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WORKPLACE VIOLENCE: INTERPERSONAL TENDENCIES, VICTIMISATION
AND DISCLOSURE

VALERIE SAVOIE

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

Research on workplace violence has mostly studied organisational and personal consequences of the phenomenon, and has focussed on specific “at risk” occupations (e.g. A&E), offering very little data on other elements such as disclosure, victims’ individual characteristics, the range of violence involved, and victimisation in ‘low risk’ occupations. This research examines a new perspective of the nature of violence in the context of home-visit settings by looking at victimisation in a “low risk” occupation: loan sellers. It offers a more in-depth definition of workplace victimisation “outside office” settings by studying violence experienced by taxi drivers.

Based on the Interpersonal Transaction model of offending put forward by Canter (1989) suggesting a certain degree of interpersonal interaction between the offender and the victim, the present study investigates the possible relationship between victims’ interpersonal tendencies and victimisation and crime disclosure. By using the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) scale (Schutz, 1958) analyses were conducted to look at relationships between victims’ interpersonal tendencies and victimisation (types of incident experienced) and crime disclosure.

Two samples were recruited: 1) 1,868 Polish home-visit loan sellers, 2) 47 British taxi drivers. All participants completed a questionnaire with the FIRO-B scale and two British taxi drivers were interviewed for case studies.

Quantitative analyses revealed that victims scored significantly higher on Received Control and Socio-Emotional Affect than non-victims. Significant relationships were found between certain types of incidents and interpersonal tendencies: Expressed Control and physical threat from an intoxicated customer (Kendall’s tau $b=.237$, $p<.05$), actual violence from an intoxicated customer (Kendall’s tau $b=.279$, $p<.05$), and multiple victimisations (Kendall’s tau $b=.227$, $p<.05$).

Differences were observed between samples. Loan sellers were more frequently victimised by customers who did not appear intoxicated compared to taxi drivers who were more likely to be victimised by inebriated customers. The latter also seemed to be more at risk of more serious forms of violence.

As to disclosure, loan sellers who reported an incident obtained significant higher scores on Received Control and lower scores on Socio-Emotional Affect and Expressed Control than those who did not report an incident. Taxi drivers obtained a significant Kendall tau correlation between reporting and Expressed Control (Kendall’s tau $b=.283$, $p<.05$), which is opposing results from the loan sellers sample.

Qualitative analyses revealed “inaction from the police” and “waste of time” as the two main reasons for not reporting an incident. Interactions with the offender and behaviours leading to escalation were also dominant themes within the two case studies.

By examining the relationship between victims’ interpersonal tendencies and workplace victimisation and disclosure, the current study offers a foundation for the development of an Interpersonal Transaction model of Victimisation and opens new research avenues on personality correlates of crime disclosure.

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Chapter I

Context and Importance of the Study

1.1. Introduction

Although, there has been a decrease of violence at the work place in the past decade (Buckley, 2014; Buckley, Cookson, and Packham, 2010; Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2009; Webster, Patterson, Hoare, and O'Loughlin, 2008), workplace violence still affects thousands of workers worldwide (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006). For instance, it remains the third-leading cause of work-related death to date in the United States (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009) and the second-leading cause of fatal occupational injury among American women (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009; Gurka, Marshall, Runyan, Loomis, Casteel, and Richardson, 2009). According to the European Commission: "The prevalence of workplace-related violence is difficult to estimate because of the general absence of either national level or occupational level data on this issue" (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006, pp.31-32). Despite the difficulty encountered in the collection of accurate data, interest in workplace violence in social sciences has grown particularly in the past two decades.

1.2. Research hypotheses and theoretical framework

1.2.1. Victimisation. Victims of crime have been highly investigated in social sciences, leading to the creation of a new discipline called Victimology (e.g. Daigle, 2013). Victimisation and personality studies suggest that certain types of personality or specific personality traits could increase an individual's risk of becoming the target of victimisation, which they called target profiles (e.g. Aquino and Bradfield, 2000; Aquino and Thau, 2009; Neuman and Baron, 1998). This implies that certain traits, for instance dominant behaviours, could have a direct impact on the likelihood of

becoming a victim at the workplace. This, combined with theories suggesting that the victim's reaction to the offender's actions has an influence on the outcome of the situation (Felson, 2006), implies that certain elements specific to the individual could have an effect on his/her degree of victimisation. Added to Canter's (1989) theory of crime as a certain form of interpersonal transaction between the offender and the victim (see Chapter III for more details), the present research hypothesises that some aspects of the victim's interpersonal tendencies would obtain strong correlations with incidents, hence a strong relationship with the risk of becoming a victim at the workplace.

1.2.2. Disclosure. The second area investigated in this research is the level of incident disclosure at work and the underlying reasons behind it. Very little is known on workplace disclosure, but research on crime disclosure in general shows that its rate varies between genders, types of offence, and in regard to the offence's perceived seriousness (e.g. Pino and Meier, 1999; Skogan, 1984; Thompson, Sitterle, Clay, and Kingree, 2010). So the present study has gathered information on the workplace crime disclosure rate in order to compare it between different groups. In addition, data were collected on the reasons behind reporting and under-reporting from various crime surveys (e.g. Tarling and Morris, 2010). According to these data, the most frequent reason provided for not reporting a crime was because it was perceived as not serious enough to be reported. In order to get a better understanding of workplace violence disclosure and the reasons behind it, this research investigates the matter by collecting data on both reasons for reporting and reasons for not reporting an incident. It also hypothesises differences between genders and forms of violence on their reporting rate. Additionally, the present research examines the possible relationship between the victim's interpersonal tendencies and crime disclosure.

1.3. Aims and objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to provide further information to the current knowledge on workplace violence by investigating two neglected elements from the literature: 1) workplace victimisation and its relationship with victims' characteristics; and 2) workplace victimisation disclosure and factors that might influence it. It proposes a different perspective to crime by looking at it as a certain form of interpersonal transaction between the victim and the offender (Canter, 1989). It argues that investigating the victim's interpersonal tendencies could provide information on personality target profiles, creating a base for the development of an Interpersonal Transaction model of Victimisation. Furthermore, more data on crime disclosure in general, but more specifically on workplace violence disclosure, is needed in order to provide an accurate picture of the phenomenon and enhance crime statistics. Looking at the reasons behind the decision of reporting would also impact on the understanding of crime disclosure as a whole. This research aims to offer more information on these matters and by looking at the potential relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and workplace violence disclosure, it intends to provide information on personality correlates of crime disclosure.

1.4. Overview of the methodology

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected for the purpose of this study. This mixed methodology strengthens its findings as they are complementing each other. The first data collection involved the quantitative approach. The quantitative approach involved the use of questionnaires on which descriptive, incident, disclosure, and interpersonal tendency variables were collected. The use of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation- Behavior (Schutz, 1958) to measure the

participants' interpersonal trends also raised a certain debate on its coding and facet structure validity, which was examined in deeper details by use of a Facet Theory approach, which is Smallest Space Analysis. Conventional correlations, chi-square, and t-tests analyses were performed in the quantitative aspect of the study.

The qualitative data of this study were collected by means of semi-structured interviews with victims of workplace violence. The collection of these data was conducted after the first part of the quantitative analysis was performed. As this raised further questions and hypotheses, the recruitment of another sample and the use of both questionnaires and interviews seemed to be the most accurate method for this research. Due to the small sample size from the interviews, they were considered as case studies and therefore the use of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis was chosen for their interpretations of the interview transcripts. Additionally, Content Analysis was also performed in order to compare and perhaps associate qualitative responses with quantitative answers.

1.5. Definitions.

Before looking further at the prevalence of workplace violence and its components, it is important to define what constitutes this phenomenon. The literature shows a lack of agreement and confusion regarding the definitions of what constitutes violence and what constitutes a workplace. In addition, studies on this topic have used various terms such as workplace violence, workplace aggression, or workplace victimisation to define the topic. For the purpose of this research, the terms workplace violence and workplace victimisation are used alternatively to describe this topic.

1.5.1. Violence. For some authors, violence only includes actions that relate to physical harm inflicted on others or on oneself (Reiss and Roth, 1993), consequently

excluding psychological/emotional violence and acts against properties. In addition, certain studies interchangeably use the terms violence and aggression, which would suggest that violence and aggression are similar and again would relate violence more specifically to physical harm neglecting its psychological aspect. As Budd (1999) suggests from her findings from the British Crime Survey, the experience of violence at work is still subjective to the perception of the victims. Some workers might see a situation as frightening and violent, while others may not. She also notes that victims of threats were as frightened, if not even more, than victims of assaults. This corroborates the importance to include psychological violence such as bullying and threats in the definition of violence.

1.5.2. Workplace. In regard to the workplace, again some definitions might be too specific and may exclude certain types of workplace. For instance, Chappell and Di Martino (2000) note that data collected for official crime statistics often only take into consideration violence that happened in offices, commercial premises, schools, or other physical settings. Therefore, mobile or geographically diverse employments such as taxi and bus drivers, journalists and law enforcement officers, workers whose work involves home visits like plumbers, postal officers, and people who work at home are not taken into account. The definition of workplace should then be much broader and include any type of work settings. The location where the victim considers him/herself “on duty” should then be defined as his/her workplace.

1.5.3. Workplace violence. Violence at work should include all types of violence occurring in all types of occupational settings. The European Commission agreed to define workplace violence as: “Incidents where persons are abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances related to their work, involving an explicit or implicit

challenge to their safety, well-being or health” (Leather, Brady, Lawrence, Beale, and Cox, 1998). Therefore, workplace violence may involve a wide range of behaviours, which may overlap each other, as presented in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

Examples of violent behaviours in the workplace

Physical	Psychological
Homicide	Stalking
Rape	Harassment, including sexual and racial abuse
Robbery	Bullying
Wounding	Victimizing
Battering	Intimidation
Physical attacks, including sexual assaults	Threats
Kicking	Leaving offensive messages
Biting	Aggressive posturing
Punching	Rude gestures
Spitting	Hostile behaviour
Scratching	Swearing
Squeezing, pinching and related actions	Shouting
Mobbing	Name-calling
Interfering with work tools and equipment (damage to property)	Deliberate silence
	Ostracism
	Innuendo

Source: Chappell and Di Martino, 2000

Despite numerous empirical and descriptive investigations of the phenomenon, data on workplace violence remain mainly descriptive and some of its components are still yet to be examined.

1.6. Chapters synopses

This research provides further empirical data on workplace violence, more specifically on factors affecting victimisation and disclosure. An overview of the

previous and current literature is presented, stressing the importance of studying workplace violence, particularly topics that have been highly neglected such as “low risk” occupations and workplace violence disclosure. A summary of research on victimisation and personality and on crime disclosure provides further justifications for this research’s topics and for the use of the FIRO-B to examine victims’ interpersonal tendencies and its relationship with victimisation and disclosure. To study these possible relationships and further information on workplace victimisation and disclosure, quantitative and qualitative analyses are conducted and presented in details. The use of common statistical methods such as correlations and t-tests as well as Smallest Space Analysis is justified. Mixed with qualitative analysis, this research provides a greater understanding of the nature of workplace victimisation and its disclosure. These analyses are performed to examine victimisation from two samples represented by Polish loan sellers and British taxi drivers. Similar analyses are also conducted on the same samples in regard to workplace violence disclosure. The British taxi drivers sample also provided two case studies which are examined and interpreted using Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis and Content Analysis which enhances the quantitative findings on both victimisation and disclosure, providing other aspects which might influence disclosure such as perceived victimisation and other aspects of victimisation such as the victim precipitation. In order to look for any similarities or differences between the two samples, comparisons are conducted on both victimisation and disclosure variables in relation to their relationships with interpersonal tendencies. Finally, results are gathered together and discussed, providing explanations, contributions, implications, limitations, and future avenues on the phenomenon of workplace violence.

Chapter II

Prevalence and Characteristics of Workplace Violence

This chapter presents an overview of the past and current literature on workplace violence. Current statistics, both on national and international levels, are presented, as well as further information on risk factors, gender differences, types of offender, and level of reporting.

2.1. Introduction

Violence at the workplace involves all forms of violence in every kind of setting. It affects people from all ages and genders, but also has a direct impact on the organisations involved such as costs in increasing security, repairs, loss of productivity, negative publicity, lawyer's fees, but most importantly loss of employees/turnover (Whitmore and Kleiner, 1999). Its source can be divided into two broad categories. First, there is the internal workplace violence which involves violence within the organisation, including co-workers, managers and supervisors. Second, there is the external workplace violence which takes place at the work place but involves outsiders from the organisation, including relatives, strangers and clients (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006). Although few studies have discriminated between sources, research evidence shows that there are different reasons behind and costs of aggression from different sources (e.g., Hershcovis and Barling, 2010; Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002), emphasising the importance of making this distinction. A study comprised of 254 workers representing 71 different occupations compared public-initiated and co-worker-initiated violence and aggression on personal consequences (e.g., fear of future violence) and organisational outcomes (e.g., turnover). They found significant relationships between both public-initiated violence and aggression with fear of future

violence, while co-worker-initiated violence and aggression was not significantly related with this variable (Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002). They suggested that the significant results might be explained by the victims perceiving this type of violence as a function of their occupation. Their results also show stronger relationships between violence and aggression committed by a co-worker on well-being variables compared to public-initiated violence and aggression. Both sources of violence obtained significant negative correlations with well-being variables, but it appears that co-worker initiated violence had a stronger adverse effect on victims' well-being. More recently, Hershcovis and Barling (2010) have conducted a meta-analysis of 55 independent studies on nonphysical workplace aggression where the perpetrator was defined (39 samples of supervisor aggression, 22 samples of co-worker aggression, and 32 samples of outsider aggression). They argued that aggression committed by different types of perpetrators would generate different consequences for the victim. They looked at the effect of aggression on various variables such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, intent to turnover, psychological distress, depression, and performance. Their results show significant differences between outsider and co-worker aggression, the latter having a stronger impact on most variables compared to aggression committed by a stranger to the organisation. Interestingly, they also found significant differences between supervisor and co-worker aggression; supervisor aggression having stronger adverse relationships with most variables than co-worker aggression. These studies imply not only that it is important to distinguish the source of workplace violence (external or internal) due to possible dissimilar effects on victims, but also stresses the importance to clarify within the source itself (e.g. supervisor or co-worker). This also suggests that the relationship victim/offender and

the interactions between actors could have a major impact on the personal and organisational outcomes of workplace violence.

2.2. The prevalence of violence at the workplace

2.2.1. International perspective. Violence at work happens to various workers all around the world. Although most data were collected by national agencies and surveys such as the British Crime Survey (BCS) in the United Kingdom and the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) in the United States, there are some international resources available in order to combine and compare data from various countries around the world.

A first international source of information regarding crime victimisation worldwide is the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS). The most recent ICVS was conducted in 2005 and includes data from 30 countries and a large proportion of these data comes from the European Survey on Crime and Safety (EU ICS) (van Dijk, van Kesteren, and Smith, 2007). The survey reports data covering various crimes such as sexual assaults, physical assaults, threats, and consumer fraud. Data on sexual assaults report that overall, half of the victims knew the offender, which was an ex-partner in 11% of the cases, a supervisor or colleague in 17%, the current partner in 8%, and a close friend in 16% of the cases. In regard to physical assaults and threats, half of the victims knew the offender, but men were less likely to know the offender than women (van Dijk et al., 2007). Unfortunately, no specific data on workplace violence were collected in the 2005 ICVS. Nevertheless, the ICVS conducted in 1996 included specific questions related to victimisation at the workplace (for more details see Bradanini, 1998). Although less recent, the data were collected from over 30 countries,

which were divided into six groups based on geopolitical and development criteria at the time of the survey (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1

International Crime Victim Survey 1996- Countries involved in the survey

Western Europe	New World	Countries in Transition	Africa	Asia	Latin America
Austria	Canada	Albania	South Africa	India	Argentina
England and Wales	United States	Czech Republic	Uganda	Indonesia	Bolivia
Finland		Georgia	Zimbabwe	Philippines	Brazil
Netherlands		Hungary			Costa Rica
Northern Ireland		Kyrgyzstan			
Scotland		Latvia			
Sweden		Mongolia			
Switzerland		Poland			
		Romania			
		Russian Federation			
		Republic of Macedonia			
		Yugoslavia			

Source: Chappell and Di Martino, 2000

Overall, victimisation rates for both males and females were higher in industrialised countries. However, rates of both assaults and sexual incidents against women were highest in Latin America with 3.6% of assaults towards women, with 5.2% of women being sexually assaulted, but with one of the lowest rates for assaults towards men, 1.9% (Alvazzi del Frate, 1998). Table 2.2 shows the percentage of the prevalence of victimisation rates for assaults towards men and women and sexual incidents against women in 1996.

Table 2.2

Prevalence rates of victimisation at the workplace as percentage by type of incident, gender, and region from the 1996 ICVS

Region	Assaults		Sexual incidents (Female only)
	Male	Female	
Western Europe	2.7	3.0	5.4
New World	2.5	4.6	7.5
Africa	2.3	1.9	3.7
Countries in transition	2.0	1.4	3.0
Latin America	1.9	3.6	5.2
Asia	0.4	1.0	1.3

Source: Chappell and Di Martino, 2000

Finally, as presented in Table 2.3, the location where the incidents occurred varied depending on the type of incident and the gender of the victim. Overall, most sexual incidents occurred in the city where the victim lived, with over a third of the total rape cases occurring in the victim's own home, 37.6% of the attempted rapes occurred near to the victim's home, and over a third of the indecent assaults and almost half of the offensive behaviour cases happened elsewhere in the city. In regard to the workplace more specifically, the highest rates of sexual incidents recorded were offensive behaviours in over 13% of the cases. Rape, attempted rape, and indecent assault incidents at the workplace occurred between 7.5% and 9.8% of the cases.

It is important to note that, despite the use of standard methodologies, data from any of the ICVS could be biased by cultural differences. Sometimes, the context or wording of a question might elicit different answers in different languages and cultures (Chappell and Di Martino, 2000). The severity of an incident might also be perceived differently depending on the victim's culture, language, and the context. For instance,

if lower rates of victimisation were reported in Asia and Africa compare to Western European countries, it could be explained by lower rates of external employment for women in those regions. Also, in certain regions, the survey was administrated in the household with the presence of family members during the interview and therefore participants might have under-reported some incidents, mostly in regard to sexual assaults which could sometimes happen in the family or be perceived as taboo by diverse cultures. Consequently, data from the 1996 ICVS must be interpreted with great caution.

