches of the protocol
- Annual progress reports
- Notifying the end of the study

5. Use of application information

Details from your ethics application will be stored on the University Ethics Online System. With your permission, the Sub-Committee may wish to use parts of the application in an anonymised format for training or sharing best practice. Please let me know if you do not want the application details to be used in this manner.

Best wishes for the success of this research project.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Laura Brace
Chair

Appendix 12 – Codebook Questionnaire

Question 1: 'Please state your gender'

Coding instructions:

1 = Male

2 = Female

Question 2: 'Please state your ethnicity'

Coding instructions:

1 = White

2 = Black or Black British

3 = Asian or Asian British

4 = Arab

5 = Mixed

Question 3: 'Please state your age'

Coding instructions:

1 = 18 to 25 years

2 = 26 to 35 years

3 = 36 to 45 years

4 = 46 to 55 years

5 = 56 to 65 years

6 = older than 65 years

➔ *Broader categories Question 3*

Coding instructions:

1 = 18 to 35 years (options 1 and 2 from above combined)

2 = 36 to Older than 65 years (options 3 to 6 from above combined)

Question 4: 'Please tick the highest level of your educational attainment'

Coding instructions:

1 = University

2 = Advanced Education (e.g. Higher National Diploma (HND) or Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC))

3 = A-Levels

4 = GCSE/O Level

5 = No qualifications

Question 5: 'Locations where you currently work'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = North East
 - 2 = North West
 - 3 = Yorkshire and the Humber
 - 4 = East Midlands
 - 5 = West Midlands
 - 6 = East of England
 - 7 = London
 - 8 = South East
 - 9 = South West
 - 10 = Wales
 - 11 = Scotland
 - 12 = Northern Ireland
 - 13 = Mixed (more than one area)
-

Question 6: 'Years of work experience as a retail security officer working with the public'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Less than 1 year
- 2 = 1 to 5 years
- 3 = 6 to 10 years
- 4 = 11 to 15 years
- 5 = 16 to 20 years
- 6 = More than 20 years

➔ Broader categories Question 6

Coding instructions:

- 1 = 0 to 5 years (options 1 and 2 from above combined)*
 - 2 = 6 to 15 years (options 3 and 4 from above combined)*
 - 3 = 16 to More than 20 years (options 5 and 6 from above combined)*
-

Question 7: 'Have you ever been physically assaulted in your time as a retail security officer by a member of the public (e.g. customer)?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Yes
 - 2 = No
-

Question 8a: 'In the past 12 months, whilst on duty, how many times has a member of the public (e.g. customer) physically assaulted you WITH a weapon or object?'

Coding instructions:

0 = 0 times assaulted WITH a weapon or object

1 = 1

2 = 2

3 = 3

4 = 4

5 = 5

6 = 6

7 = 7

8 = 8

9 = 9

10 = 10

11 = 11

12 = 12

13 = 13

14 = 14

15 = 15

16 = 16

17 = 17

18 = 18

19 = 19

20 = 20

21 = More than 20

➔ Broader categories Question 8a

Coding instructions:

0 = 0 times assaulted WITH a weapon or object (option 0 from above)

1 = 1 time assaulted WITH a weapon or object (option 1 from above)

2 = 2 to 5 times assaulted WITH a weapon or object (options 2 to 5 from above combined)

3 = More than 5 times assaulted WITH a weapon or object (options 6 to 21 from above combined)

Question 8b: 'In the past 12 months, whilst on duty, how many times has a member of the public (e.g. customer) physically assaulted you WITHOUT a weapon or object?'

Coding instructions:

0 = 0 times assaulted WITHOUT a weapon or object

1 = 1

2 = 2

3 = 3

4 = 4

5 = 5

6 = 6

7 = 7

8 = 8

9 = 9

10 = 10

11 = 11

12 = 12

13 = 13

14 = 14

15 = 15

16 = 16

17 = 17

18 = 18

19 = 19

20 = 20

21 = More than 20

➔ Broader categories Question 8b

Coding instructions:

0 = 0 times assaulted WITHOUT a weapon or object (option 0 from above)

1 = 1 time assaulted WITHOUT a weapon or object (option 1 from above)

2 = 2 to 5 times assaulted WITHOUT a weapon or object (options 2 to 5 from above combined)

3 = More than 5 times assaulted WITHOUT a weapon or object (options 6 to 21 from above combined)

Question 9: ‘Thinking of your last experience of physical assault, what was the most severe injury you received?’