Table 2.3

Context of victimisation as a percentage by gender, type of incident and place of occurrence from the 1996 ICVS

	In own home	Near own home	At the workplace	Elsewhere in the city	Elsewhere in the country	Abroad
<i>Sexual incidents (women victims only)</i>						
Rape	37.4	24.3	7.5	19.6	8.4	2.8
Attempted rape	20.2	37.6	9.8	24.0	6.3	1.0
Indecent assault	8.3	31.7	9.4	36.8	9.6	3.6
Offensive behaviour	5.8	20.6	13.6	48.2	7.2	2.7
<i>Non-sexual assault</i>						
Men victims	11.8	29.2	13.2	38.5	5.2	1.5
Women victims	23.3	30.7	11.9	27.4	4.4	1.6

Source: Chappell and Di Martino, 2000

A second source of information regarding crime victimisation, and more specifically workplace violence, is the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS). The most recent EWCS (fourth) was carried out in 2005 and includes data from 31 European countries: the 25 member states of the European Union (from 2004), 2 acceding

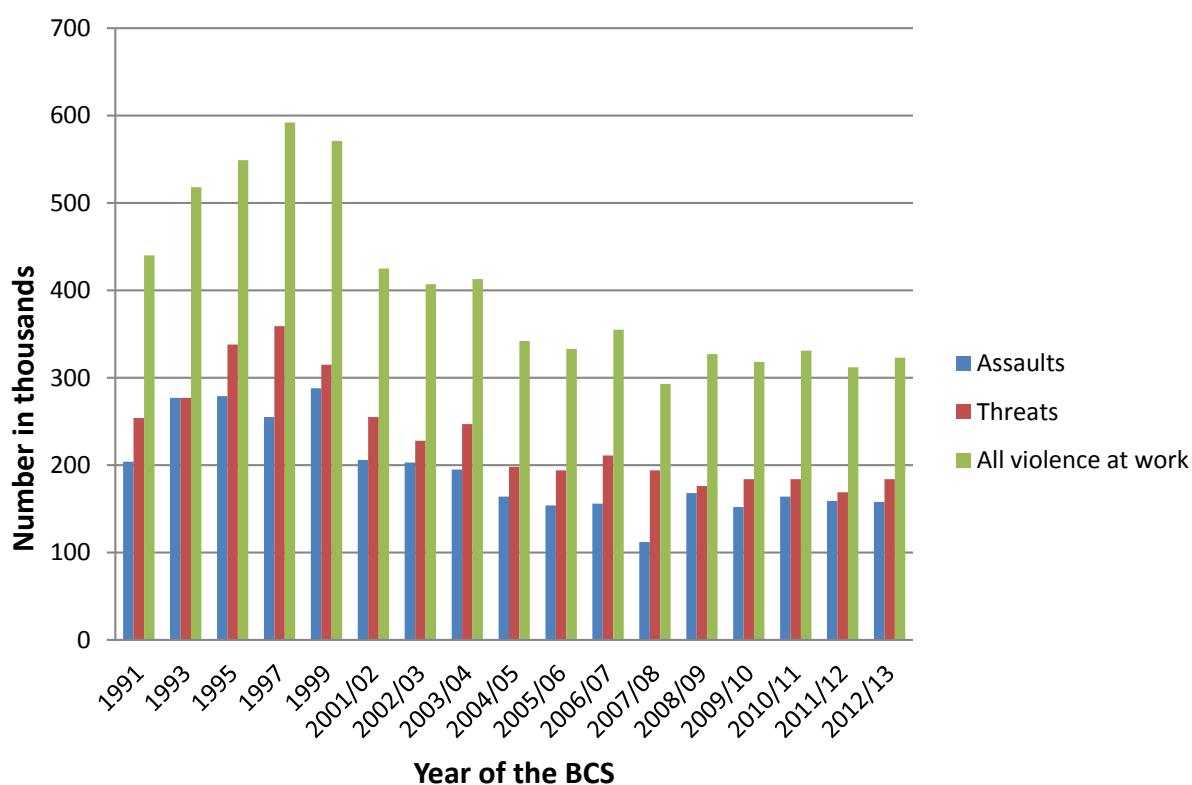
countries (Romania and Bulgaria), 2 candidate countries (Croatia and Turkey), and Norway and Switzerland which financed their own participation in the survey (for more details see Parent-Thirion, Fernández Macías, Hurley, and Vermeylen, 2007).

Overall, 5% of the respondents reported being subjected to physical violence at work. Countries above average included the Netherlands (10%), France and the United Kingdom (9%) and Ireland (8%). When looking at physical violence in the form of threats, 6% of the overall sample reported to having been victimised in this way. Findings also show that more workers seemed affected by physical violence from people outside the workplace (4%) than from colleagues or co-workers (2%). In regard to harassment or bullying, 5% of the respondents have experienced this type of violence within the 12-month period preceding the survey. However, the percentage widely varied between countries, ranging from 17% in Finland and 12% in the Netherlands to 2% in Italy and Bulgaria. Another type of harassment was also examined in the survey, sexual harassment or unwanted sexual attention. This type of harassment was reported by fewer than 2% of the respondents overall. Again, percentages greatly varied between genders and countries. When looking at women only, women in Czech Republic (10%), Norway (7%), Turkey, Croatia (6%), Denmark, Sweden, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (5%) are the most affected. Finally, only about 1% of the respondents reported experiencing discrimination based on their religion, ethnic origin or sexual orientation.

In 2007, a report from van Dijk, van Kesteren, and Smit presented crime statistics from both the International Crime Victims Survey and the European Survey on Crime and Safety for the year 2004-2005. Many differences were found between countries on crime occurrence and disclosure. For example, rates of physical assaults were higher in

countries such as Northern Ireland, Iceland, England and Wales, Ireland, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the USA (4% and above) and lower in Italy, Portugal, Hungary, and Spain (below 2%). As to disclosure, the highest reporting rates were in Austria (70%), Belgium (68%), Sweden (64%), Switzerland (63%), and United Kingdom (61%), whereas medium rates were observed in Poland (46%), Estonia (43%), Iceland (40%), Turkey (38%), South Africa (35%), and Bulgaria (35%) and the lowest rates in Brazil (Rio:18%-Sao Paulo:12%), Mozambique (17%), Peru (16%), Mexico (16%), and Cambodia (14%). But again, it is important to bear in mind the possible biases of this survey. Just like in the case of the ICVS, possible cultural biases might lead to under-reporting for many of those categories of violence at work. There is also the possibility that the workers affected by those types of violence have left their work and therefore have not taken part in the survey.

2.2.2. Perspective from the western countries. Most countries around the world conduct national surveys in order to collect data on health and safety and victimisation at the workplace. In the United Kingdom (UK), the main source of data is the British Crime Survey (BCS). The latest one available was conducted in 2012/13 (see Buckley, 2014 for more details).



Source: Buckley, 2013; 2014; Buckley et al., 2010

Figure 2.1. Number of victims of violence at work for adults of working age in employment, 1991-2012/13, statistics from the British Crime Survey

Overall, the risk of victimisation at the workplace is very low within the UK.

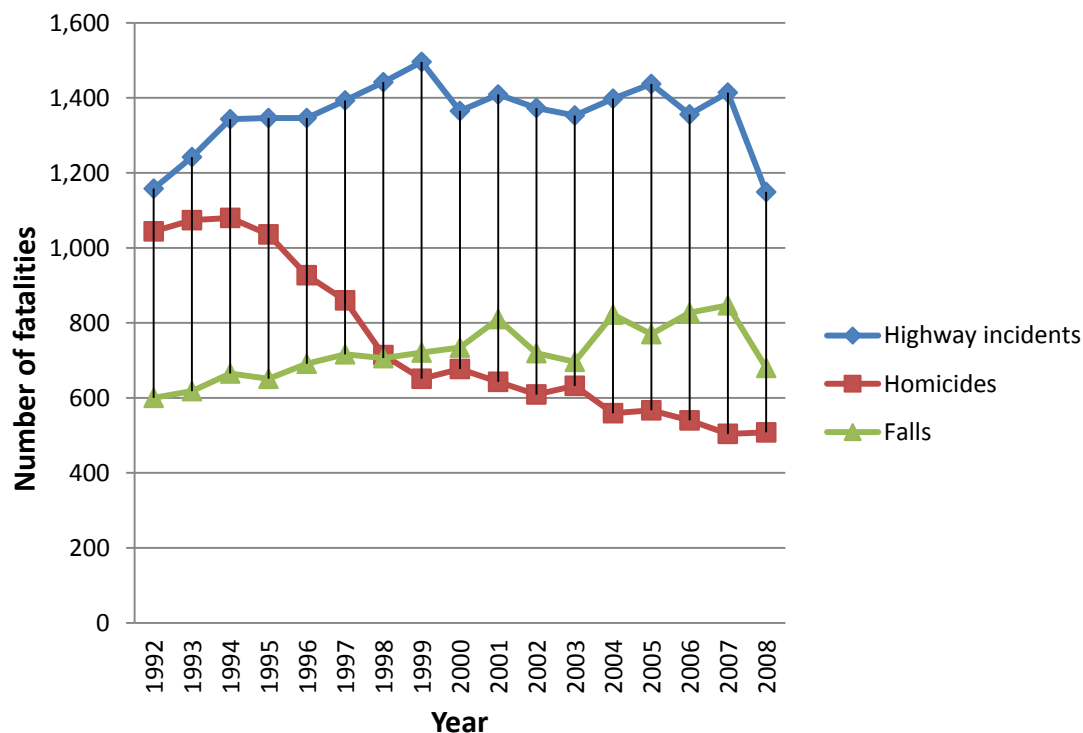
Findings show that only 1.4% of working adults were victim of one or more incidents of violence at work during the working year 2012/13, consistent with the last few years (Buckley, 2014). This differs from the numbers presented by the Trade Union Congress survey in 1999, which suggested that one in five workers were subject to a violent attack or abuse at work each year (TUC, 1999). The 2012/13 survey reported a decline of victimisation (323 000 victims) of almost 55% since its peak of 592 000 in 1997 (see Figure 2.1). Similar results were reported in regard to the total incidents at work. In 2012/13, 649 000 violent incidents at work were reported from which 332 000 were assaults and 317 000 were threats. Although they seem to be important

figures, there is still a significant drop of 46% from its peak in 1995 when 1 404 000 violent incidents at work were recorded (Buckley, 2014; Buckley et al., 2010). The inequality between the total incidents and the number of victims, as well as the total victims and the sum of assaults and threats, can be explained by the fact that some victims were victimised more than once within the year preceding the survey, for instance being victim of both threat and assault.

In Canada, data on workplace violence were collected in the General Social Survey (GSS) on victimisation in 2004 (de Léséleuc, 2007). In 2004 over 356 000 violent incidents were reported at the workplace across the ten provinces of Canada. This represented 17% of all self-reported violent incidents, including sexual assault, robbery and physical assault. However, according to the 2004 GSS, these frequencies varied among provinces across the country. For instance, from the total incidents reported in Newfoundland and Labrador, 40% of them occurred at the respondent's workplace, while the proportion was at least half of this for the rest of the provinces, ranging from 11% in Nova Scotia to 20% in both Alberta and Saskatchewan (de Léséleuc, 2007). Although less violent incidents occurred at the workplace, the proportion of injuries related to workplace violence (21%) was similar to the one of non-workplace violence (23%). Nevertheless, when looking at specific types of incidents, the proportion between workplace and non-workplace violence varied. For example, 71% of all violent incidents at the workplace were physical assaults, compared to 57% of non-workplace violence incidents. In contrast, sexual assaults seemed less frequent at the workplace (24%) than in non-workplace settings (34%). Overall, physical assault was the most frequent type of violent incident despite the location.

In the United States (US), the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) are the major sources of information regarding workplace violence. According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, in 2001, violent workplace incidents accounted for 18% of all violent crime in the United States. Additionally, it was estimated that 1.7 million workers were injured each year due to violent workplace incidents (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003). Similar figures were reported by the National Safe Workplace Institute which stated that over 2 million of workers reported being attacked at work in 2001 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003). This number was corroborated by the Insurance Information Network of California which reported that more than 2 million people were victims of workplace violence, resulting in approximately 650 homicides, 2 million assaults and about 6 million serious threats (Insurance Information Network of California, 2001). OSHA added that, each week in the US, around 18 000 workers were victims of non-fatal workplace violence and 20 workers were murdered at work

(OSHA, 2001). The latter frequencies did not include the victims of the 9/11 attacks.



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009

Figure 2.2. The three main causes of fatal incidents at work in the United States between 1992 and 2008

Figure 2.2 presents the most frequent work-related fatal events in the United States from 1992 to 2008. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009), workplace homicides have declined over 50% since its peak in 1994, passing from 1080 to 508 in 2008. Similarly, fatal falls appear to be at their lowest since 1995. Once more, it is important to bear in mind that data from 2001 do not include the victims of the terrorist attacks on September 11th 2001.

2.3. Perpetrators of workplace violence

Most research and early theory on workplace violence paid more attention to members of the organisations as both source and target of these behaviours, neglecting other possible perpetrators such as strangers and customers (Yagil, 2008). An early

study conducted by Swanton in 1989 suggests that violence at work could be divided into five broad categories of perpetrator's motivation.

- **Random violence:** Violence expressed by persons unable to form clear intent, intoxicated, or persons suffering from health problems (e.g. epilepsy or mental health issues), and such behaviour is usually unreasoned.
- **Instrumental violence:** Intimidation employed to achieve a desired end.
- **Expressive violence:** Violence is the product of extreme irritation, related to the perpetrator's feelings.
- **Violence resulting from unmet needs:** Unmet physical, emotional, and/or self-identity needs leave the perpetrator with anger or shame toward the organisation, co-workers, or oneself.
- **Criminal violence:** Violence is expressed in pursuit of criminal goals.

Although Swanton's (1989) categories could be useful to understand the motives behind those acts, some of the categories overlap and could be divided between the dichotomous definitions of Instrumental and Expressive violence. Instrumental violence can be defined as a desire for objects or status possessed by others and the behaviours are committed in order to achieve those objects or status, as a secondary goal (Fesbach, 1964; Youngs, 2004). Usually, the offender does not intend to harm anyone, but tries to obtain the desired goal at all costs, therefore the offender might feel forced to use violence if someone is in the way. This definition of violence could include Swanton's instrumental and criminal types of violence. Expressive violence involves behaviours that are the direct expression of the offender's anger and hostility towards someone, him/herself, or an organisation and usually the primary goal or need is achieved by the execution of the particular violent act against the victim (Fesbach,

1964; Youngs, 2004). Those behaviours would include Swanton's random, expressive and unmet needs types of violence. This idea of Instrumental and Expressive violence also links with the Victim's Role theory suggesting that offenders' would perceive their victims either as an object (dehumanised) used to fulfil a desire, as a vehicle associated to a representative symbol to the offender, or as a person manipulated and controlled by the offender (Canter and Youngs, 2012). Based on McAdams' (1993) core life narrative theory which suggests that individuals' narratives are influenced by their quest for power and intimacy, the Victim Role theory divided each role by the aspects of control (power) used and aspects of intimacy during the offence. This would imply that the offender's motivation added to his/her perception of the potential victim would have a great influence on the outcome of the offence.

However, most studies in the literature use the Californian Division of Occupational Safety and Health Administration's (CAL/OSHA) model of workplace violence developed in 1995 and later modified by the Injury Prevention Research Center (OSHA, 2001). The model divides workplace violence into four categories based on the motive and the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim.

Type I: Criminal intent violence

- First motive is theft
- Deadly weapon used
- Risk factors: exchange cash, work late/night shift, lone worker
- 85% of all workplace homicides (CAL/OSHA, 1995)
- Violence is committed by a stranger without a previous relationship with the workplace or its employees

Type II: Customer/client violence

- Perpetrator is a customer/client
- Conjunction with worker's normal duties
- Risk factors: mental health workers, A&E workers, law enforcement officers
- 3% of workplace homicides yearly (CAL/OSHA, 1995)
- Customer or recipient of service commits acts of violence against an employee

Type III: Worker-on-worker violence

Perpetrator is an employee or former employee
 Interpersonal or work-related disputes
 7% of all workplace homicides (CAL/OSHA, 1995)
 Violence perpetrated by former or current employees on co-workers

Type IV: Personal relationship violence

Not an employee or former employee
 Conflict/spill over of domestic violence into the workplace
 Women are targeted more than men
 Violence committed by perpetrator known personally to an employee such as a friend, relatives, or intimate partner

Overall, research on workplace violence shows similar characteristics in regard to who perpetrates these types of incident. Most studies state that the perpetrators are men in over 80% of cases (Warshol, 1998; Workplace Violence Headquarters, 2005), in many cases they are over 30 years old (Warshol, 1998; Workplace Violence Headquarters, 2005), and they work alone in almost 85% of cases (Warshol, 1998). However, in regard to the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, data seem to vary across nations. Some studies report that 66% of physical and verbal assaults are committed by strangers (type I) and customers (type II) especially with male victims (van Dijk, et al., 2007; Northwestern National Life Insurance, 1993; Workplace Violence Headquarters, 2005), while less than 30% of workplace violent incidents were reported to be committed by former or current employees (type III). Research shows that, although being murdered by a colleague or supervisor receives a great deal of attention, in reality, it accounts for only 4% of workplace homicides (Paludi, Nydegger, and Paludi, 2006). The majority of the perpetrators are from outside the organisation (Paludi et al., 2006; Parent-Thirion et al., 2007). The most recent figures obtained during the British Crime Survey revealed that 60% of workplace violent incidents were committed by strangers (Buckley, 2014) and that

among the incidents that were committed by known perpetrators the offenders were most likely to be clients or a member of the public known through work. On the other hand, the GSS survey conducted in Canada reported that two-thirds of workplace related violent incidents were committed by perpetrators known by the victim, most of them being members of the public or customers who came into contact with the victim (Leblanc and Barling, 2004). This does not contradict the previous figures, suggesting that a great proportion of workplace violence is committed by customers or acquaintances, but it does not support that most offenders at the workplace are strangers.

The relationship between the victim and the perpetrator also differ between physical assaults and homicides at the workplace, as presented in Table 2.4. In both cases, customers commit a great proportion of the offences, but the greater difference can be seen between the two types of crime regarding the involvement of strangers and employees. In regard to the motivation behind workplace violence, studies agree that the most frequent motive is robbery (Paludi et al, 2006), in more than 81% of cases (Greenberg and Baron, 1997). Other motives include business disputes in 8.69% of cases, police in the line of duty in 5.59%, and personal disputes in 3.9% (Greenberg and Baron, 1997).

Table 2.4

Differentiation between Physical Assaults and Homicides

Physical Assaults	Homicides
Customers 40%	Strangers 60%
Current employee 26%	Customers 30%
Strangers 25%	Employees 7%
Domestic spill over 6%	Domestic spill over 3%
Former employees 3%	

2.4. Victimisation

2.4.1. Victims of workplace violence. As it is the case for research on perpetrators, research on victims of workplace violence shows some dissimilarity between studies and countries. For instance, OSHA (2001) reported that 66% of the workplace violence victims in 2001 were male. On the other hand, international reports suggest that violence disproportionately affects more women, children and young people as well as socially and economically disadvantaged groups, and this in both developing and industrialised countries (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006; TUC, 1999). Although patchy, international data seem consistent in that women tend to be highly subjected to verbal abuse, while men are more affected by threats and physical assaults (Chappell and Di Martino, 2000; Parent-Thirion et al., 2007; Scalora, O'Neil Washington, Casady, Newell, 2003). Therefore, the differences between gender victimisation might be explained depending on the type of workplace incident involved. The 2005 EWCS clearly demonstrates these differences, stating that women are more affected by bullying/harassment (6%) than men (4%), as well as being sexually harassed as much as 3 times more than their male colleagues. In addition, younger women, under 30

years old, are much more at risk to being both bullied (8%) and sexually harassed (6%) than older women. However, the results of that survey show that neither sex, nor employment and contractual status shows a significant impact on exposure to violence, although there are major variations between occupations.

For instance, Leblanc and Kelloway (2002) developed a measure of job-related risk factors based on a review of the workplace violence literature using the data of 254 employees representing 71 different occupations. Although they did not present the differences between specific occupations, their analyses obtained significant correlations between particular job characteristics and public-initiated violence (see Table 2.5).

Table 2.5

Significant correlation coefficients between job characteristics and public-initiated violence

Items	Public Violence
Exercise physical control over others	.57**
Handle weapons other than guns	.44**
Contact with individuals taking medication	.40**
Handle guns	.40**
Exercise security functions	.35**
Physical care of others	.33**
Decisions that influence other people's lives	.32**
Discipline others	.30**
Interact with frustrated individuals	.28**
Go to clients' home	.26**
Contact with individuals under the influence of illegal drugs	.24**
Emotional care of others	.22**
Guard valuables	.22**
Work alone during the day	.22**
Supervise others	.19**
Contact with individuals under the influence of alcohol	.19**
Work alone during the evening/night	.17*
Handle valuables	.15*
Deny the public a service or request	.15*
Dispense drugs	.14*
Collect items of value	.14*
Work evenings/nights	.14*

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Source Leblanc and Kelloway (2002)

More recently, Parent-Thirion et al. (2007) produced a report on workplace violence from 31 European countries representing a variety of occupations. Statistics revealed differences on the level of violence experienced by sector and also by occupation. For instance, the health, education, hotel and restaurants, transport and communication, and public administration and defence sectors experienced the highest levels of threat of violence and violence. In addition, hotel and restaurants, transport and communication, and health sectors experienced highest rates of bullying and unwanted sexual attention. As to specific occupations, the most exposed occupations are presented in table 2.6.