Coding instructions:

- 1 = No injury
- 2 = Scratches, bruises and/or red marks, slight bleeding
- 3 = Cut, strong bleeding
- 4 = Joint Injury
- 5 = Broken bone(s)
- 6 = Stab wound
- 7 = Skin and breathing irritation due to CS-Gas attack

➔ Broader categories Question 9

Coding instructions:

- 1 = No injury (option 1 from above)
- 2 = Minor injuries (option 2 from above)
- 3 = Major injuries (options 3 to 7 from above combined)

➔ Broader categories Question 9

Coding instructions:

- 1 = No Injury (option 1 from above)
 - 2 = Injury (options 2 and 3 from above combined)
-

Question 10: ‘Did anybody from your Security or Retail Company know about your last experience of physical assault at work (e.g. you told someone or someone saw that you were assaulted)?’

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Security Company (HR department, Area Manager or Fellow Security Officer(s))
- 2 = Retail Company (HR department, Store Manager or Retail Staff)
- 3 = Both Security and Retail Company (Security and Retail Company)
- 4 = Nobody (neither to someone from the Security nor from the Retail Company)

➔ Broader categories Question 10

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Yes (options 1 to 3 from above combined)
 - 2 = No (option 4 from above)
-

Question 11: ‘Thinking of your last experience of physical assault at work, did anybody from your SECURITY Company (e.g. HR, Area Manager or Fellow Security Officer) offer any emotional support (e.g. asked if you were OK or offered to talk)?’

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No

Question 12: 'Who out of your SECURITY Company provided this emotional support?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Security Company's HR department
 - 2 = Area Manager at the Security Company
 - 3 = Fellow Security Guard(s)
 - 4 = Mixture (of the options above)
-

Question 13: 'How did they support you emotionally (e.g. offered to talk, offered a cigarette or a cup of coffee)?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Had a coffee/tea/cigarette together and talked
 - 2 = Talked
 - 3 = Sent off for a break (alone)
-

Question 14: 'How did the way you were treated make you feel about your SECURITY Company?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Minus 3
- 2 = Minus 2
- 3 = Minus 1
- 4 = Same as before
- 5 = Plus 1
- 6 = Plus 2
- 7 = Plus 3

➔ Broader categories Question 14

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Less loyal (options 1 to 3 from above combined)*
 - 2 = Same as before (option 4 from above)*
 - 3 = More loyal (options 5 to 7 from above combined)*
-

Question 15: 'Thinking of your last experience of physical assault at work, did anybody from your RETAIL Company (e.g. HR, Store Manager or Retail Staff) where you were working offer any emotional support (e.g. asked if you were OK or offered to talk)?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Yes
 - 2 = No
-

Question 16: 'Who from the RETAIL Company provided this emotional support?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Retail Company's HR department
 - 2 = Store Manager at the Retail Company
 - 3 = Retail Staff
 - 4 = Mixture (of the options above)
-

Question 17: 'How did they support you emotionally (e.g. offered to talk, offered a cigarette or a cup of coffee)?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Had a coffee/tea/cigarette together and talked
 - 2 = Talked
 - 3 = Sent off for a break (alone)
-

Question 18: 'How did the way you were treated make you feel about the RETAIL Company?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Minus 3
- 2 = Minus 2
- 3 = Minus 1
- 4 = Same as before
- 5 = Plus 1
- 6 = Plus 2
- 7 = Plus 3

➔ Broader categories Question 18

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Less loyal (options 1 to 3 from above combined)*
 - 2 = Same as before (option 4 from above)*
 - 3 = More loyal (options 5 to 7 from above combined)*
-

Question 19: 'If you were to be a victim of physical assault at work in the future, who would you like to receive emotional support from?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Security Company (Psychologically trained Staff, HR department, Area Manager, RSG Colleagues)
- 2 = Retail Company (HR department, Store Manager, Retail Staff)
- 3 = Both Security Company and Retail Company
- 4 = Private (e.g. Family or Friends)
- 5 = Security Company and Private
- 6 = Retail Company and Private
- 7 = Security Company, Retail Company and Private
- 8 = External Sources (e.g. Police or GP)
- 9 = Nobody

➔ Broader categories Question 19

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Exclusively Organisational Support (options 1 to 3 from above combined)*
- 2 = Exclusively Private Support (option 4 from above)*
- 3 = Mixture Organisational and Private Support (options 5 to 7 from above combined)*
- 4 = Exclusively External Support (option 8 from above)*
- 5 = Nobody (option 9 from above)*

➔ Broader categories Question 19

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Want Support (options 1 to 4 from above combined)*
- 2 = Do not want Support (option 5 from above)*

Question 20: 'What type of emotional support would you like to receive?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Talking about feelings
 - 2 = Talking but not about feelings
 - 3 = Talking but not about anything related to the violent incident
-