Table 2.6

Sectors and occupations at risk

Education

Health: doctors, nurses, health professionals, mental health workers

Public administration

Defence: police officers, prison officers, security guards

Transport: taxi drivers, bus drivers, train drivers

Communication: reporters, journalists

Hospitality: restaurant/bar workers, hotel workers

Retail: shop workers

Source: British Crime Survey, 2007; Castillo and Jenkins, 1994; Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002; Smith, 2002

The occupations/industries which appear to be most at risk of workplace violence are similar across the industrialised world and seem to remain relatively constant over time (Standing and Nicolini, 1997). The most at risk are police officers or protective services, health workers, prison officers, but recently occupations usually considered at low risk have been added to the high risk occupations such as social work, sales, hotel,

culture, media, and sports (e.g., Castillo and Jenkins, 1994; Leather et al., 1998; Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002; Waddington, Badger, Bull, 2006; Webster et al., 2008).

2.4.2. Risk factors

2.4.2.1. Situational factors. As well as the occupation-related risk, the literature also looked at some specific actions or circumstances which could increase the risk of workplace victimisation. Table 2.7 shows a summary of those risk factors provided by various authors from different countries. The most common risk factors are working alone, working outside office hours, carrying goods or money, and the use of drug and/or alcohol by the offender (de Léséleuc, 2007; Loomis, Wolf, Runyan, Marshall and Butts, 2001; Yagil, 2008).

Table 2.7

Risk factors related to workplace violence

- Lone worker
- Alcohol/drug consumption by the offender
- Working outside normal office hours
- Travelling, visiting homes, and carrying money or equipment
- Low status service provider
- Dependence in the customer
- Working outside the organisation
- Offender's stress
- Transporting clients in their car

Source: Chappell and Di Martino, 2000; Farrugia, 2002; Fine, Shepherd, and Josephs, 1994; Guerrier and Adib, 2000; de Léséleuc, 2007; Loomis et al., 2001; Morgan and Martin, 2006; Reynolds and Harris, 2006; Yagil, 2008.

2.4.2.2. Victim individual factors. As well as situational factors, social scientists also looked at other potential risk factors that could influence victimisation. Some argue that one's characteristics might have an impact on the risk of becoming a victim. As previously mentioned, demographic factors such as age and gender can be seen as risk factors of victimisation (EWCS, 2005), but also certain personality traits such as hostility and negative affect could also have an impact on the probability of becoming a victim (e.g. Aquino and Thau, 2009; Bowling, Beehr, Bennett, and Watson, 2010). This topic will be discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

2.4.3. Specific workplace violent incident: homicide at work

2.4.3.1. Prevalence of workplace homicides. Despite the significant decrease in workplace violence, including workplace homicides, from the beginning of the 21st century (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009), workers killed at the workplace still represent one of the leading causes of occupational death (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009; Chappell and Di Martino, 2006). At the end of the 1990s in Australia, 2.8% of traumatic work fatalities were homicides (Driscoll, Mitchell, Mandryk, Healey, and Hendrie, 1999; Chappell and Di Martino, 2000). A few years later, in 2002, in the United States, 14% of male workers affected by workplace incidents were victims of serious violent assaults, from which 9% were homicides (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006). The proportion is even more concerning for women, as of the 34% of female workers recorded as victims of violent acts, 31% were homicides (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006). The following year, the National Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries recorded 5 559 work-related fatalities, from which 16% were assaults and violent acts and 11% homicides (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006).

2.4.3.2. Workplace homicides' characteristics. Similarly to other forms of workplace violence, workplace homicides appear to have an impact on specific occupations such as taxi drivers, security officers, retail workers in urban areas, and also seem to affect more male workers than females (Moracco, Runyan, Loomis, Wolf, Napp and Butts, 2000; Smith, 2002). However, recent data provided by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009) show that women are more victims of workplace homicides (26%) than men (9%). Again, the data on workplace homicides appear to vary depending on the year, the location, and the occupation of the people included in the surveys.

The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health in the United States suggests that workplace homicides highly differ in their motives and perpetrators from homicides committed elsewhere. For instance, in 1993, 75% of all workplace homicides were robbery-related compared with 9% in the general population. Robbery is known to be the leading cause of homicide in workplace violence in general (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006; Couto, Tillgren, and Soderback, 2011; Smith, 2002), occurring between 73 and 82 per-cent in cases of workplace homicide (Schwer, Mejza, and Grun-Rehomme, 2010). In the majority of such crimes the victim and perpetrator were not known to one another compared with 47% of all murder victims who were related to or acquainted with their assailant (Chappell and Di Martino, 2000). Ten years later (2003), the Institute reported that perpetrators of workplace homicides were 75% strangers, 15% co-workers (former), and 10% other relative or acquaintance (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2003). Another survey found that 60% of 105 cases of workplace homicides were robbery-related, 39% disputes-related, and 6% others (Loomis et al., 2001). Data on workplace homicides show that the most frequent

motive is robbery-related (Moracco et al., 2000), committed by strangers. However, some of those homicides were also reported to be committed by customers/patients such as a survey in Australia which reported that 38% of workplace homicides were perpetrated by customers/patients (Driscoll et al., 1999; Chappell and Di Martino, 2000), a proportion relatively similar to other forms of workplace incidents.

Similarly, the risk factors associated with workplace homicides are broadly the same as the risk factors related to other less severe forms of workplace violence. Loomis and colleagues (2001) suggest that the risk factors of being killed on the job include contact with the public, exchange of money, delivery of passengers, goods, or service, working alone or at night, working in high-crime areas and working in residential or industrial areas.

2.5. Workplace violence disclosure

Data on crime reporting are mostly gathered through victim surveys such as the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) in the United States or the British Crime Survey (BCS) in the United Kingdom. Researchers then rely on the victims' self-reported information to provide data that could be analysed to enhance the general knowledge on this phenomenon. This, just like for other aspects of workplace violence, affects the reliability and accessibility of the information provided. As it will be discussed in the next section, some workers do not always perceive the incident as a form of violence or aggression and therefore would not report those incidents in the national surveys. When data were collected by other means, such as questionnaires or interviews by researchers, another problem of accuracy occurs. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, workers who had been victimised may have left their workplace (e.g. absent through illness/stress, transferred, fired, or quit their position) and so did not

take part in the research, therefore there is an unknown number of incidents which go unreported. The following section provides a short summary of current research on crime disclosure. A more detailed examination of the phenomenon and its psychological aspects are discussed in the next chapter.

2.5.1. Previous studies on crime disclosure. To a certain degree, violence at the workplace can be compared to cases of domestic violence. In both cases there is some form of relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, if one discards worker-stranger violence. Although domestic violence would most likely involve an intimate relationship, setting aside cases of overspill of domestic violence at work, incidents between co-workers, workers and supervisors and even between workers and customers could also involve a certain level of trust or an expected rule of politeness between the two actors. This tacit agreement of respect and trust between the victim and the perpetrator was shown to have an impact on the escalation of violence between parties (see Mikula, Petri, and Tanzer, 1989 in Chapter III for more details), but also might have an influence on the victim's decision to report the incident. Similarly to domestic violence, the victim expects mutual trust and respect and, although this agreement had been broken on one side, the victim might still feel the obligation to maintain this relationship for either professional or personal reasons. Workers might see abuse from the perpetrators as a part of their duty or as a daily routine that they have to deal with, and so not serious enough in their opinion. Consequently, if these types of offence are perceived as just minor incidents which are "part of the job" (Scott, Ryan, James, and Mitchell, 2010), it is very unlikely that they will report it, which not only puts them at risk of reoccurrence or escalation, but also puts other workers at risk of victimisation. A qualitative research conducted by Waddington and colleagues (2006) showed that the

perceived seriousness of an offence is highly subjective to the victim and can differ from one profession to another. They have interviewed 54 police officers and 62 social care professionals (A&E workers, social workers, and mental health professionals) on their experience of violence at the workplace.

Their accounts also denoted some aspects of “part of the job” as explained by Waddington et al.: “[...] professionals felt, usually very strongly, that they were morally obligated to help their patients, clients and vulnerable third parties despite this exposing them to otherwise avoidable hazards” (p.164). In their literature review on violence towards care home employees working with people with dementia, Scott et al. (2010) found many reasons behind the underreporting level of abuse. In the US for instance, the expression “the customer is always right” is often used to minimise the seriousness of the incident. Moreover, in some cultures violence from elderly people is considered taboo, so no one discusses or reports it, and in other places it is seen as just coming with the job. They also found that the definition or perception of what is workplace violence varies between workers, as some workers would only consider physical harm as violence and as serious enough to report. In her study, Ireland (2006) interviewed 60 staff members and 44 mentally-ill patients on their perception of how bullying is defined. She found significant differences between staff and patients on their definition of bullying, the latter including a smaller range of aggressive behaviours in their definition than the staff. A recent cross-cultural study conducted by Escartin, Zapf, Arrieta, and Rodriguez-Carbaleira (2011) also shows evidence of variations in workers’ perception of workplace violence. They compared 120 employees from Costa Rica with 126 employees from Spain to test for any differences on perception of bullying at work. Their findings show that 80% of the whole sample

defined bullying as being only psychological, the remaining 20% defining it as having both psychological and physical elements; however Costa Rican employees included more physical elements in their definition than did Spanish employees. These studies show that the perception of workplace violence do vary from one person to another and is influenced by different factors such as culture.

The perceived seriousness of the crime has a significant influence on the victim's decision-making in regards to reporting a crime to the police (Bowles, Reyes, and Garoupa, 2009; Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 1988; Skogan, 1976, 1984; Taylor, 2002). This self-perception that the incident is not a crime or is not important enough to be reported is just one of many other reasons behind under-reporting.

In the case of domestic violence for instance, under-reporting has been attributed to reasons such as privacy concerns, fear of reprisal, sympathy for the offender, and police leniency (Felson, Messner, Hoskin, and Deane, 2002). Another explanation proposed by Black (1976) is related to the relational distance between the actors involved. Put simply, the closer the relationship between them, the less likely it is that the victim will report the incident to the police. However, studies on this topic do not always agree.

While some studies report that the actors' relationship has an impact on the disclosure of the offence (e.g. Block, 1974; Gartner and MacMillan, 1995; Tolsma, Blaauw, and Grotenhuis, 2012), a study using the NCVS did not find any effect between the victim-offender relationship and whether victims reported the incident to the police (Felson, Messner, and Hoskin, 1999). They argue that when people see themselves as victims of crime they are just as likely to disclose it to the police whether the offender is a family member, someone else they know, or a stranger. These findings suggest that the effects of victim-offender relationship on victims' disclosure

are more complex than previously thought. In order to provide a better understanding of the phenomenon, Felson and colleagues (2002) conducted a study on domestic violence in which they asked both reporters and non-reporters to indicate the reasons why they did or did not disclose the crime to the police, as well as looking at the victims' gender and the relationship between the actors involved. Their sample was based on the NCVS in the USA, so approximately 100 000 individuals aged 12 or over, and included incidents recorded between 1992 and 1998, from which a total of 9176 cases could be analysed. According to their analysis, 71.9% of the respondents did not report the incident to the police, the majority of them being men (57.9%, compared to 42.1% of women). In 39.1% of the cases the offender was a complete stranger to the victim. Table 2.8 shows the most important reasons behind reporting or not reporting to the police.

Table 2.8

The main reasons for reporting or not reporting to the police

Reasons for reporting	Reasons for not reporting
It was a crime (30.2%)	Private matter (22.8%)
Protection from future attack (19.9%)	Trivial matter (18.1%)
Stop the incident (16.7%)	Other (48%)
Other (19.6%)	

Source: Felson et al., 2002

Their findings corroborate previous results on the reasons behind disclosure or non-disclosure of a crime (e.g. Block, 1974; Fishman, 1979; Skogan, 1984). As to the victim-offender relationship, Black's theory wasn't supported. In 63.5% of the cases the victim knew the offender (partner, family member, or other non-stranger) and they

did report the crime. These findings suggest that the relationship between the victim and the offender do not influence the disclosure of a crime. Therefore, this might also be true in relation to workplace incidents, suggesting that an incident committed by a co-worker or supervisor would not be treated differently than one committed by a customer or a stranger. However, several studies did find significant differences in reporting between victims of stranger violence and victims of known offenders (e.g. Block, 1974; Cohn, Zinzow, Resnick, and Kilpatrick, 2013; Wong and van de Schoot, 2011). The influence of the victim-offender relationship and its inconsistency in current research will be discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

Research on disclosure also shows possible differences between cultures. There is still much debate on this potential influence as once more research has shown some contradictions. For instance, Hussain and Khan (2008) argue that Pakistani women who are victims of sexual violence were restrained in disclosing the incident due to their social norms. On the other side, Back, Jackson, Fitzgerald, Shaffer, Salstrom and Osman (2003) compared American female victims with Singaporean female victims of both childhood sexual abuse (CSA) and childhood physical abuse (CPA). Although Singaporean victims reported lower level of disclosure due to cultural factors such as shame and duty to the family, no significant differences were found between American victims and Singaporean victims on the disclosure level of CSA. However, Singaporean women were significantly more likely to have experienced and to have reported CPA than were American women.

A recent literature review conducted by Montalvo-Liendo (2009) on 42 studies which looked at cross-cultural differences and similarities on intimate partner violence disclosure found some distinctions between cultures and the reasons behind non-

disclosure. Out of the six studies investigating factors influencing intimate partner disclosure on Asian women, only one study had a sample of Asian women living in the United Kingdom and was the only sample to state laws related to immigrants as a specific factor interfering with the disclosure of abuse. Conversely, victims from all six studies stated shame as a main factor influencing disclosure. Studies looking at black African women compared women living in South Africa and women who immigrated to America. They found that a culture of silence was identified in the South African women sample but not in the other samples. These studies not only suggest different values behind crime disclosure between cultures, but also a possible influence from immigration cultures. In addition, a review on self-disclosure conducted by Smith and Bond (1998) found significant consistency on cultural differences. Individuals from individualistic cultures were found to be more likely to disclose information about themselves both to individuals of their in-group as well as to out-group members, whereas members of collectivistic cultures were more likely to make a sharp division between in-group and out-group individuals and show less disclosure towards the latter.

Finally, Yamawaki looked at a specific element related to crime disclosure which is the advice to victims about seeking help after crime. The study compared 100 American students and 100 Japanese students who were presented with scenarios where their sister was a victim of rape. Investigations were conducted to examine their tendencies to advise to seek help from police, family members, or mental health professionals. Results show that Japanese students were more inclined to encourage the victim to seek help from her family members, while American students were more likely to encourage her to seek help from police and mental health counsellors. In addition to cross-cultural differences, significant results show that their decision was

also influenced by the four following factors: 1) feelings of shame moderated advice to seek help from police; 2) minimization of rape mediated the likelihood to advise the involvement of police and mental health counsellors; 3) attitudes toward mental health counsellors mediated advice to seek help from them; and 4) the type of rape (stranger vs. date rape) moderated advice to report the crime to police. This shows that cultural and individual backgrounds have an impact on one's decision to advise seeking help, thus impacting on crime disclosure. Research shows that the advice provided to victims of crime strongly impacts on their decisions to seek help (Ruback, 1994). In addition, disclosing a rape incident to family and friends has shown to improve the victim's chances for psychological recovery (Yamawaki, 2007). Therefore, further research on crime disclosure across cultures might provide inputs that could have significant implications on prevention, training, and victims' treatment.

2.5.2. Reporting workplace violence. Workers have many personal reasons not to report a violent incident at work. In the case of taxi drivers, the main reasons include perceived police inaction, time demands to report, unknown offender whereabouts, fear of being blamed, not wanting to be involved, incidents not serious enough, to prevent outbreaks of fear, and apathy (Easteal and Wilson 1991; Elsworth, 1997; Stenning 1996). One particular form of workplace violence which receives a great deal of attention from social scientists is bullying, also known as harassment or mobbing. Unfortunately, most studies on bullying were conducted with students or even school children. However, their results might be useful and linked to bullying and other forms of violence that occur at the workplace.

Research on bullying used two ways of recording the incident: 1) operational method, which is based on the criteria of the incident, but without using the precise

term bullying; 2) self-report, which provides the respondents with the specific definition of bullying and let them judge if they were victim or not of this incident, labelling themselves as victims. However, there is a large divergence between the two methods of recording. While some people might be victims without judging the incident as bullying, others might label themselves as victims and report it, even if the incident would not usually be defined as bullying (Vie, Glasø, and Einrsen, 2010). The consequence of the latter is that employers do not intervene, resulting in unfairness in the eyes of the perceived victims.

The feeling of unfairness is one of many reasons why employees would not report an incident at work. According to Namie and Namie (2009) based on a study by the Workplace Bullying Institute in 2007, the sense of injustice might be due to the fact that victims seem to pay a higher price than the offender in order for the bullying to stop. According to the respondents (N=7,740), the incidents stopped because: the target quit (40%), the target's contract was terminated (24%), or the target transferred to another job with the same employer (13%).

As well as this feeling of injustice, research also demonstrates that bullying is not only under-reported but also that victims tend to hide their victimisation (Fekkes, Pijpers, and Verloove-Vanhorick, 2005), sometimes afraid of the stigma that could result from revealing it due to the fact that some people may partially blame the victim for "inviting" bullying (e.g. Stockdale, Hangaduambo, Duys, Larson, and Sarvela, 2002; Smith, 2007). According to Matsunaga's (2010) cross-cultural study on workplace bullying which compared data from 219 Japanese students with 284 American students found that the likelihood of people to report bullying is negatively related with the victims' perception of self- and other-protection concerns. Japanese

victims presented reporting patterns which were mainly based on other-protection concerns, whereas, for US victims, self-protection concerns had a greater impact on their reporting/non-reporting patterns.

Other studies on bullying at school show significant differences between age and gender with regard to the use of seeking help strategies to cope with bullying (Hunter and Borg, 2006; Hunter, Boyle, and Warden, 2004). The current social and psychological research on crime reporting is discussed in more details in the next chapter.

2.8. Summary

In summary, workplace violence includes all forms of violence (e.g., physical and psychological), can affect all workers, and can occur in any types of work setting. Research on the topic has increased, however data are still far from showing the full picture of the phenomenon. More research would provide further information on risk factors of victimisation and on disclosure level not only for prevention, training, and research purposes, but primarily for the safety and security of workers around the world.

Chapter III

Interpersonal Personality and Workplace Victimization

This chapter analyses previous and current research on victimisation, workplace victimisation, and crime disclosure. Further attention is paid to factors associated with victimisation, particularly in relation to individual or intrapersonal factors. In addition, it looks at current knowledge on crime disclosure, particularly at factors influencing the victim's decision to report a crime and elements related to under-reporting. Findings from those studies and their implications for investigative psychology and for current research in social sciences are also discussed.

3.1. Victimization

Criminal behaviours occurring at the workplace provide more or less the entire spectrum of criminal offences; going from cybercrime, fraud, harassment and stalking, to sexual and physical assault, robbery, rape, murder and even terrorism such as the 9/11 tragedy. The offence can also be committed by a wide range of people including workers, former workers, supervisors, clients, employees' relatives, and strangers. The only two main distinctions between a workplace incident and another crime are that the offence is committed on an employee or an employer of the organisation involved and occurs either at the workplace or in circumstances related to their work (Leather, et al., 1998).