Question 21: 'Do you do any of the following in order to protect yourself from the risk of physical assault at work?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Weapon
- 2 = Legal Tool
- 3 = Physical Fitness
- 4 = Protective Clothing
- 5 = Alarm Device
- 6 = Ignoring Crime
- 7 = Bodycam
- 8 = Increased Caution
- 9 = Safety in Numbers
- 10 = Keeping Distance
- 11 = Weapon and Physical Fitness
- 12 = Weapon and Alarm Device
- 13 = Legal Tool and Physical Fitness
- 14 = Legal Tool and Alarm Device
- 15 = Physical Fitness and Protective Clothing
- 16 = Physical Fitness and Alarm Device
- 17 = Physical Fitness, Protective Clothing and Alarm Device
- 18 = Physical Fitness and Increased Caution
- 19 = Physical Fitness and Safety in Numbers
- 20 = Protective Clothing and Alarm Device
- 21 = Protective Clothing and Safety in Numbers
- 22 = Weapon, Physical Fitness and Ignoring Crime
- 23 = Legal Tool and Ignoring Crime
- 24 = Physical Fitness and Ignoring Crime
- 25 = Protective Clothing and Ignoring Crime
- 26 = Physical Fitness, Protective Clothing and Ignoring Crime
- 27 = Legal Tool, Physical Fitness, Protective Clothing and Ignoring Crime
- 28 = Ignoring Crime and Safety in Numbers
- 29 = Nothing

➔ Broader Categories Question 21

Coding Instructions:

- 1 = Exclusively PPE (options: 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 12, 14 and 20 from above combined)
- 2 = Exclusively Skills (options 3, 8 and 18 from above combined)
- 3 = Exclusively Tactics (options 9 and 10 from above combined)
- 4 = Ignoring Crime (option 6 from above)
- 5 = PPE and Skills (options 11, 13, 15, 16 and 17 from above combined)
- 6 = PPE and Tactics (option 21 from above)
- 7 = PPE and 'Ignoring Crime' (options 23 and 25 from above combined)
- 8 = PPE and Skills and 'Ignoring Crime' (options 22, 26 and 27 from above combined)
- 9 = Skills and Tactics (option 19 from above)
- 10 = Skills and 'Ignoring Crime' (option 24 from above)
- 11 = Tactics and 'Ignoring Crime' (option 28 from above)
- 12 = Nothing (option 29 from above)

➔ **Broader Categories Question 21**

Coding Instructions:

- 1 = Exclusively Proactive SPMs (options 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 and 9 from above combined)*
- 2 = Exclusively Inactive SPMs (option 4 from above)*
- 3 = Proactive and Inactive SPMs (options 7, 8, 10 and 11 from above combined)*
- 4 = No Self-Protection (option 12 from above)*

➔ **Broader Categories Question 21**

Coding Instructions:

- 1 = Offensive PPE (options 1, 2, 11, 13, 22 and 23 from above combined)*
- 2 = Inoffensive PPE (options 4, 5, 7, 15, 16, 17, 20, 21, 25 and 26 from above combined)*
- 3 = Offensive and Inoffensive PPE (options 12, 14 and 27 from above combined)*
- 4 = Other SPMs (options 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 18, 19, 24 and 28 from above combined)*
- 5 = Nothing (option 29 from above)*

Question 22: 'Do you protect yourself because of your last experience of physical assault at work?

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Yes*
- 2 = No*
- 3 = Unsure*

Question 23: Have you considered changing anything about your job because of your last experience of physical assault at work?'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Thinking about leaving the Security Industry*
- 2 = Thinking about changing to a less dangerous Security job*
- 3 = No changes*

Question 24: 'It would be greatly appreciated if you were willing to give a face-to-face interview and answer further questions about your workplace violence experience(s). The researcher would travel to a location which suits you and your identity would be kept confidential. Talking to you is the only way to find out more about any problems security officers face at work. This will help us to improve your safety and the support provided to you.'