Recent studies on workplace victimisation have examined various forms of offences including stalking (e.g. Morrison, 2007), bullying (e.g. Namie and Namie, 2009; Tuckey, Dollar, Hosking, and Winefield, 2009), homicide (e.g. Loomis et al., 2001; Moracco, et al., 2000), and even domestic violence at the workplace (e.g. Milano, 2008; Rothman and Perry, 2004; Swanberg, Logan, and Macke, 2005). Some authors

particularly study the characteristics of workplace violence perpetrators. For instance, research provides consistent figures in regard to demographic characteristics stating that in most cases workplace violence is committed by a lone individual, male, aged between 18 and 35 years old (e.g. de Léséleuc, 2004; Scalora, et al., 2003; Warshol, 1998). Other researchers look at the specific relationship between the offender and the victim such as worker-on-worker violence (e.g. Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen, 2007), intimate partners (e.g. Milano, 2008), or the difference between worker and stranger violence (e.g. Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002).

Some authors focus on the victims of violence and look at the emotional and psychological consequences of being victimised at work (e.g. de Léséleuc, 2004; Chappel and DiMartino, 2006). For instance, a Canadian study from 2004 found that a higher percentage of victims of incidents at work (25%) admitted struggling to carry out their daily work duties following the incident compared to victims of non-work related incidents (14%); workplace victims reporting feeling anger, being upset, confused, frustrated, and fearful (de Léséleuc, 2004). In addition to the psychological consequences of victimisation, social studies on workplace violence looked at the psychological traits of victims and the potential influence of those personality traits on victimisation (e.g. Aquino and Thau, 2009; Kim and Glomb, 2010). Finally, social scientists also looked at the psychological reasons behind reporting or under-reporting crimes (e.g. Namie and Namie, 2009).

Despite these empirical studies on victims of crime, victims have been neglected in the past in psychological and social research (Ogan, 2008). In addition, very few concentrated on the victims' circumstances and characteristics and their relationships with the risk of becoming a victim at work. In order to get a better understanding of

workplace victimisation, it is essential to look at all possible sources of victimisation, including the victims.

3.1.1. Victimology. Most people would presume that criminal psychologists would mainly focus on studying offenders' characteristics, crime scene evidence, and aspects of police investigation such as suspect line-ups, suspects' interrogations, and decision-making when examining victimisation. However, according to victimologists, there are three main sources of victimisation: offender characteristics, situational factors, and victim precipitation (Elias, 1986). Thus, the victim was one crucial element of crime which also attracted some attention from social scientists. This new interest in studying victims' characteristics led to the development of the term victimology firstly used by Benjamin Mendelsohn in 1947 when describing the study of victims (in Daigle, 2013; p.1), which then created the new discipline of Victimology. Although victimologists are known to be the experts in the study of victims and are mainly related to the discipline of Criminology, many other social scientists have studied victims and their characteristics including sociologists, anthropologists, and psychologists. Victimology is defined as the scientific study of crime victims, more specifically the etiology (causes) of victimisation, its impact on the victims, and the interaction between the criminal justice system workers (e.g. police officers, prosecutors) and the victims (Daigle, 2013; Wallace and Roberson, 2011). The examination of causes related to victimisation includes looking at why or how a victim got involved into dangerous circumstances, by looking at the victim's situational and personal factors. The idea of studying victims' characteristics has been a delicate topic in the field for the main reason that investigating the role of victims in their own victimisation may seem suggestive of "blaming the victim". This concept is first associated to William Ryan

(Wallace and Roberson, 2011) from his book entitled *Blaming the Victim* (1971) where he explains it as a social construct related to the middle-class blaming the poor for their poverty. Since then, the use of the term amplified to the extent that people use it to attack anyone who dares insinuating that victims might have played some part in their own victimisation. Nevertheless, as pointed out by Karmen (1995) when explaining constructs studied within victimology: “this approach does not attempt to fix blame on the victim; rather it examines the dynamics that resulted in the victim being in the risky situation” (Wallace and Roberson, 2011; p.12). Likewise, the present research does not intend to blame the victim for their victimisation whatsoever and insists on the principle that looking at the victims’ potential role in their victimisation only provides a greater understanding of various factors leading to victimisation.

3.1.1.1. Victimology theories. When looking at the victims’ role in the occurrence of a crime, social scientists advocate three main theories: the Lifestyle theory, the Situational Exposure theory, and the Routine Activity theory. The Lifestyle theory, proposed by Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garafalo in 1986 suggests that certain individuals are more prone to victimisation due to their behaviour, habits, or customs which expose them to a greater frequency of contact with crime and criminals (Wallace and Roberson, 2011). This theory implies that the victim’s characteristics in his/her everyday life have a great influence on his/her victimisation and corroborates the victims’ individual factors theory as risk factors of victimisation.

On the other hand, the Situational Exposure theory looks at the amount of actual exposure or vulnerability to harm, resulting from the environment and personal characteristics, which the victim experiences at the time of victimisation (Petherick and Turvey, 2008). The Situational Exposure theory differs from the Lifestyle exposure as

it looks at the characteristics present specifically at the time of the victimisation. This theory would support researchers who advocate that situational factors are the main risk factors in relation to victimisation. Finally, the Routine Activity theory, which was introduced by Cohen and Felson in 1979, involves the examination of the victim-offender interactions by looking at both spatial and temporal structures of the routine legal activities (Doerner and Lab, 2012). They proposed that a crime would occur in the presence of the three following elements: likely offender, suitable target, and the absence of capable guardians. The latter implies that the presence or proximity of witnesses or guardians would discourage the offender to carry out the offence. As to the target suitability, it supports the idea that some individuals might put themselves, knowingly or unknowingly, into risky situations.

Most studies investigating these theories have looked at the Lifestyle and Routine Activity theories, often combining both theories together. Very little has been conducted on the Situational Exposure theory. However, one study used the principle of situational risk factors in order to provide preventive strategies at the workplace. Henson (2010) looked at applying criminology theories, more specifically situational crime prevention theory, to prevent the victimisation of A&E workers. He argued that most criminological studies which looked at victimisation have focused on the individual's crime disposition rather than the situational factors, which are at the source of the Situational Exposure theory. Its use would be to effectively modify environmental elements in order to decrease criminal opportunity, therefore preventing the risk of victimisation. In the case of A&E workers, Henson suggested five environmental or situational elements to modify in order to increase crime prevention: increase the effort (physical mechanism to decrease access to target or reduce level of

violence such as metal detectors), increase risks (increase the chance for the offender to get caught such as guardianship), reduce the rewards (hiding or removing targets), reduce the provocations (avoiding argument, decreasing stress, ensuring everyone remains calm), and remove the excuses (implementation of strict rules such as controlling drug and alcohol use). He argued that by looking at situational factors and modifying them rather than studying workers' individual factors, more can be implemented in order to enhance the safety of A&E workers and decrease risk of victimisation. Nevertheless, research in the literature shows that victimisation occurs through the union of both individual and situational variables (Schreck, Miller, and Gibson, 2003), meaning that risky circumstances (situational factors) cannot fully explain victimisation on its own. This explains why most research has been conducted using the lifestyle-routine activity approach.

The lifestyle-routine activity approach has been widely studied for various types of victimisation such as stalking (Mustaine and Tewskbury, 1999), sexual victimisation (Fisher, Daigle, and Cullen, 2010; Franklin, Franklin, Nobles, and Kercher, 2012), cybervictimisation (Reyns Henson, and Fisher, 2011), repeat and multiple victimisation (Outlaw, Ruback, and Britt, 2002), different types victimisation (Miethe, Staggord, and Long, 1987), and workplace victimisation (Landau and Bendalak, 2008; Madriz, 1996; Xu, 2009) to name but a few. One early study conducted by Miethe and colleagues (1987) examined the mediational effects of routine activities/lifestyles approaches on criminal victimisation. Using the National Crime Survey of 1975 which include 13 major American cities with a total respondents of 107,678. They investigated the theories by looking at daytime and night time activities. The dependent variable was the incidence (victim or not) of violent victimisation and property victimisation and

they investigated the effect of demographics variables as well as the mediational effects of the routine activity/lifestyle approach. Their results showed a strong significant effect from the routine activity/lifestyle theory on property victimisation, but not so strong for violent victimisation. However, more recent studies have found significant results between lifestyle-routine activities and person victimisation.

For instance, Outlaw and colleagues (2002) studied the influence of personal factors, situational factors, and the combination of both on repeat and multiple victimisation. Using a sample of 5,049 American adults recruited through telephone survey, they found that single, repeat, and multiple victimisations are three independent phenomena which need to be analysed individually. Their finding showed support for the routine activity theory for all three phenomena but on various levels. For instance, individual factors such as ethnicity and higher income and situational factors such as neighbourhoods have a significant effect on repeat property victimisation. As for multiple victimisation, their findings showed no significant effects of neighbourhoods but individual factors such as genders and getting involved in dangerous activities had a significant relationship with multiple victimisation.

In their study, Mustaine and Tewskbury (1999) tested the routine activity theory on a sample of 861 female university students looking at their risk of stalking victimisation. They found that certain elements of their routine activity such as substance use, activities in public settings, and residence off campus were significant predictors of stalking victimisation. A recent research examining the effect of routine activity theory and self-control on property, personal and sexual assault victimisation obtained similar results (Franklin et al., 2012). With a sample of 2,230 female university students, they found that specific routine activities were significant

predictors of specific types of crime. For instance, increased partying and shopping frequency and off-campus accommodation significantly correlated with property victimisation, whereas increased number of days on campus and increased frequency of partying correlated with sexual assault victimisation. Self-control deficits and drug-selling activities highly correlated with all three types of victimisation.

In the same line, Fisher and colleagues (2010) investigated the effect of lifestyle-routine activities on recurrent sexual victimisation by comparing single incident and repeated incidents of sexual victimisation within a female college students population ($N = 4,399$). Their finding showed no significant differentiation on the effect of lifestyle-routine activities between single and repeat sexual victimisation. This implies that the same risk factors (having a risky lifestyle) not only put one at risk of sexual victimisation but also continue to place that person at risk of recurrent sexual victimisations if not changed. Reyns and colleagues (2011) modernised the idea of victimisation by looking at the impact of routine activities on cybervictimisation-cyberstalking. They found that specific routine activities variables, namely online exposure risk, online proximity to motivated offenders, online guardianship, online target attractiveness, and online deviance, were significant risk factors of cyberstalking victimisation.

As to workplace victimisation, as pointed out by Landau and Bendalak (2008), very few studies have been testing the routine activity theory within a specific context or setting such as work or school. They examined the 3 main elements from the routine activity theory, namely exposure, target suitability (or attractiveness), and guarding, as well as adding a fourth aspect which is proximity to offenders (i.e., dangerousness). Their sample was comprised of Emergency Department employees from 25 hospitals

around Israel for a total of 3,256 participants. They found full support for the routine activity theory elements of exposure, guarding and proximity to offenders, but only partial support for the element of target suitability. Their findings suggest that employees' characteristics (e.g., position of authority, role in the ward, workload), lack of safety (e.g., personal alarm), and strict policies (e.g., limited entrance access which increases stress and anger from patients) are all significant factors of risk of violence in this specific work setting.

Similarly, in her study, Madriz (1996) looked at the relationship between routine activities theory and the perception of safety/unsafety at work. Using a sample of 9,434 of American adults who participated in the National Crime Survey: Victim Risk Supplement in 1984. Her results demonstrated that living in larger cities, having contact with potential offenders, handling money in their job, working in places that use less security measures, working in the evenings, using public transportation, and having been a victim of crime all correlated with the perception of an unsafe workplace because of crime. No significant results were found for income, education, or gender. Differences were found between race (Caucasian, African American, and Hispanic) on their perception of a safe workplace. Additionally, she found that age also has a relationship with the perception of a safe workplace as older people appeared to be less likely to view their work as unsafe. Variables such as using public transportation and having contact with potential offenders had a great influence in the last finding. Above all, Madriz argued that her study demonstrates the effect of routine activities on the perception of a safe workplace as her findings revealed that risk/opportunity variables were higher predictors of the perception of risk at work than demographic factors such as gender, age and ethnicity.

Finally, a much recent study conducted by Xu (2009) confirmed previous findings suggesting that lifestyle-routine activities influence the risk of workplace victimisation and general victimisation. Xu (2009) conducted a study to test the lifestyle/routine activity theory on robbery on motorcycle taxi drivers from Tianzhi, China. Three datasets were collected: 174 cases of robbery against motorcycle taxi drivers from the police reports, 1,407 observation cases, and 45 semi-structured interviews with motorcycle taxi drivers (n=31), police officers (n=8) and other migrant workers (n=6). The results show differences in victimisation between migrant and resident workers. Xu looked at the three main elements of the theory and found support for all elements in regard to the working conditions of motorcycle taxi drivers. Their possessions (motorbike, mobile phone and money) attract offenders, their isolated journey brings them away from any police or guardianship and their decision to work during night time puts them more at risk (target exposure). The latest also explained the differences between resident and migrant victimisation as a higher percentage of migrants workers work between midnight and 7am which makes them more at risk of being victimised.

These studies provide support for the lifestyle-routine activity approach in regard to risk of victimisation, and this, in various population and settings. As noted, very little has been done in regard to workplace victimisation. Therefore, this current research follows the previous studies by looking at individual factors (interpersonal tendencies, gender, age) as well as situational factor (occupation, setting, shift pattern) in order to apply the lifestyle-routine activity approach to the types of victimisation experienced by the current samples. Results and implications of this approach are discussed in Chapter X.

3.1.2. Victims' characteristics.

3.1.2.1. Victims' demographic and situational characteristics. Studies advocating victimological theories have found significant links between victimisation and victim precipitation through risky behaviours and risky circumstances. Fisher, Sloan, Cullen, and Lu (1998), for instance, looked at students' victimisation on campus and found that the major predictor of victimisation was a lifestyle of high level of partying on campus at night and the recreational use of drugs. Their analysis also supported the lifestyle-routine-activities theory by showing that proximity to crime, target attractiveness, exposure, and lack of guardianship increased the risk of property victimisation. Similarly, Schreck and colleagues (2003), who also investigated the risk factors of victimisation at school, report that the main predictors were the variables of exposure to criminals such as unsafe neighbourhoods, drug dealers at school, gangs at school, and delinquent friends.

Research has also been looking at gender differences and offender/victim relationship effects on victimisation. For instance, a recent study by Sheridan and Lyndon (2010) looks at the relationship between prior relationship, gender, and fear with the consequences of stalking victimisation. With a sample of 1,214 self-defined stalking victims, they found that gender and a previous relationship between the victim and the perpetrator do influence physical, psychological and social consequences. According to their findings, female victims of stalking tend to experience a greater number of psychological and physical symptoms than men. Similar results were found with victims who had a previous relationship with their stalker, experiencing more psychological, physical and social costs than other victims. Victim gender appears to have a higher influence on psychological and physical consequences above and beyond

the contribution of former victim-perpetrator relationship. Consequently, their findings suggest that female victims of stalking do experience more psychological and physical consequences than men, and that this pattern does not only result from the fact that women are more often stalked by ex-partners.

As to workplace victimisation, empirical research also looked at the victim's characteristics and circumstances in order to investigate any relationship between them and his/her victimisation. Gender is once again an important element in those studies namely gender differences in facing conflict at work (Davis, Capobianco, and Kraus, 2010), the impact of the victim's gender on blaming attributions (de Judicibus and McCabe, 2001), and gender as a risk factor (Dubois, Knapp, Faley, and Kustis, 1998; Scalora, et al., 2003). For instance, findings show that women were rated as significantly more likely to engage in almost all constructive behaviours such as empathy, expressing emotions, creating solutions and reaching out, while men were rated as more likely to engage in active destructive behaviours like winning at all costs and displaying anger in conflict situations (Davis et al., 2010). Another research which also examined gender differences as a predictor of workplace victimisation found that assaults perpetrated by people external to the organisation particularly affected male staff members, those assaults being more likely related to customer service concerns and involving previous threats (Scalora et al., 2003).

In addition, in the same way than Sheridan's and Lyndon's study on stalking, some researchers suggest that the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator of violence at work does have an impact on victimisation and its outcomes. It was already mentioned that workplace violence can be perpetrated by two main sources: internal to the organisation (e.g. co-workers, supervisors) and external (e.g. clients, customers,

partners, strangers). The distinction and consequences between these sources of violence were investigated in Hershcovis' and Barling's (2010) meta-analytic review of 66 studies on workplace violence. Their main goal was to compare the various health-related, attitudinal, and behavioural consequences of workplace violence perpetrated by different perpetrators. They looked at three different types of perpetrator: supervisors, co-workers, and outsiders. According to their results, supervisors' violence obtained the strongest negative relationship with attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, followed by co-workers' violence, and outsiders' violence being the weakest relationship. They did not find any significant difference between sources of violence on health-related outcomes suggesting that whoever perpetrates the aggression, victims would still experience negative effects on their health such as stress. As well as having a potential influence on the victims' outcomes, research shows that the source of violence also influences the antecedents of workplace aggression (e.g. Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002). On the other hand, a study from Felson, Ackerman, and Yeon (2003) showed that verbal altercations are more than four times as likely to occur in conflicts involving strangers as it is in conflicts involving work relationships.

In a recent study conducted by Homant (2010), the links between victimisation, risky behaviours and situational factors is taken a step further by looking at risky altruism. Homant defines altruism as: "a behaviour that is done for the benefit of another, with no apparent benefit to the actor, or at least where any expected benefit to the actor is outweighed by the costs of the behaviour" (p.1195). Therefore, risky altruism includes behaviours such as giving a lift to a stranger or getting into a fight to defend someone. Findings show a significant relationship between risky altruism and total victimisation ($r .310$), while the relationship between victimisation and safe

altruism did not obtain a significant correlation. This suggests that people showing traits of sensation seeking, high extraversion, openness to experience and who increase their interactions with strangers are much more at risk of victimisation than their safe altruist fellows. Although these studies support victim precipitation theories, their results seem to explain victimisation much more as a consequence of risky circumstance, which the victim voluntarily or involuntarily put him/herself into, and thus provide very little information on the individual factors related to victimisation.

3.1.2.2. Individual (intrapersonal) characteristics. In order to fully understand the potential role of victims in their victimisation, other authors examined victims' personality traits as possible risk factors (e.g. Cook, Williams, Guerra, Kim and Sadek, 2010; Georgiou and Stavriniades, 2008; Tani, Greenman, Schneider, and Fregoso, 2003). Looking at bullying at school, Tani and colleagues (2003) compared the Big Five Questionnaire for Children personality traits of bullies, bullies assistants, reinforcers of bullies, victims, defenders of the victims, and outsiders to verify if there are significant differences between those groups of students. Interestingly, their results show that both victims and bullies share two particular personality traits: lack of Friendliness and high level of Emotional Instability, the latter being higher for the victims. Not surprisingly, in contrast with the bullies and victims, defenders of the victims obtained the highest rate of Friendliness and the lowest level of Emotional Instability. In addition to these results, Georgiou and Stavriniades (2008) also investigated bullying at school, but this time they divided the students between three groups: bullies, victims, and bully-victims. The latter can be described as aggressive or active victims who would reply to their bullies or become bullies themselves. Their findings demonstrate that both passive victims and aggressive victims, in this case

bully-victims, show traits of loneliness and lack of social skills, and the latter also seem to be more temperamental and having difficulty to control their anger.

All these findings find support in a recent meta-analytic study conducted by Cook and his colleagues (2010) who looked at predictors of bullying in childhood and adolescence drawing on research conducted over the past 30 years, which included the same three groups of bullies, victims, and bully-victims. Their factor analysis provides 13 factors, from which eight are individual and five are contextual. They claim that bullying should be seen as an on-going relationship between the actors involved, and therefore that the social context should also be included in the analysis of the phenomenon. So, they also looked at the strength of the effect sizes across both individual and contextual factors. Their results indicate that peer status and social competence had the largest effect sizes on victimisation, the latter also being a highly significant predictor of bully-victim. Their study also suggests that victims would demonstrate higher levels of internalising symptoms such as lacking in adequate social skills, possessing negative self-related cognitions, and experiencing difficulties in solving social problems, and contextual factors such as coming from negative community, family, and school environments and being noticeably rejected and isolated by peers. Similar traits were also found to be related to bully-victims, but this group also shows some externalising factors such as being highly suggestible to their peers' negative influence.

Research on school bullying can be strongly related to studies on bullying and harassment at the workplace. Just like in school settings, bullying and harassment at work has shown a growing interest in social sciences during the last two decades, and not only for the benefits of researchers, but also for workers and employees. An

increasing amount of anti-bullying campaigns have been implemented in many places around the world and training, interventions, and zero-tolerance attitudes can now be seen in various work settings. Despite this, workplace violence, including bullying and harassment, is still very much present in our society (see Chapter II).

As with cases of bullying at school, social scientists have tried to identify possible predictors of workplace victimisation by looking at individual factors, both personality traits and interpersonal styles. This line of research suggests that a person may be at risk to become a target of someone else's aggressive behaviour because of how he or she interacts in the workplace. In general, research on workplace victimisation has failed to identify a significant relationship between personality traits and whether or not a person is victimised at work (Hoel, Rayner, and Cooper, 1999). However, findings have pointed out some potential risk profiles. According to a recent literature review on worker-on-worker aggression by Aquino and Thau (2009), the Negative Affectivity trait, which is the tendency to experience negative affect (trait NA, Watson and Clark, 1984) including emotions such as anger, fear, worry, anxiousness, sadness, and depression, obtains the most reliable relationship to the various victimisation measures examined in the review (e.g. Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen, 1999; Aquino and Bradfield, 2000; Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen, 2007). However, studies exploring the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and workplace victimisation were not consistent. One study found that workplace victims tend to be more extraverted (Glasø et al. 2007), whereas other studies show that victimised employees are more introverted than their colleagues (Coyne, Seigne, and Randall, 2000) or that victims and non-victims do not differ on extraversion at all (Coyne, Chong, Seigne, and Randall, 2003; Vartia, 1996). Nevertheless, in general, research

found significant differences in personality traits between victims and non-victims of workplace aggression. According to these studies, victims are more neurotic and less agreeable and less conscientious (Glasø et al. 2007), they are hypersensitive, suspicious, depressed, have a tendency to express their suffering through psychosomatic symptoms (Matthiesen and Einarsen, 2001), and they tend to show higher negative affect than non-victims (Aquino et al., 1999; Aquino and Bradfield, 2000; Bowling et al., 2010; Glasø et al. 2007). These findings demonstrate the importance to distinguish and study all possible sources of violence as well as looking at both the source's and the target's characteristics when investigating workplace violence.

However, some psychologists and theorists argue that ones' personality traits are not only the reflection of an isolated individual, but in fact, an individual within interpersonal relationships (Zayas, Shoda, and Ayduk, 2002). Through their personality-in-context approach, Zayas and colleagues (2002) propose that aspects of personality originate from the interactions of an individual's unique characteristics and the situations in which individuals find themselves in. Although they looked at the specific dyad of intimate relationships, they suggest that their model might help understanding individuals in various situations. Along the same lines, Canter (1989) argues that crime can be seen as an interpersonal transaction. This approach suggests that all crimes involve a relationship, to a greater or lesser degree, between the victim and the offender. Therefore, this implies that both victim's and offender's behaviours and personality traits would influence each other's actions. For instance, Newbill, Marth, Coleman, Menditto, Carson, and Beck (2010) conducted a study on staff from a psychiatric hospital and investigated the staff-patient interactions as research shows

that staff will often see symptoms of psychosis as the leading cause of violence, while patients will relate it to aversive interactions. They found that eight out of nine kinds of aversive staff-patient interactions were more frequently experienced by staff who had been assaulted. Although other factors might be involved, this suggests that staff-patient interactions might influence the risk of victimisation. Consequently, not only is it important to study the offenders' characteristics in order to understand criminal behaviours, but the study of the victims' characteristics and their reactions in violent situations are also crucial to fully understand the risk components of workplace victimisation.

3.1.2.3. Victim precipitation. The concept of victim precipitation can be defined as the victim's influence on the occurrence of the crime (e.g. Daigle, 2013; Doerner and Lab, 2012; Wallace and Roberson, 2011). Victim precipitation theorists first argued that the dynamics of a crime cannot be entirely understood only by examining the perpetrator's characteristics but also includes looking at the role of the victim.

Victim precipitation theorists also propose that victims might knowingly or unknowingly contribute to their victimisation, respectively known as active and passive precipitation (Doerner and Lab, 2012). Active precipitation can be defined as a direct provocation from the victim on the offender, ranging from insults to physical assaults. This type of precipitation might sometimes increase the offender's level of anger or aggressiveness and consequently may escalate the level of violence of the offence. On the other hand, passive precipitation involves a personal characteristic that unknowingly threatens or encourages the offender. In most cases, the offender might see the victim as an object or as an association with a particular group.

By looking at the victim precipitation typology suggesting that some victims might be seen as passive and others as active, it is possible to propose that victims may be divided in two different groups, and therefore they might show different personality profiles. Victims with high Extraversion would be seen as more open to experience and risks takers, they could also show some form of dominance or arrogance, which would be supportive of the active/aggressive victim type. On the other hand, passive victims would be assumed to be more introverted, timid, or lacking in social skills which would make them vulnerable to aggression from co-workers. This theory could be an explanation to the inconsistency found on Extraversion/Introversion between the previous studies. In addition to this, when Glasø et al. (2007) used cluster analysis on their victim sample, they found that the first cluster, which constituted 64% of the sample, did not obtain any significant differences with the non-victim sample as far as personality was concerned. But the smaller cluster appeared to be less extrovert, less agreeable, less conscientious, and less open to experience but more emotionally unstable than the victims in the major cluster and the non-victims group. This supports the idea that different victims might present distinct personality profiles. However, both clusters of victims obtained higher scores than non-victims on emotional instability, suggesting that personality traits should still be considered as a possible risk factor of workplace aggression, as well as situational factors.

As to the possibility that personality traits might just be a result of the victimisation, a few studies looked at the matter by examining victimisation over time. Smith and colleagues (2003) looked at the possible link between bullying at school and workplace victimisation. Their sample included employees from various work settings ranging from the National Health Service, post/telecommunications, higher education, school

teaching, local authority, manufacturing/IT, pharmaceutical industry, brewing industry, hotel industry, retailing, banking, police, fire, and prison services, voluntary organizations, and dance. They found significant evidence that people who were bullied at school were more likely to be victimised at the workplace. Their results are consistent and significant for both workplace victimisation over the last 6 months and victimisation over the last 5 years preceding the study. In addition, their study shows a consistency of patterns of victimisation in different settings (school and workplace) and at different ages (on average, some 20-25 years apart), which then supports the idea that risk factors of victimisation are stable over time.

Overall, studies on victim precipitation have found supportive evidence that victims' individual factors, when combined with situational factors, would potentially increase the risk of victimisation at work. Although victimologists put forward the hypothesis of victim precipitation, the three main theories, Routine-Activity, Lifestyle, and Situational theories, mainly focus on circumstantial factors, neglecting to include victims' intrapersonal characteristics when examining sources of victimisation. On the other hand, studies which included victim's characteristics in their analysis specifically looked at personality traits such as the ones comprised in the Big Five inventory. Very little is known in regard to interpersonal trends and their effect on victimisation.

3.1.3. Victim's interpersonal personality traits. Rock (2007) suggests that victim precipitation reveals a criminal act as a form of interactive process or a progressive relationship between the actors involved, in which each one impacts not only on the conduct of the other but also on the form and content of any crime that might follow. As mentioned earlier on this paper, Canter's Interpersonal Transaction model of offending (1989), developed within the discipline of Investigative Psychology, suggests

that “[...] all crimes involve at least an implicit relationship between an offender and a victim” (p.13). He argues that by examining the transaction between the two actors involved, it could provide more information on criminal behaviour. Additionally, he puts forward the hypothesis that an offender’s varied reactions (interactions) within his crimes might be connected to the ways in which the offender reacts with other individuals when not committing a crime. This could also be said in regard to the victim’s reactions. A victim’s interaction with the offender could be related to the way the victim would interact with other individuals in daily situations. Obviously, the stress and fear and other emotions experienced during victimisation might have an effect on the victim’s reaction (e.g. freeze or fight) but there is still a hypothesis that the reactions might be caused by the victim’s natural interpersonal habits.

In day to day life, people interact with others and often attempt to influence each other’s behaviour. One can use various means to achieve his/her goal such as persuasion, promises of rewards, or even aggressive behaviours like threat and punishment. Considering that aggression is a social influence tactic, it seems fair to say that on some occasions threats and punishment can be a successful way to influence one’s behaviour. Felson (2006) provided an excellent example at the workplace; an employer has threatened to fire a tardy employee, which resulted in the employee starting to come in on time. This is a minor example of threat, but this method would not always obtain the same results. Threats might sometimes lead the target to resist or retaliate, enhancing the risk of the conflict to escalate. This stresses the importance of looking at victims’ interpersonal styles and conflict management behaviours, as their reaction during conflicts could have a crucial impact on the outcome of the event (Zapf and Gross, 2001). Also, it is important to bear in mind that conflicts/disputes involve

an interaction between at least two actors, which again supports the need for research on individuals' behaviours when interacting with others, thus on their interpersonal tendencies.

Although Kim and Glomb (2010) did not specifically look at interpersonal trends as potential risk factors for workplace victimisation, they still investigated the possible moderating effect that the agency and communion personality traits could have on the relationship between cognitive ability and workplace victimisation. Agency is defined as individualisation in a group and it involves independence, dominance, and personal growth, as communion is defined as integration of the individual in a group and it involves cooperation, attachment, and caring. Their results show a direct positive relationship between cognitive ability and victimisation and this relationship gets stronger with an agency personality trait and weakens with a communion personality trait. This suggests that people with high cognitive abilities who tend to be more dominant and independent are at greater risk of being targeted at work than colleagues with high cognitive abilities who show more collaboration and care towards others. Therefore, interpersonal trends might have an influence on one's risk of victimisation. Focussing further on consequences of the victim's reaction on victimisation, Zapf and Gross (2001) investigated workplace bullying and focussed on the conflict management behaviour of targets. They argued and demonstrated that targets' responses to the perpetrator's actions may contribute to the escalation of hostilities. They conducted 19 interviews on conflict escalation and found that in 14 out of 19 cases the victim reported that the conflict escalated more and more over time. One of their major findings is that the escalation was not always provoked by the bully, on most occasions

it was due to the non-awareness of the victim's own provocative and threatening behaviours.

One psychological explanation of the victims' reactions during conflict could be related to a feeling of injustice or broken expectations. It has been suggested by Mikula, Petri, and Tanzer (1989) that there are three basic types of justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional. Distributive justice can be illustrated by a fair allocation of outcomes. Thus an example of distributive injustice at the workplace could be underpaid employee. Procedural justice refers to the use of just methods to determine outcomes. A workplace example of procedural injustice could be an employee who is angry at the procedures for arbitrating pay raises. Finally, an interactional justice is defined as showing respect for others, following rules of politeness, social rules. A workplace example of this type of injustice is harsh criticism from an employer towards an employee who sees it as unfair. According to their data, violations of interactional justice were by far the most important category of unfairness reported by respondents (Mikula et al., 1989). These feelings of injustice, mostly in regard to interactional injustice such as lack of respect or broken social rules, are providing a potential rationalisation behind people's reaction during conflicts. Likewise, someone's expectations might have an important influence on his/her response towards an individual's actions. It has been argued that people do evaluate negative results in terms of their expectations (Felson, 2006). People usually based their expectations on temporal and social comparisons; comparing with outcomes from past events or reference groups, respectively. When those expectations are not met, added to feelings of injustice and a particular interpersonal style, this might trigger an aggressive reaction which then could escalate a violent situation. Take the example of an employee who is

harshly criticised by a colleague in front of other employees. He finds this situation very unfair and starts to feel like he is losing his reputation amongst his fellow colleagues. An individual who would show submissive interpersonal style would probably keep his head down and would not retaliate. On the other hand, someone with traits of dominance when interacting with others would most likely strike back and try to regain his confidence and control towards his colleagues. Though it is inconceivable that victims are mainly responsible for their victimisation, these studies suggest that certain aspects of the victims personality might still play a role in the outcome of their victimisation.

3.1.3.1. *The effects of culture on interpersonal characteristics.* Similarly to victimisation and disclosure (see previous chapter), personality traits and individuals' characteristics were also subjected to several cross-cultural examinations. Therefore, if suggesting that the victim's personal traits might influence the risk of victimisation, it is important to consider all other elements that impact on these personal traits such as culture.

Schwartz and Bardi (1997) found cultural differences on interpersonal values between Western and Eastern European countries. They collected data from 17 samples ($n= 3,146$) from nine Eastern European countries (Bulgaria, Czech-Republic, Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Slovakia, and Slovenia) and 23 samples ($n= 4,761$) from 13 Western European countries (Belgium, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland). Participants ($N= 7,907$) were divided between school teachers or college students samples in both cultures. They were investigating the effect of communism in previous communist countries on the following values: conservatism, hierarchy, harmony,

intellectual/affective autonomy, egalitarianism, and mastery. Their results show a clear distinction between Eastern and Western European countries, and this in both teacher and students samples. Eastern European participants showed higher means on conservatism and hierarchy values. However, no significant difference was found for harmony values. As to the three values related to democratic cultures, results show that overall they were less important to Eastern European samples than to Western European ones.

Cultural differences were also observed in work settings in a study on victims' reaction to workplace incidents (Kim, Shapiro, Aquino, Lim, and Bennett, 2008). They compared 143 American working MBA students with 209 South Korean working MBA students on their reactions to workplace conflicts on three aspects: avoidance of, seeking revenge against, and reconciliation with the offending co-worker. They also looked at the influence of the offender's characteristics (similarities or dissimilarities with the victim) and types of offence on their reaction. They found that students from the South Korean sample were more likely to avoid and to seek revenge on the offender when the offensive comment was group- rather than personally-directed. They were also more inclined to reconciliation when an offensive comment came from a similar rather than dissimilar co-worker and when the offense was directed to them personally (not their group). On the other hand, students from the American sample were found to be more motivated to reconcile when an offensive comment was made by a similar rather than dissimilar co-worker and when the offense was directed to their group (not them personally). As well as reaction to conflict at work, cross-cultural studies on victims looked at differences in psychological reactions. Mueller, Orth, Wang, and Maercker (2009) studied the possible differences between a German victim sample and

a Chinese victim sample on their symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). They found significant differences between the two samples as German victims tended to show all three main symptoms of PTSD whereas Chinese victims showed moderate symptoms.

In regard to other aspects of personality, several studies investigated cross-cultural differences using personality inventories. The FIRO scale has also been used in cross-cultural studies and has generated consistent results (Bayou et al., 2006; Siegel and Smith, 2003; Siegel, Smith and Mosca, 2001). Bayou et al. (2006) studied the FIRO-B scores of CPAs at big international firms and compared the scores of North Americans (N=97) and Non North-Americans (N=61) individuals. More precisely, they examined the Social Interaction Index (SII) scores. The SII scores can be obtained by calculating the total score from Schutz's six sub-dimensions, ranging from 0 to 54. The SII is then defined as a measure of one's overall interpersonal need. Consequently, the higher the score, the higher the overall interpersonal need. They obtained significant differences in SII scores between these groups, North Americans' scores being higher than Non-Americans' ones. This suggests that North American CPAs have higher interpersonal needs than their Non-American counterparts.

More recently, Siegel and Miller (2010) compared the interpersonal attributes of Asian (N=102) and American (N=99) auditing personnel. As well as looking at the differences on Schutz's dimensions scores and on the SII scores, they included the dimension of Warmth, which is alliance of Inclusion and Openness dimensions, as suggested by Wiedmann, Waxenberg, and Mona (1979). They observed significant differences between groups ($p < .10$ and $p < .05$; two-tailed) on the Received Openness dimension ($p = .022$) and on the total score on the Warmth sub-dimension ($p = .01$), the

American internal auditors obtaining higher scores on these scales compared to their Asian counterparts. Other significant differences between the two groups were observed for Received Control ($p = .062$), total scores on Openness ($p = .064$), and Received Warmth ($p = .08$). Once more, the U.S. group scored slightly higher than their Asian counterparts on these dimensions. This supports previous findings suggesting that Western cultures would have higher needs for warmth and encouragement from colleagues and supervisors and for a controlled environment compared to the individuals from the Eastern cultures. Despite these significant differences, it is important to note the lack of significant differences between groups on particular aspects of the scales. For instance, no differences were found on any of the Expressed dimensions.

More cross-cultural research is needed on personality traits and personality scales to replicate and validate previous findings but also to provide more information on possible factors influencing victim's interpersonal interactions. According to these studies, cultural background has a great influence on someone's interaction with others and perception of conflict and the ways to deal with it. If so, it is important to consider all personal aspect of an individual, including his/her culture, in order to fully understand risks of victimisation. This particular aspect it examined in more details in Chapter IX.

3.2 Disclosure

As it was pointed out earlier, gathering information on workplace violence often presents some difficulties. The accuracy of data on workplace violence is not only compromised by the lack of record on national and occupational levels (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006), but also by the level of under-reported incidents from employees

themselves. However, crime disclosure is not a recent issue in social sciences.

Researchers have looked at and provided a great deal of information on many aspects of this phenomenon such as gender and age differences, reasons for reporting, reasons for non-reporting, and so on.

Victims of crime choose not to report the offence for various reasons, personal and/or situational. Personal reasons can be described as decision-making based on the victim's emotions or own perception of the crime. These include, but are not limited to, feeling that the incident is not serious enough, lack of evidence that it happened, the impression that the police are unable to do anything, general attitudes towards the police (Barclay, 2003; Block, 1974; Bowles et al., 2009; Mirrlees-Black and Ross, 1995; Walker, 1994), fear of being disbelieved, fear of retribution by the offender or other related to him/her, feelings of shame, embarrassment, fear of being blamed, and time and effort required in the reporting process (Allen, 2007; Taylor and Gassner, 2012; Thompson et al., 2010). Other situational or demographic factors were found to affect the willingness of an individual to report a crime such as age, gender, sexual orientation, living in an isolated environment, victim-offender relationship, the victim's history, the type of crime committed, and the benefits or costs of reporting such as opportunity for compensation (Barclay, 2003; CWCJS, 2009; Hunter and Borg, 2006; Hunter, et al., 2004; Lievore, 2003; Taylor, 2002; Taylor and Gassner, 2012; Tolsma, et al., 2012).

3.2.1. Reasons for (not) reporting crime. As previously mentioned, victims of crime cite many different reasons justifying why they did or did not report the offence to the police. The seriousness of the crime is a major one which could affect both reporting and under-reporting. For instance, a victim who was attacked by an offender

with a weapon and got injured might perceive the crime as very serious and might report it for reasons such as “to catch the offender”, “to prevent other offences”, or just because “it was a crime”. On the other side, a drunk victim who had an argument with someone in a bar and got later assaulted by that person might not see the incident as a crime or serious enough to report it and might cite reasons such as “feeling that it was his/her fault” or “not sure if it was a crime”. As well as the perceived seriousness, many other reasons were provided by respondents of crime surveys around the world. The BSC’s review conducted by Tarling and Morris (2010) provides an accurate summary of the reasons behind reporting and under-reporting cited by victims of crime in the literature. Table 3.1 presents the reasons for reporting to the police as Table 3.2 shows the main reasons for not reporting to the police provided in their review.

Table 3.1.