Coding instructions:

- 1 = Yes, 2 = No*

Appendix 13 – Non-Disclosure Confidentiality Form Transcription Service

NON-DISCLOSURE/CONFIDENTIALITY FORM – TRANSCRIPTION SERVICES

FOR:

Name: Benjamin C KOEPPEN
 Programme of Study: Criminology PhD
 Address: 9-11 Prebend Street, Leicester, LE2 0LA
 e-mail: bck4@leicester.ac.uk

		TICK BOX	
		Yes	No
1.	I confirm that I am a trained Transcriptionist with over 15 years experience and can transcribe research recordings for transcription.	✓	
2.	I understand that the recordings received are for transcription only and may contain confidential and/or privileged material.	✓	
3.	I agree that any re-transmission, dissemination or other use of the recordings or transcriptions is prohibited.	✓	
4.	I agree to delete all recordings and transcriptions when my services are agreed as complete.	✓	
5.	I agree to keep confidential any information I receive regarding this assignment.	✓	

Signature: *H. P. [Signature]*
 Firm: *VIRTUAL SECRETARIAL SERVICES*
 Date: *9/11/2016*

Appendix 14 – Categories of Emotions

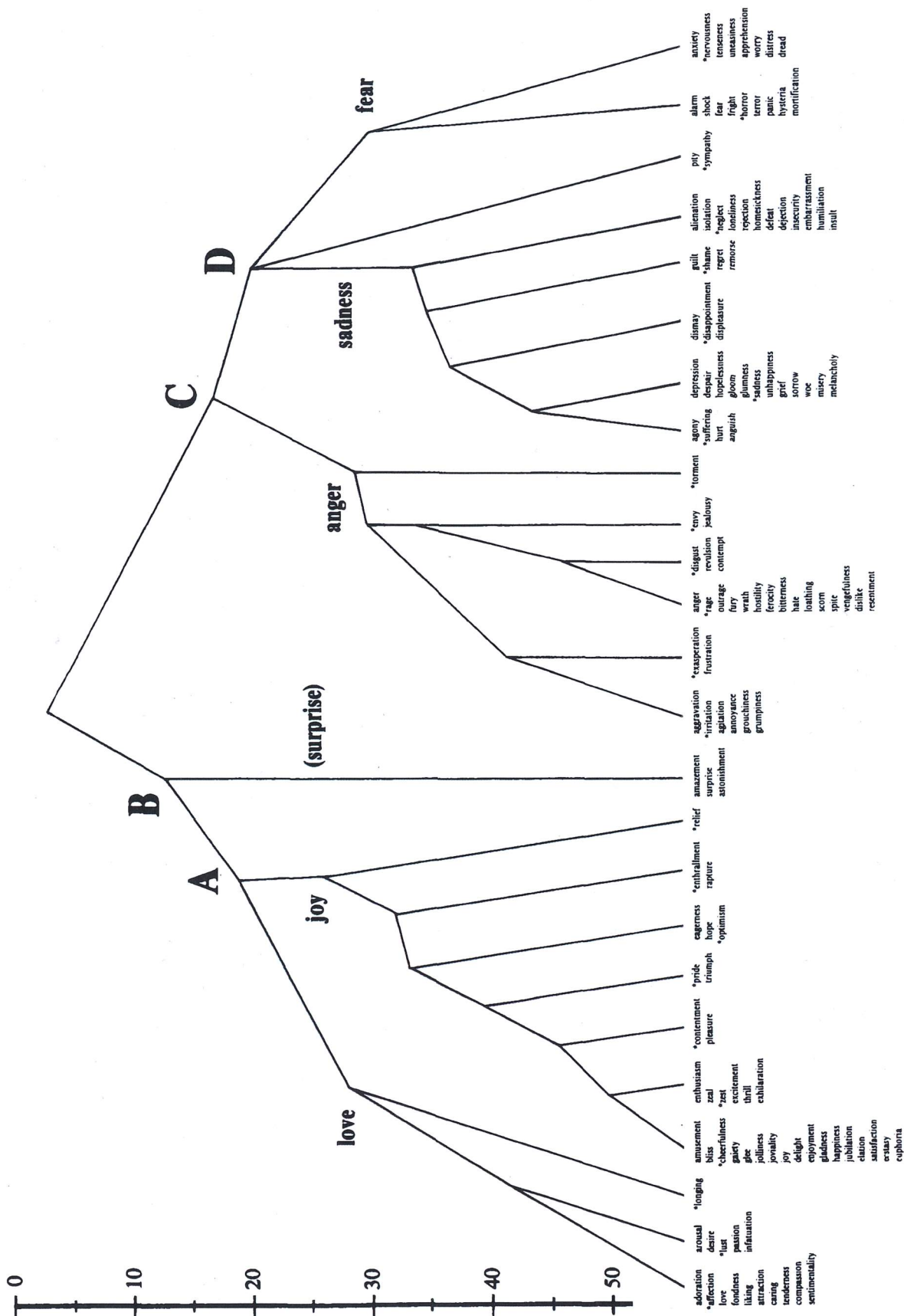


Figure 1 Results of a hierarchical cluster analysis of 135 emotion names. (Cluster strength can be determined by referring to numerical scale at left. Asterisks indicate empirically selected subcluster names.)