Reasons for reporting crime and their percentages from the BCS 2007/08

	Percentage
All crimes should be reported/right thing to do	45
In the hope that the offenders would be caught/punished	33
Serious/major/upsetting crime	23
In the hope of avoiding repetition of crime to oneself	21
In the hope that the property would be recovered	15
For the purposes of an insurance claim	14
In the hope of avoiding repetition of crime to someone else	14
To satisfy other authorities	3
Needed assistance (e.g. to get home)	3
Third person reported crime	3
Police were on the spot	1
Other	5

Table 3.2

Reasons for not reporting crime and their percentages from the BCS 2007/08

	Percentage
Police could not do anything	36
Too trivial/no loss	32
Police would not be interested	23
Dealt with the crime their selves	15

In addition to these, data from other studies stated that victims of crime cited the following reasons for not reporting to the police: “Not clear if it was a crime or that harm was intended”, “Lack of proof that the incident happened”, “Did not think it was serious enough to report”, “Afraid of reprisal by that person or others”, “Did not want other people to know”, “Did not want your family to know”, “Might be seen as their fault”, “Shame or embarrassment”, “Did not want the police involved”, “Did not want the offender to get into trouble”, and “Private or personal matter”, to name but a few (Allen, 2007; Cohn et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2010).

3.2.2. Perceived seriousness. In their book *Decision Making in Criminal Justice*, Gottfredson and Gottfredson (1988) suggested that, although all criminal justice actors (including victims of crime) have their own discretion, the decision-making process related to a crime is highly influenced by three main factors: (1) seriousness of the offense, (2) the relationship between victim and offender, and (3) the prior criminal record of the offender. Although the third one is not related to the victim’s decision, they argue that previous convictions from the offender will influence the criminal justice decision-making in the investigative process of the offence. According to their theory, a high perception of seriousness of the offence increases the likelihood of

reporting it, whilst a close relationship between the victim and the offender decreases it, as previously suggested by Black (1976). More recent research has been conducted on the phenomenon and has obtained similar results.

One review conducted by Skogan in the mid-eighties (1984) presented the results from various crime surveys around the world such as Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, Spain, Germany, Sweden, Switzerland, and Israel. Results show that the most common reason for not reporting a crime was that victims thought that it was “not serious enough” to be reported. Other reasons for not reporting the crime were “lack of proof” and “nothing could be done” and “the police can’t do anything”. This suggests that the victim’s perceived seriousness and impression of a potential lack of evidence have a major influence on their decision to report the crime to the authorities. Some support for this theory was found in Barclay (2003) in his study on farm crime in Australia whilst the majority of farmers who were victimised did not report to the police because it was too difficult to prove (56%), difficult to tell if a crime had occurred (53%), too much time had passed (52%). Similarly, Thompson and colleagues (2010) studied reporting sexual and physical victimisation with a sample of 492 female undergraduate college students and found that the most common reason for both sexual and physical offences was that the crime was not serious enough.

This was followed by not wanting anyone to know, not wanting the police involved, and being ashamed or embarrassed from victims of sexual offences and not wanting the police involved, not wanting to get the offender in trouble, and not wanting anyone to know from victims of physical offences. More recently, Cohn and colleagues (2013) looked at the differences in reporting between two rape tactics, forcible rape (FR; $n = 376$) and drug-or-alcohol-facilitated/incapacitated rape (DAFR/IR; $n = 119$), and their

relationships with main reasons behind non-reporting. In order to analyse the latest, they conducted a principal component analysis to reduce the number of variables which resulted in the three following factors: Others knowing, Non-acknowledgement, and Criminal justice concerns. According to their results, the main reasons for not reporting when the rape was DAFR/IR were “Not clear if it was a crime or that harm was intended”, “Lack of proof that the incident happened” and “Did not think it was serious enough to report”, reasons included in the Non-acknowledgement factor which was found to have a significant positive relationship with DAFR/IR. By looking at two different tactics of rape, they argue that the victims’ perception of the crime affects their decision to report it.

3.2.3. Offender’s characteristics and crime disclosure. Similarly to the perceived seriousness of the crime, investigations were conducted to verify if the offender’s characteristics could have a potential impact on the victim’s decision to report a crime or not. At the time of Black’s theory on the relational distance between the victim and the offender, many studies on victimisation, but mostly on domestic violence, found support to his hypothesis suggesting that the closer the relationship between them, less likely were the chances of reporting. Block (1974), for instance, reported that when they were related, the victims reported the assault to the police in 44% of the cases, compared to 51% when it was committed by an acquaintance and 66% when the assault was committed by a stranger. This was supported by Skogan (1976) who reported that within all types of crime, the level of reporting was higher when the crime was committed by a stranger rather than someone known by the victims. However, these papers were published in the 1970’s and according to recent longitudinal reviews on crime disclosure family related violence and intimate violence have seen an increase in

the level of reporting over the years. The studies, one from the BCS from 1991 and 2007/08 (Tarling and Morris, 2010) and the other from the National Crime Survey from 1973 to 1993 and the National Crime Victimization Survey from 1992 to 2005 (Baumer and Lauritsen, 2010), reveal an increase of the level of reporting of family violence and violence committed by acquaintances. According to Tarling and Morris (2010), the latest increased from 29 to 48 per cent and the disclosure level of domestic violence increased from 23 to 40 per cent. Therefore, they argue that nowadays the level of reporting for violent crimes committed by known offenders (acquaintance, intimate partner, or relatives) is now comparable to the reporting level of violent crimes committed by strangers, which stayed still over the years (38%). This could explain why findings from current studies do not obtain significant results supporting Black's theory.

On the other hand, in their study comparing sexual victimisation and physical victimisation, Thompson and colleagues (2010) found that the victim-offender relationship was found to have significant results. Women victimised by intimates for instance were found to be more likely than were women victimised by non-intimates to say they did not report because they did not want anyone to know about the incident (AOR = 3.96, 95% CI = 1.44–10.88). Corroborating this, Allen's (2007) research on rape victims found that victims attacked by strangers were more likely to report than victims who knew their attackers. Similarly, in his study on the immediate action taken from the victims, Ruback (1994) found that for both types of crime, if the offender was a stranger to the victim, the victim was significantly more likely to report it immediately to the police than to speak to someone else first or take other actions. In contrast, when the offender was known by the victim, the victim was more likely to

seek advice or take other action before reporting it to the police. These results support Black's theory that the victim-offender relationship does influence the victim's decision to report the crime or not. Consequently, the debate remains and this variable should still be taken into consideration when examining reasons behind crime disclosure.

Finally, a different approach to the potential influence of the victim-offender relationship on crime disclosure was taken by Wong and van de Schoot (2011). They examined the impact of the offender's gender on crime reporting. They used data from the NCVS from 1992 to 2006 and examined robbery with assaults cases where the offender's sex was known, which led them to a sample of 478. Overall, 371 (76%) of the offences were reported to the police. They found that the level of reporting of crimes committed by male offenders were significantly higher than when they were committed by female offenders (78% compared to 58%; $\chi^2_{(1)} = 11.84, p < .001$). Their findings also show that in 54% of the offences committed by male offenders they were also a stranger to the victim compared to only 10% of offences committed by women. In addition, victims were more likely to report a crime committed by a stranger (82%) compared to a known offender (70%). When looking at the offender's gender, victims were more likely to report a crime committed by a known female offender (58%) compared to a stranger female offender (57%). Inversely, victims were more likely to report offences committed by male strangers (83%) compared to the ones committed by known male offenders (74%). Finally, they also investigated the influence of the victim's gender on the decision to report or not. They found that when the offender was male, 78% of the female victims notified the police, whereas this was only 43% for female offenders. Again, different results were found for male victims as 78% of the

male victims reported to the police if the offender was male, whereas this was 71% for female offenders. This supports earlier findings by Block (1974) stating that only 39% of assaults in which both victim and offender were women (18) were reported to the police compared to attacks of men against women, 69% of 35. These findings corroborate other studies suggesting that the victim's gender has a possible impact on his/her decision to disclose an offence to the police.

3.2.4. Victim's characteristics and crime disclosure. Some authors paid more attention to the victim's characteristics as a potential influence on his/her decision to disclose an offence to the police. In Skogan's review (1984), international surveys reported that the victim's gender, age, and involvement had an impact on the decision to report or not. Data from the review suggest that women are more likely than men to report a crime and that reporting is more frequent amongst the elderly, as the majority of crimes committed on people under 30 go unreported. In addition, it appears that the victim's involvement in the crime or their opinion that they may "put themselves into trouble" also decrease the likelihood of reporting the crime (Skogan, 1984).

In regard to the victim's gender, several studies found supporting results to the review's findings. An early study from Skogan (1976) stated that for all types of crime women showed that they were 5% more likely to report the crime to the police compared to men. Similarly, Block (1974) found that 55% of crimes against men were notified to the police compared to 61% of the crimes against women. MacDonald (2001) also obtained significant evidence with a sample of 2,873 burglaries from the BSC of 1994 and 1996 showing that men are significantly less likely to report a burglary compared to women. In the same way, in their research on staking and cyber-stalking victimisation, Bradford and Englebrecht (2010) found that female cyber-

stalking victims who knew their offenders were three times more likely to report it to the police than their male counterparts. Allen (2007) examined gender differences in a sample of 1,052 rape victims and found that male victims were significantly (about 14.3%) less likely to report the crime than female victims. Although it was already discussed that rape is one of the most under-reported crime against persons, it is also noteworthy that male rape has an additional taboo element that might decrease the likelihood of reporting and then explains the latest findings. However, these results support a similar study conducted by Pino and Meier (1999) that, using the NCVS in US for the year 1979 to 1987, looked at a sample of 81 male rape victims in order to investigate any difference in the reasons for not reporting rape between male and female victims. They found that female rape victims are significantly ($p < .05$) more likely than male rape victims to report to the police, with 54% and 42%, respectively.

Pino and Meier analysis also examined gender differences in the reasons behind reporting. For both genders, they found that perceived seriousness of the crime is the main factor in the decision to report a crime. However, they also found significant differences in the elements influencing the perception of seriousness between genders. Female rape victims seemed to perceive a crime as more serious when it involves another crime (e.g. something got stolen), the offender is a stranger to the victim and the victim needs medical attention. As to male rape victims, they appeared to judge the seriousness of a crime mainly on the induced injuries and seeking medical assistance. None of the other factors were found to have significant impact on male victims' decision to report the crime to the police. On the other hand, Allen (2007) findings state that male victims who did not report the rape were less likely than their female counterparts to cite fear of reprisal as a reason not to report and also less likely to have

told someone other than the police. In addition, when injured, they were also less likely to notify the police, avoiding medical professionals as well.

Other victim's characteristics such as age and involvement were analysed by social scientists. As reported by Skogan (1976) in his study, over half (55%) of older adults aged 35 years old and over reported the crime to the police compared to 49.2% of adults aged between 20 and 34 and only 31.5% of adolescents (12-19), even though the last two groups represented over 74% of the personal victimisation at the time of his research. This is supported in a recent study conducted by Bosick, Rennison, Gover, Dodge, 2012. They investigated reporting crime's consistency over time by using data from the NCVS between 1992 and 2010, which resulted in 44 619 cases. They found significant differences between ages and also a consistent increase of reporting towards ages. They found a significant positive relationship between age and level of reporting. For instance, when looking at the two opposite age groups, they found that the percentage of violence reported to the police more than doubles between the youngest (12-15 years old, 26.4% reported) and the eldest participants (65 years old and older, 55.4% reported). Finally, some findings show that when the victim had a certain involvement in the occurrence of the crime (e.g. provoked fight, use of alcohol or drugs) they were less likely to report the crime. For example, in the case of DARF/IR victims, they were more likely to cite reasons related to the non-acknowledgement of the crime such as "not sure if it was a crime" and "not sure if there was intention to harm" compared to victims of FR (Cohn et al., 2013). Alcohol involvement was also analysed in an earlier study by Block (1974) and findings show that when alcohol was only used by the offender 68% of the offences were reported to the police compared to

48% of those in which the victim was drinking, and 52% of those in which there was no drinking involved.

An additional victim characteristic that was found to present difference between groups was the victim's ethnicity. In his analytical review using a sample of 35,393 respondents from the British Crime Survey (18,870 from the 1996 survey and 16,523 from the 1994 survey), MacDonald (2001) found that respondents of Asian origins significantly reported more than the rest of the respondents. In addition to the influence of the victim's characteristics, situational factors were also found to be influential in the victim's decision to notify the police in the occurrence of an offence. The use of a weapon by the offender, injuries, multiple offenders, and other crimes involved (e.g. robbery and rape) all appear to increase the likelihood of reporting, which also increases the perceived seriousness of the crime (Addington and Rennison, 2008; Block, 1974; Cohn et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2010). These findings point out the importance of investigating all possible factors influencing the victim's reasons and decision to disclose crime to the police and stress the need of additional data on these variables.

3.2.5 Gap and implications in crime disclosure research. The under-reporting issue is not only a problem in regard to the accuracy of crime statistics, but also has an impact on the work of the police forces and government agencies on combating crime. In order to fight crime police forces have to understand where crime is occurring and which types of crime do occur and therefore rely strongly on data provided by the community and a willingness to report crime. It is then important to examine all aspects of under-reporting, which types of crime may be under-reported and even if specific offences go unreported, and the reasons behind under-reporting. Research on

crime disclosure could provide information to support police forces to develop training and strategies to encourage greater reporting and prevent crime, to improve their knowledge on crime disclosure, to assist in their investigations and decision-making process, and to enhance the accuracy of their data (Carcach and Markkai, 2002; Taylor, 2002).

Despite a large amount of research on crime disclosure providing information on factors influencing the victim's decision to report a crime, within Investigative Psychology and other social sciences disciplines very little is known on the personality correlates of crime disclosure. In other words, how the victim's own interpersonal personality traits could affect his/her decision to disclose an offence. As mentioned earlier, the relationship between offender and victim has an impact on crime disclosure (Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 1988), which then implies that their interaction during the offence might have played a role in the decision process to disclose the crime. In addition, studies revealed that self-blaming from the victim also influence crime disclosure; the more the victim blames him/herself less likely would he/she be to disclose the offence. For instance, if a victim used alcohol prior to the offence he/she might feel responsible to have put him/herself into a risky situation. Additionally, the victim's resistance was also examined within crime disclosure research (Ullman, 1996). Again, the victim's level of resistance during the attack could lead the victim to self-blame. On one side, a passive victim who did not show any resistance might regret not trying to stop the offender and might blame him/herself for the victimisation. On the other side, a victim who showed resistance might also blame him/herself by seeing the reaction as provocative and escalated the situation. Although no significant results could directly relate disclosure and the victim's reaction during the crime, the

interaction with the offender might have an impact on the victim's perception of his/her role in the offence and therefore influences the decision to report it.

By examining the personality correlates of crime disclosure it would enhance the current data on crime disclosure as well as providing future research avenues on the matter which could then impact on training and prevention for victims and organisations involved in fighting crime.

3.3. Conclusion

As discussed in Chapters I and II, most of the existing literature on workplace violence requires empirical rigour and is, in many cases, anecdotal in nature. When empirical research has been carried out, most of the work has been conducted on specific "at risk" occupations such as emergency department services, or on a particular type of violence such as bullying between colleagues. Furthermore, research on victims' characteristics looked mainly at the psychological consequences of victimisation or at the victim's characteristics using personality tests such as the Big Five. Considering Canter's (1989) theory that any offences can be seen, to a certain level, as an interaction between the victim and the offender, there is indeed a gap in the literature on victims' interpersonal tendencies and their "relationship" with the offender and consequently on the role that these variables could have on victimisation. These reasons, added to the difficulty in obtaining accurate data in this area of psychological research (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006), indicate a need for research in the field of victimisation at the workplace to develop a stronger theoretical foundation on its risk factors. Additionally, very little is known on factors influencing crime disclosure and particularly on its relationship with the victims' individual characteristics such as interpersonal tendencies. Studying the personality correlates of crime disclosure and

gathering information on the reasons behind (under)reporting are essential to fully understand the phenomenon of workplace violence disclosure rate. Those findings on both workplace victimisation and its disclosure could provide extrapolation to a number of main areas of interest (e.g. crime prevention and training, crime awareness and disclosure, crime statistics, police responses, etc.). As such, a significant research endeavour in this area should be to look at the possible relationships between interpersonal tendencies and victimisation at work for all types of violence in all kinds of work settings. Added to the collection of additional data on workplace incident disclosure, these elements could provide a helpful guide to police investigations and employers when implementing crime prevention and training programmes at the workplace as well as dealing with other types of violent crime.

The problem with most of the pre-existing studies on victims' characteristics in the field of workplace violence is that they tend to place emphasis on victims' personality traits such as Extraversion and Neurotism. By looking at the characteristics of personality traits, such as anxiety, depression, hostility, impulsiveness, self-consciousness, and vulnerability in the case of Neurotism, it might be possible, for instance, to explain why someone may be seen as an easy target of someone else's aggressive behaviour. Assumptions can also be suggested on the possible coping strategies and victim's well-being post-incident. Nonetheless, based on those characteristics, one can only hypothesise on the victim's possible reaction when interacting with the offender. As previously mentioned, work conflict or aggression involves at least two parties, which consequently involves interpersonal interactions. Moreover, those interactions are influenced by both actors' personality traits and interpersonal styles (e.g. how they would interact with others). Additionally, studies

show that the way someone reacts towards an individual's behaviour would be likely to influence the outcome of the interaction, in this case the escalation (or de-escalation) of a potential incident at work (e.g. Zapf and Gross, 2001). Consequently, there is a need to investigate victims' interpersonal tendencies when interacting with others in order to provide a complete picture of victimisation and potential risk factors.

Briefly, most of the research that has been conducted on victimisation focussed on the individual, victim or offender, but few looked at it as an interaction between the two actors and therefore little has been provided on victim's interpersonal tendencies and their impact on victimisation. Similarly, very little is known on personality correlates of crime disclosure, research mainly looking at descriptive statistics and personal/social reasons behind it. In the following chapters, further analysis on crime disclosure will be presented as well as investigations on the possible influence that victim's characteristics might have on workplace victimisation and on workplace disclosure.

Chapter IV

Methodology

This chapter explores the methodological orientation of the thesis. A definition and an overview of the inventory and different analyses used throughout this research are provided to clearly justify their utilisation for the purpose of this work. While the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior inventory (Schutz, 1958) is defined in this chapter, a deeper analysis of its facet structure is performed in Chapter Five. Although conventional analyses were conducted within this work (e.g. correlations, chi-square), a detailed explanation of more unusual methodologies such as Facet theory is provided in this chapter. These, as well as a description of the research's samples and qualitative methods, are described and their potential implications are also discussed.

4.1. Aims of the thesis

The main aim of this research is to answer four central questions:

- 1) What is the nature of workplace violence experienced by taxi drivers and a “low risk” occupation that is home-visit loan sellers?
- 2) Is there any relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and workplace victimisation?
- 3) Is there any relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and workplace violence disclosure?
- 4) What are the reasons behind (under)reporting workplace violence?

In order to obtain these answers, three key studies were conducted, two of them using quantitative data by means of questionnaires and the last one using case studies (qualitative analyses). Each study has its own chapter (see Chapters VI, VII, and VIII)

and their hypotheses and methodology will be explained in further detail in their respective chapter. A fourth study was conducted comparing both samples (see next section) in order to test for any differences on their workplace victimisation and disclosure level (see Chapter IX).

4.2. Samples

Most of the literature on workplace violence focuses on bullying between co-workers. This type of violence (type III: worker-on-worker) with this particular form of violence have been the centre of attention of numerous studies, regrettably neglecting other types of perpetrators (see Chapter II for more details) and other forms of violence such as threat, verbal abuse and assaults, which remain highly frequent within the working population. Research on workplace violence committed by customers or strangers concentrates on specific occupations where violence occurs on a daily basis and where, to a certain degree, it is almost expected. These occupations include emergency departments in hospital (A&E), the police force, prison officers, social work departments, and the retail industry. These professions and settings contain high risks of violence attributable to the type of customers/clients/patients that they have to work with (e.g. prisoners, patients in distress, mentally ill client, offenders), as well as the circumstances related to their duties (e.g. handling money, stressful environment, working alone). Therefore, it is fair to say that due to the nature of their job those workers usually have to deal with a certain degree of violence at least once in their career. Fortunately, several studies have been conducted in order to prevent, train employees, explain, and heighten awareness on workplace violence within those occupations. However, very little is known in regard to “low risk” occupations. For the purpose of this research, a “low risk” occupation is defined as a job that does not

include working with risky populations like offenders and mentally ill patients or in stressful settings such as A&E departments. Put simply, they are occupations where violence is almost unexpected. Clearly, it is impossible to be certain that their customers do not have a mental illness or criminal intentions which would put them at risk of violence, but their general work setting could be considered to put them less at risk than the police force and emergency services.

4.2.1. Polish home-visit loan sellers. Home-visit workers are one specific group who have been neglected by researchers on workplace violence. Very few studies have been conducted on this population of workers, though their working conditions comprise most of the factors associated with the risk of violence at work. When this type of work setting was examined, most studies looked at health care or social care workers (e.g. Waddington et al., 2006), excluding sales/loan representatives, postmen, energy suppliers' engineers, and other types of home-visit workers. According to Barling, Rogers, and Kelloway (2001), people working in "normal" settings are more likely to be provided with support and protection by other employees or employers than people working at the client's home and outside the organisation. Therefore, they suggested that work settings, "normal settings" versus client's home, would have a critical effect on the consequences of workplace violence. Waddington et al. (2006) mentioned that, adding to other situational risk factors such as isolation and lack of escape, workers who visit a customers' house are considered more vulnerable than in their own territory due to the unfamiliarity with the environment and the lack of control on the circumstances. An example of the latter could be being offered to sit on the chair that is the furthest away from the exit. These elements add a certain vulnerability to victimisation. One study conducted in the United Kingdom corroborates this

hypothesis. With a sample of 800 women and 200 men, they reported that 1 in 3 professionals who went out to meet their clients had been threatened, and 1 in 7 male professionals working away from their office had been attacked (Vandenbos and Bulatao, 1996). Barling and colleagues (2001) created and tested a structural model in order to predict personal and organisational consequences of workplace violence and sexual harassment on a sample of health care workers doing home-visits. Their model, based on the literature, suggests that workplace violence and sexual harassment would predict fear of their repetition at work, consequently creating a negative mood such as anxiety and anger and a perception of injustice. These negative feelings combined (e.g. fear, negative mood and perceived injustice) would in turn predict negative consequences at work such as poor interpersonal job performance and greater neglect. Their findings supported their model and the co-occurrence of workplace violence and sexual harassment.

The present research includes a sample of 1,876 home-visit workers from Poland. At the time of the investigation, these workers were loan sellers working for an international company across their country. Their day-to-day duties comprised bringing the loan money directly to the person who required the loan. The meeting and hand over of the money occurred at the customer's home where the loan seller presented him/herself alone at the hour that was most suitable for the client, which could involve working outside "normal office hours". Their duties also included going to the customer's home to collect payments from the loan. Although their duties did not include working with offenders or mentally ill patients or in rush hours and stressful environments, all duties mentioned above were comprised in the list of situational risk factors of workplace violence. In addition, the customer's financial

situation can be considered by some as being stressful and therefore could provoke feelings of powerlessness and even anger when the time came to provide payments.

This would add an extra risk factor to the loan sellers' working conditions.

Consequently, studying this type of sample, which was generally neglected by researchers in this area, could provide important data on the type of violence and its risk factors within not only this occupation but also within similar home-visit professions.

4.2.1.1. Recruitment of loan sellers sample. The participants were recruited in the context of a consultancy project requested by their company. A total of 3,000 questionnaires were sent to home-visit workers employed by the same loan company located in Poland in order to collect more data on their victimisation at the workplace. A total of 1,868 complete questionnaires were sent back to the researcher, for a response level of 62.3%. Unfortunately, as the sample was recruited through a consultancy project and from a different country, it was no longer possible for the present researcher to gather more information from this sample after the consultancy reports were handed over. The sample's demographic data are described in Chapter VI.

4.2.2. British taxi drivers. In addition to the loan sellers' sample, taxi drivers were also recruited as participants in another part of the study. Although research on violence against taxi drivers is highly prevalent in the literature and even in the media, most data are on physical assaults and other major offences committed by either customers or strangers. Additionally, research shows that a small percentage of taxi drivers report workplace violence (Elzinga, 1996; Stenning, 1996; Warshaw and Messite, 1996; Wynne, Clarkin, Cox and Griffiths, 1996) which directly impact on police work but also on its statistics. For instance, in the 1990s in New South Wales, it

was estimated that only 10 per cent of incidents experienced by taxi drivers were reported to the police (Adams, 1996; Hume, 1995). Consequently, very little is known on taxi drivers' disclosure and collaboration with the police force or on other forms of workplace incidents that they could experience such as verbal abuse and threats. Despite many campaigns to increase people's awareness and the establishment of protective tools such as partitions in taxis (www.taxi-library.org), workplace violence remains ubiquitous within the taxi drivers' world. Its popularity in the literature can be explained by the seriousness of offences committed on taxi drivers, going as far as murder.

According to OSHA (2010), taxi drivers are 20 times more likely to be murdered on the job than other workers. As reported by Sygnatur and Toscano (2000), in 1998 in the United States, the homicide rate for taxi drivers was four times that of police and law enforcement officers and from 1993 to 2002 five times (23.7) that of protective service occupations (4.60) (Hendricks, Jenkins, and Anderson 2007). Media reporting stories of youngsters killing a taxi driver just for the "thrill" of killing someone or stories about robberies that went bad do attract people's and researchers' attention. Nevertheless, taxi drivers' experience of violence does not only include physical assaults. Studies from all over the world reveal patterns of abuse, threats, verbal and physical harassment, sexual harassment, and false allegations, which could induce a high level of stress to the individual involved (Hume, 1995; Keatsdale, 1995; Mayhew, 2000). Mayhew and Chappell (2005) supported it when they looked at an Australian population of workers (N = 1,362) which included taxi drivers. The type of violence reported by taxi drivers in the last 12 months prior to their research showed that 81% of the incidents were verbal abuse with only 10% of the incidents being physical assaults.

They also suggested that there are two core risk factors of workplace violence: face-to-face contact with customers and cash or high value goods on site. These factors added to other factors mentioned in Chapter II suggest that taxi drivers are at high risk of workplace violence. Their work duties include working outside “office hours”, working outside an office setting, handling money, working alone, working with people who can be under the influence of alcohol or drugs and the simple fact that they do not know the final destination of their journey (what or who can be waiting for them at the end) put them at risk of potential violence.

A report of 606 taxicab driver homicides that occurred in North America (both US and Canada) between 1980 and 1994 (Rathbone, 2002) provide further information on the nature of violence that they have experienced. The data were gathered primarily from newspaper articles, therefore not all cases could provide the information required. However, the author was able to define specific patterns related to taxi driver homicides. The figures presented in Table 4.1 corroborate findings on risk factors. When robbery was not the main motive, research shows that most violent incidents at work resulted from arguments between the driver and the customers. Looking at workplace violence at large, arguments between workers and patients/customers was recorded to be the cause of 1/7 homicides at work (Smith, 2002).

Table 4.1

Data summary of 606 taxi driver homicides reported in the United States and Canada between 1980 and 1994.

Question	Data	Sample
At what time did the homicide occur?	12:00am - 5:59am: 41% (48) 6:00am - 11:59am: 6% (7) 12:00pm - 5:59pm: 12% (14) 6:00pm - 11:59pm: 41% (48)	117
Where was the taxi driver at the time of the incident?	Driver in the cab: 94% (115) Driver outside the cab: 6% (7)	122
Reasons for the attack?	Robbery or suspected robbery: 91% (127) Known or likely serial killing : 20% (28)	139 (data exceeds 100%)
Where was the offender at the time of the attack?	Offender in the cab: 75% (49) Offender outside the cab: 25% (16)	65
How old was the offender?	Under 20: 66% (82) 20-29: 29% (36) 30 or over: 5% (6)	124 Min: 12 Max: 37

Couto and colleagues (2011) conducted 32 interviews among public transport workers, including bus drivers, taxi drivers, mini-bus drivers, and car owners. They revealed that, from the point of view of the eight taxi drivers interviewed, most violence occurs either because of fare issues, rudeness/disrespect, disdain for their job, or alcohol abuse. In addition, taxi drivers pointed out the lack of security as a main trigger of violence.

However, research also found potential protective factors. A recent study conducted by Schwer et al. (2010) looked at the possible role of behavioural factors in the prevalence of taxi drivers' victimisation amongst 401 taxi drivers in Las Vegas. They examined various individual factors such as general knowledge of taxi driver homicide rates, power relationship, risk taking, and taxi driver experiences and perceptions in

order to analyse these variables' impact on taxi driver victimisation. They also divided workplace violence and work-related stress, which were measured by robbery and physical abuse (violence) and verbal abuse, fare evasion, and false allegation (stress) respectively. Results show that participants with knowledge of the relationship between local and national rate of taxi driver homicide had a significant negative relationship with assaults, suggesting that drivers' information awareness might have an impact on the prevention of victimisation. As to the relationship between risk taking and workplace victimisation, stronger disagreement with the statement "Most drivers are risk averse" was associated with fewer reported incidents of assaults. This contradicts the expectation that a greater agreement with this statement would be associated with lower rate of physical assaults. Schwer and colleagues (2010) explained this finding by saying that the statement might be seen as a false positive stereotype, which means that possibly most taxi drivers want to believe that they are careful, however it does not agree easily with the frequently high rates of workplace violence in their profession. Their results revealed statistically significant factors decreasing risk of violence such as work experience, knowledge of the Las Vegas homicide rate, knowledge of the community as reflected in the length of time the driver has lived in the community, minority status, driver confidence in his or her abilities, and the belief that drivers were averse to risk taking.

The present study recruited 47 taxi drivers from a metropolitan area of Scotland. Their shifts vary between day and night and week days and weekend. Their main duty was to collect one or several customers at a specific address or from a taxi rank and to drive him/her/them to the desired destination by conditional to a money transaction. However, due to the shift patterns, evening, night, and weekend workers were more at

risk of working with customers under the influence of substances such as drugs or alcohol. Adding stressful situations such as rush hours and customers in a hurry, they are highly at risk of negative reactions from their clientele. In addition, handling money in isolated locations also makes them vulnerable to robbery. Working in Scotland, the taxi drivers in this sample were not provided with CCTV technology within their vehicles. For the Black cab drivers only, the presence of partition between them and the customers was the only preventive method in use.

Although numerous studies have been conducted on this population of workers, there is a need for more research on risk factors behind violence against taxi drivers and on their level of disclosure and collaboration with the police force.

4.2.2.1. Recruitment of taxi drivers sample. As well as the home-visit loan sellers sample, an additional sample consisting of taxi drivers was added to the research design for two main reasons. Firstly, following the analysis from the first sample, additional questions and hypotheses surfaced and required further recruitment and data collection in order to test them. The researcher has tried to recruit a similar sample of home-visit workers from Britain by contacting various companies (loan companies, energy suppliers, national post services), but without success. So, by looking at the main criteria of the first sample, which were lone-working, handling money, working outside an office setting, and sometimes working out of office hours, other possible professions such as taxi drivers were considered as the second sample. Secondly, taxi drivers' victimisation has been the topic of numerous studies and is still attracting the attention of researchers due to its prevalence all around the world. However, most statistics present extreme cases such as homicides or only descriptive data. Very little is known

on the different level of victimisation (forms of violence) and their disclosure rate. For that reason and for fitting the criteria, a British taxi drivers sample was recruited.

A total of 170 questionnaires were distributed in person to black cab taxi drivers located at taxi ranks at various locations in a metropolitan area of Scotland. The potential participants were approached in person and a brief explanation of the research was provided as well as the questionnaire, consent form, and pre-addressed stamped envelope. Out of 170, 47 complete questionnaires were returned, for a response level of 28%. Once more, the sample's descriptive data are described in more details later in this thesis (see Chapter VI).

4.3. Mixed Methodologies

The main goal of this research is to enhance knowledge on workplace victimisation and crime disclosure from the victim's perspective. Although the use of quantitative data offered comprehensive information on the topics, after analysing the first dataset of this research (loan sellers' sample) it appeared clearer that more detailed experiences of victimisation would enrich and clarify the data and provide a better understanding of the phenomenon. To achieve this, qualitative data was collected in the second part of this research providing exhaustive information on the victim's experience as well as further details on the current theories investigated in the quantitative data. This type of research design is known as mixed methodology. Whilst quantitative methods are known to be objective, replicable, generalising findings, and inquiring existing theories, qualitative methods intend to explore and understand the participants' own experiences, thoughts, and perceptions. The main advantage of using the mixed methodology is "opportunity to compensate for inherent method weaknesses, capitalize on inherent method strengths, and offset inevitable method biases" (Greene, 2007, p. xiii). In other

words, mixed methods combine the strength from both types of methodology, completing each other to maximise the results. According to Creswell's (2003) definitions of mixed methods, the procedure chosen for this research is known as sequential explanatory design. This implies the collection and analysis of quantitative data first, then collection of qualitative data to complement and reinforce the findings from previous analysis. Data are not mixed during the analysis, but integrated together during the interpretation phase. This design usually offers the participants' perspective on themes and findings from previous quantitative analyses. For this reason, the present research opted for this research design to elaborate on the quantitative findings, validate theories, and offer participants' views on workplace victimisation. In addition, qualitative analyses were also useful for items from the questionnaire involving open statement from the participant which could not be analysed quantitatively (e.g. Have you experienced any other sort of incident? Please state here). Consequently, both quantitative and qualitative methods were performed to provide clear and truthful findings.

4.4. Quantitative analyses

Based on the literature, the quantitative aspect of the current research investigates crime occurrence at the workplace, crime disclosure rate, differences between groups (e.g. victim/non victim, genders), and the relationship between victimisation and personality traits, in this case interpersonal trends. The quantitative data of this research were collected by means of questionnaires which included demographic, incident, disclosure, and interpersonal tendency variables¹. The incident occurrence was measured by a rating scale (1= never happened to 7= frequently) on a list of

¹ The full questionnaire can be seen in Appendix A

various incidents ranging from verbal abuse to actual violence. In order to measure the victim's interpersonal tendencies the present research used the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B) scale which is a version of the FIRO developed by William Schutz in the 1950's (Schutz, 1958). Quantitative analyses such as correlations, independent t-test analysis, and Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I) were then conducted to test the hypotheses such as looking at relationships between certain variables or at significant differences between groups. Although basic analyses are used throughout this research, the following section focuses on the explanation of the less common analyses performed in this research which is facet analysis and provides a detailed definition of the FIRO-B scale as it is a central element of the analyses. However, the latter is analysed in further detail in regard to its facet structure in the next chapter. Due to the length of the report and complexity of the analysis, it was preferable to present its results in a separate chapter.

4.4.1. Translation procedure for the Polish sample. Before examining the main inventory and analyses, it is important to note the procedure applied for the translation of the questionnaire for the Polish sample. The literature proposes two common procedures to develop a translation. First, there is the translation-back-translation procedure (Mastumoto and van de Vijver, 2011; Reynolds and Suzuki, 2012; Werner and Campbell, 1970; in van de Vijver and Tanzer, 1997). This procedure implies that the text is firstly translated from the original into a target language and then a second interpreter (or group of interpreters) independently translates the text back into its first language. Therefore, the accuracy of the translation is assessed by comparing both versions (original and back-translated). The second procedure is the committee approach. This implies that a group of people, often with various areas of expertise

(such as cultural, linguistic, and psychological) formulate a translation. The main advantage of using this procedure is the cooperative effort of various experts which in return can enhance the quality and reliability of the translation (van de Vijver and Tanzer, 1997). In the same line, van Widenfelt and colleagues (2005) suggested four main steps in order to obtain the best results when translating a test between two different languages/cultures. First they suggested to contact the main author of the inventory used in the study to investigate the existence of already translated versions and also to enhance the quality of the current translation in regard to definition and constructs of items. Second they suggested the creation of a Translation Team, including experienced translators but also native people from the cultures and speaking the languages involved in the study. Third, they suggested that the main procedure should start with individual translations, followed by comparison of these translation and creation of the final translation. Finally, the last step is the back-translation, not only after the assessment is done within the translated language, but they also suggested to use it during the translation process to clarify and correct any potential mistakes.

In the case of the current study, the translation procedure of the questionnaire (including the FIRO-B) only followed some of the proposed steps. The questionnaire was translated by expert translators from its original version, British English, into the target language, Polish. However, at the time of entering data for analysis, a back-translation was only conducted on specific qualitative items asking the participants if they have experienced further incidents. As the remaining items were quantitative and asked the participants to tick boxes or to use a Likert-type scale, it was not perceived

necessary from the present researcher to back-translate these items. The implications and limitations of this procedure will be discussed in further detail in Chapter XI.

4.4.2. Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour (FIRO-B).

Schutz's (1958) FIRO was designed to measure an individual's interpersonal orientation. The scale measures the dimensions of Control, Openness (also known as Affection) and Inclusion. In the mid-1970s, Pfeiffer and Heslin tested 75 of the most widely used training instruments and concluded that the FIRO was the most generally usable instrument (Pfeiffer and Heslin, 1976 in Thompson, 2000). However, in the years subsequent to that survey the FIRO instrument found its popularity beginning to decline. This weakening was due principally to another instrument, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) that quickly took over as the instrument of choice amongst practitioners. During the 1970's, the theory upon which this measurement is based along with the instrument itself has been expanded and revised (Schutz, 1992) which led to additional elements to the scale, one of which is the Element B- Behavior. This addition is viewed as being the driving force behind its renaissance.

The FIRO-B has been used as a measurement when examining many different areas such as cognitive style and affect (Tullett and Davies, 1997), within relationship abuse (Poorman and Seelau, 2001), personality correlates of offense styles (Youngs, 2004), and leadership and managerial skills at work (Ahmetoglu, Chamorro-Premuzic, Furnham, 2010) to name but a few. These studies have examined a wide range of diverse populations such as criminals, students, those working in business, same sex couples and people with disabilities. The diverse use of the instrument within a conventional sense not only shows the appreciation of the FIRO-B as a measurement

by practitioners but also highlights the need for rigorous testing of the validity of the scale as a result of its consistent and widespread use.

4.4.2.1. FIRO-B's items and dimensions. Schutz based his theory of interpersonal relationships on the notion that “people need people” (Schutz, 1987a). He postulated that there are three basic interpersonal needs or domains that are fulfilled through interactions with others, each one distinguishing itself in terms of the tendency to Express the particular aspect towards others and the tendency to Receive that aspect of behaviour from others within interpersonal relations. The first domain is the degree to which an individual identifies with power and dominance, which Schutz named Control. The Expressed component of the scale will reflect an individual who has a need to be dominant over others or be in charge or take the lead (Expressed Control). An example of this from the scale would be item 53 “I see to it that people do things the way I want them to”². The scale also permits those who allow others to control them to be measured (Received Control). Youngs (2004) in discussing Schutz states that this refers to rebellion and dominance which would be a low score in Received Control. This however is in direct opposition to those who report a high score of Received Control which would indicate compliance and submission. Schutz advocates that the interpersonal context is complex enough to allow for an individual to report extreme high or low scores on the Expressed and Received Control component respectively (Youngs, 2004).

The second domain is the need to form new relationships and associations with others, which Schutz defined as Inclusion. It determines the degree of contact and distinction that an individual seeks. It looks at the need to belong, to be involved, to

² The full FIRO-B inventory is presented in Appendix A

participate, to be recognised and also to be considered distinct. An example from the scale is item 1, “I seek out people to be with”, which is classed in Expressed Inclusion. Once more, Schutz’s scale also looks at the Receive aspect of Inclusion which is measured by items such as item 16, “People include me in their activities”. Inclusion is concerned with achieving the desired amounts of contact from others, naturally people differ in their need to be with others and how much they prefer to be alone, (Thompson, 2000).

The last domain relates to emotional ties and connections between others, called Openness (previously known as Affection). As Youngs (2004) states, Openness refers to the tendency to desire relationships with others that involve warmth and intimacy. Those who are willing to be open with others and reveal themselves to others in an emotional relationship are likely to score high on, for example, item 3 “I am totally honest with my close friends” that measures Expressed Openness. On the other hand, people who are sources of confidence to others, whom people opened themselves to, would be expected to score high on Received Openness. As with Inclusion everyone has some desire to want open relationships with others but also can at the same time preserve a desire to keep certain relations private. In addition to those domains’ Express and Receive aspects, Schutz’s theory distinguishes them between one’s interpersonal needs (Wanted behaviour) and interpersonal tendencies (Actual behaviour). In the present study only the aspects of interpersonal tendencies (Actual behaviour), both Expressed and Received, were measured.

The scale is a 54 item questionnaire and each item is answered on a 6 point Likert-type scale that ranges from disagree to agree. Each domain or dimension has 18 items divided between the aspects of Express and Receive; 9 items in each sub-dimension.

Schutz created a coding framework for each individual item in order to obtain a score out of 9 for each sub-dimension; 0 meaning that the individual does not present traits of this sub-dimension and 9 meaning that this sub-dimension is highly present in the individual's interpersonal tendencies. For instance, an individual who has scored 5 or 6 (strongly agree) to item 12 "My close friends tell me about private matters" would obtain a score of 1 on this particular item of Received Openness. On the other hand, individuals who scored between 1 and 4 on item 12 would obtain 0. Adding the scores from the eight remaining items measuring Received Openness, one can obtain the total score out of 9 on this sub-dimension. Schutz's scale also contains eight of what can be called reverse items³. An example of this is item 27, "There are some things I do not tell anyone", which involves scoring between 1 and 4 to obtain 1 on this item of Expressed Openness.

4.4.3. Facet Theory. Schutz (1958) states basing his theory on the framework of facet design developed by Louis Guttman in the 1950s (cf Borg and Shye, 1995). This interesting aspect of Schutz's inventory gives an additional strength to his model in comparison to other personality inventories (see Chapter V for more details about facet theory within the FIRO-B scale). Facet theory was introduced by Louis Guttman as a method used to conceptualise and explain constructs in a more formal and detailed manner, allowing for multidimensional data analysis grounded in and guided by a theoretical framework (Borg and Shye, 1995; Guttman and Greenbaum, 1998; Shye, Elizur, and Hoffman, 1994). The main advantage of using a facet theory approach is elegantly justified by Shye, Elizur, and Hoffman (1994, p. 100) when they note, "picturing a multivariate concept as a physical space is an efficient way to tackle its

³ Schutz's coding framework and reverse items are presented in Appendix B

complexity for theoretical and measurement purposes.” To put it briefly, facet theory involves theory construction and empirical research in which *a priori* assumptions provide a framework to the observations and those observations lead to *a posteriori* modifications, refinements, and extensions in the theory (Borg and Shye, 1995).

At the time when Guttman first formulated facet theory, behavioural scientists were following conventional analytic methods which perceived variables as distinct entities, endorsed statements such as “a affects b”, and focussed on different means of developing experimental design and inferential techniques that would then allow them to generalise their findings from a given sample of individuals to the general population. These methods are strongly efficient in biomedical and mechanical theories, where variables are seen as isolated objects inclined to be affected by external forces (Skye et al., 1994). Yet, behavioural sciences contain concepts that are much more complex than the rule of “a affects b”. Concepts such as attitude, intelligence, and anxiety for instance involve a complexity of various components all interrelated with each other. Moreover, their interrelationships and the amount of components included in each concept are usually unknown. Therefore, these variables cannot be perceived as isolated independent entities. By assuming that variables are *a priori* closely related to other variables, or even to an entire network of other variables from the same domain of study, often known as *content universe*, facet theory diverges from conventional approaches. Another distinction from other approaches which often look at correlations between variables as being “some bits” of a theoretical framework is that facet theory involves the investigation for an underlying theoretical design to the correlations. Guttman’s facet theory is concerned with multivariate contents and suggests techniques for the detection concept components and for demonstrating their

interrelationships (Borg and Shye, 1995; Skye et al., 1994). Such techniques include mapping sentence and multidimensional scaling analyses.

A mapping sentence is one of the basic devices of facet theory and is defined as a combination of formal and informal language (Borg and Shye, 1995; Guttman, 1991). It expresses observations in a form that facilitates theory building by coordinating those formal and informal concepts and language in an explicit and systematic way (Guttman and Greenbaum, 1998). In other words, it is not a theory itself but a tool or definition of all possible observations within the *content universe*, when combined to other methods such as Smallest Space Analysis, would facilitate the construction of a theory (Guttman, 1991). According to Shye (1978) “A mapping sentence should contain three basic elements of the problem under study: respondents, stimuli, and responses, which are the population facet, the content facet, and the response facet, respectively.” Shye et al. (1994) elegantly illustrated it using Guttman’s example on the study of human intelligence. Based on the law of intelligence monotonicity (see Shye et al., 1994 p. 62 for more details), they could conclude that law’s “rationale is grounded in the common range of intelligence items {very correct...very incorrect} with respect to an objective rule” (p.74-75). However, it is possible to claim that intelligence goes much further than this rationale. In the general population, some people are known to be good with numbers, others with words, certain are good with spatial forms, and some are good with any combinations of these materials. Consequently, psychometricians considered measuring Intelligence separately, in relation with each of these forms of material. Therefore, when looking at it in a form of mapping sentence, here is what it would look like:

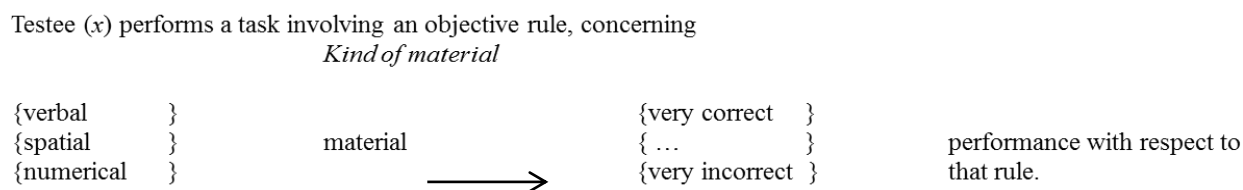


Figure 4.1. Example of a mapping sentence for the study of human intelligence (Shye et al., 1994)

In Figure 4.1 it is possible to distinguish the three main aspects of the mapping sentence: testee (x) as the population facet; kind of material as a content facet; performance as the response facet. To provide a better example, further content facets can be added. For instance, while looking at the study of human intelligence, Guttman paid attention to the mental operation facet, or cognitive task, involves in intelligence testing such as the ability to recall (recall), the ability to apply knowledge (application) like using multiplication tables, and the ability to use inference rule (inference) such as completing a series of number (Shye et al. 1994). Figure 4.2 presents the final mapping sentence with the addition of the mental operation facet.

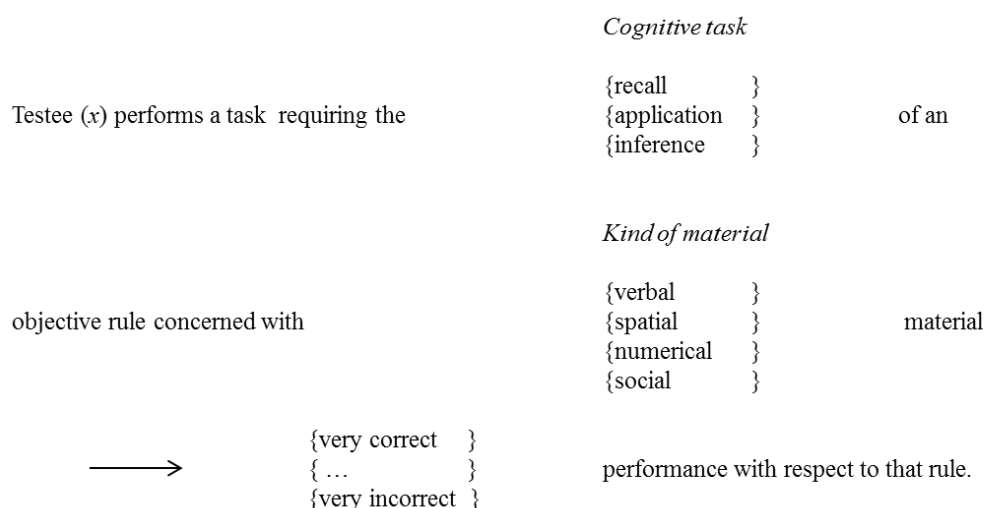


Figure 4.2. Guttman's mapping sentence of human intelligence with mental operation facet and kind of material facet (Shye et al., 1994)

Conceptualising reliable and valid classification systems remains a challenge in all fields of social sciences. Knowing that there are two or more ways to categorise the same construct or behaviour, classifying them becomes even harder. By using facet theory and its mapping sentence technique, it is then possible to use different classification systems on the same construct. Each of the classifications is internally consistent, with each item in a clearly defined logical space.

In summary, facet theory differs from other methods by its notion that a set of variables is nothing but a sample draw from a rich and infinitely diversified “concept of space”, rather than isolated phenomena as perceived by other methods (Shye et al., 1994). This particular scientific imagery can be defined as its main contribution to behavioural science. The use of facet theory and its analysis in this research can be seen in the following chapters, more particularly in Chapter V where it is used to investigate the facet structure of the FIRO-B scale. The following sections define and justify the use of analytical techniques derived from facet theory and where its distinction from factor analysis is also discussed.

4.4.4. Multidimensional Scaling (MDS). As the founder of facet theory, Louis Guttman was strongly supporting the principle that the investigative methods used to understand data should also connect with theoretical development; the two elements being inseparable. In his own words, “the form of data analysis is part of the hypothesis” (in Levy, 1994, p.1). Using facet theory, Guttman’s theory proposed another way to hypothesise and analyse interactions within a set of variables. The issue related to analysing the structure of a correlation matrix based on facet design led to the development of methods for nonmetric analysis of multivariate data, known as multidimensional scaling (MDS) (Guttman and Greenbaum, 1998). MDS include a

variety of different methods with a common aspect of examining the underlying structure of a set of variables by geometrically portraying their Inter-correlations in space. That space can therefore be partitioned, facet by facet, into regions that comprise only points with the same structure. In other words, they plot “[...] structuples into points, facet elements into regions, and facets into partitions of the space” (Borg and Shye, 1995, p.96). A good example of these methods is Smallest Space Analysis (see next chapter for more details).

4.4.5. MDS vs. factor analysis. Factor analysis originated in the field of psychology toward the end of the nineteenth century, although it is now widely used in other areas of social sciences. Similarly to MDS methods, factor analysis can be defined as a tool of representation of the relationships within a set of variables, providing coordinates (factor loadings) that locate each one of them as points in the p dimensional common factor space. As a whole, those points then represent the underlying ‘structure’ that is of interest (Maraun, 1997; Spearrit, 1997). There are two main differences between factor analysis and MDS. First, where factor analysis emphasises on statistical analysis of a set of variables, linear mapping, and focuses less on concepts and their definitions, MDS looks at what is called “monotone” mapping, which are not necessary linear (Maraun, 1997). This technique involves linking smaller distances between variables with larger input proximities, stronger relationships. As mentioned above, MDS therefore requires a solution space of smaller dimensionality than factor analysis, facilitating the detection of important topological elements of the structure. Second, in factor analysis the structure of content is defined by loading rather than by *a priori* conceptualisation and *post hoc* interpretations found in facet theory. As argued by Maraun (1997):

“[...] the practice of ignoring small to moderate factor loadings is equivalent to inexplicably ignoring features of the structure itself. The mistake is to view a loading of, for example, 0.05, as ‘unimportant’. A small loading, however, is no less important than a large loading, for, just like a large loading, it is ‘required’ to position a variable in the common factor space. The variables positioned in the common factor space constitute the structure, and the structure is the focus of investigation. Every loading is required to generate the factor analytic representation of the structure.” (p. 632)

These two key differences provide an argument on opting for MDS over factor analysis when looking at the structure of a set of variables. Several studies have argued its use over factor analysis when investigating personality test dimensionality (e.g. Maraun, 1997; Maraun and Chrisjohn, 1995) which provides support and justifies the present research decision to conduct MDS analysis. Maraun and Chrisjohn (1995) examined the facet structure of the Jackson’s Basic Personality Inventory by using MDS analysis. Previous studies on the matter suggested a three-factor model and used factor analysis methods on which they based their results. Maraun and Chrisjohn argued that this type of analysis demands a linear mapping of solution space coordinates (factor loadings) into correlations which in turn might create a larger dimensional solution space than necessary. Consequently, this makes it harder to detect interesting structures. By using a multidimensional scaling approach, their results revealed a two-factor structure rather than three within the Jackson’s Basic Personality Inventory. Similarly, Maraun (1997) presented very similar arguments in regard to the structure of traits descriptors of the Big Five inventory. Arguing that previous studies’ use of factor analysis and dimensional interpretation simple/structure procedures to study the Big Five structure failed to accurately investigate its full topological variety, he examined the Big Five facet structure by using MDS procedures. By looking at studies on the NEO-PR and Goldberg-40 which present

them as having a radex structure, he concluded that the Big Five traits when analysed through a multidimensional scaling approach would also present an empirical radex structure that could not be found through factor analysis due to its linear mapping procedure.

4.5. Qualitative analyses

The qualitative element of this research relates to the analysis of two case studies in order to provide in depth experience of victimisation at the workplace but also to offer more details on items and results obtained through the quantitative analyses. Part of the qualitative data was collected through the questionnaires with open questions and the other part via semi-structured interviews with taxi drivers from the British sample who volunteered to be interviewed. Two interviews took place and open questions related to crime disclosure and workplace incidents were asked. More details of the case studies' methodology can be found in Chapter VIII.

For the purpose of this research and due to the small sample of case studies, the qualitative data were mainly analysed by using the Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) approach. IPA was carried on as it is known to be the most appropriate approach to analyse case studies and to provide in depth details of participants' experiences. However, as one of the main objectives was to link qualitative data with quantitative results, Content Analysis seemed the most appropriate method to connect both types of data.

4.5.1. Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis. The main approaches of qualitative data analysis are Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA), Grounded Theory, Discourse Analysis, Content Analysis, and Narrative Analysis. Whilst Content Analysis aims to provide a systematic description of the phenomenon by looking at

recurrent themes or categories (Breakwell, 2012) and Grounded Theory looks at providing an explanatory theory on the basis of data, IPA differs by its concern to examine and offer a detailed description of the participants' own experiences. Very similar to Narrative Analysis which also looks at a detailed description of the experience rather than an explanation, IPA distinguishes itself by providing the in depth experience of one individual rather than investigating the possible commonalities between different people (Lyons, 2007). This method offers an opportunity for participants to share their experiences by telling their own stories, in their own words, in as much detail as possible. By using this approach, the current research aims to capture and explore the victim's personal perception of his/her experience.

IPA is an approach using self-interpretation (Smith and Eatough, 2012). This implies that the participants are actively engaged in the interpretation of the events, objects and people in their lives. According to Smith and Eatough (2012), this interpretative activity is captured by the phrase "sense making". Consequently, the main goal of IPA is to investigate how individuals make sense of the events that they have experienced. IPA regroups aspects of phenomenology and hermeneutic investigations. Phenomenology can be defined as an approach that looks at how events/objects/people appear to individuals in experience, how they perceive and talk about them (Smith and Eatough, 2012) as opposed to pre-conception and objective statements based on scientific criteria. By using phenomenology and hermeneutics approaches, IPA researchers aim to reach how the participants lived their experiences, to put themselves into their shoes. Realistically, interpretation has to be used in order to make this possible.

4.5.2. Content Analysis. As IPA researchers do not aim to validate or test existing theories and hypotheses, the present research needed an additional approach to qualitative design in order to integrate its findings to the quantitative aspects of the study. The most effective method to achieve this was Content Analysis. Content analysis is the systematic description of phenomena (Breakwell, 2012). To some extent content analysis is the medium that unifies qualitative and quantitative approaches to data. It implies classifying data into themes or categories. It was first used in the 1930s by psychologists who were investigating the processes of persuasion and propaganda by analysing the characteristics of messages in the mass media. In the present research qualitative data from the case studies provided information that could be divided in themes and categories linked to existing theories and hypotheses present in the quantitative findings. Thus this type of analysis was conducted in order to link both types of data in the British sample and validate or discredit hypotheses based on current theories.

4.5.3. The coding. IPA is characterised by its case study level of analysis, looking at interpreting the individual rather than the collective. Therefore, the leading step of the analysis is to scrutinise the single case, to perform a detailed reading of the interview. Although one case can be analysed and presented as a case study, when analysing multiple interviews, IPA can provide data about the main generic themes from the whole cases as well as examining the detailed narrative of the individuals who have shared their experiences. These themes can then be analysed via Content Analysis and linked to the findings from the quantitative analysis. This is the main reason why these methods of qualitative analysis were used in the present research to achieve the main objectives: 1) to provide general and collective information on

workplace violence and its disclosure, and 2) to offer an in-depth analysis of specific incidents experienced by taxi drivers.

The coding analysis was divided in four steps for both qualitative approaches. First, an in depth reading of the data is performed in order to obtain the most authentic review of the participant's account. Second, a first draft of the recurrent themes are identified and organised into categories to then be compared with the data. Third, themes were refined and reorganised in order to observe similarities and differences between them. And finally, in the case of the IPA, the researcher's interpretation of the participant's account is presented with, as much as possible, the participant's own words. As to the Content Analysis, the last step involves an interpretation and comparison of the themes identified in the transcripts with quantitative findings from the previous analysis.

4.6. Ethical considerations

Considering that the recollection of incidents of victimisation could potentially cause psychological distress for the participants, ethical approval was sought and obtained from the University of Huddersfield Ethics Committee prior to the recruitment of participants and information and consent forms were read and signed by all participants who indicated that they had been informed of their rights and voluntarily accepted to collaborate in the present research⁴. The content of those forms provided information on the aims and objectives of the research project, as well as a description of its procedure and data storage. Further explanation on the voluntary, confidential, and anonymity aspects of their participation was also included. Additionally, to reinforce the precaution ensuring the psychological wellbeing of the participants,

⁴ Informed consent forms are presented in Appendix C

support services' names and numbers were provided at the end of the questionnaire such as Victim Support Scotland and the Samaritans helpline.

Further actions were taken to ensure participants' privacy and anonymity for both the quantitative and qualitative data collections. As well as statements of confidentiality and anonymity included on the consent forms, participants were also informed that they were free to withdraw from participation at any point and without penalty, and that there was no right or wrong answer. For participants who agreed to be interviewed, a second consent form was signed before the commencement of the interview which included similar statements in regard to participation, confidentiality and anonymity. Participants were also asked for their permission to tape record the interview. In all cases, questionnaires and interviews, no personal details such as his/her name were provided by the participants in order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity of the data. When questionnaires were returned to the researcher, the consent form was returned in a detached envelope and separated from the questionnaire at reception. Only descriptive data such as age and gender were included in the variables and each questionnaire was allocated a number for the researcher's own analysis. In regard to the interview process, similar procedures were conducted to maintain the interviewee's privacy and anonymity. No personal details were provided, names of streets and places were changed during transcript, and the transcripts were coded as Interview 1 and Interview 2. As to the security of the data, this was achieved by storing questionnaires and the interviews' transcripts in a locked archive room at the University of Huddersfield that could only be accessed by the researchers at the International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology. This information was also on the consent forms. The only original version of the recorded interviews was kept by

the main researcher during analyses and then stored on an audio CD locked with the remaining data from this research.

In addition to these precautions, the interviewer aimed to offer a comfortable and friendly environment for the participants and ensure to monitor any signs of discomfort or stress that could be caused by the interview process such as body language, tone of voices, and other obvious signs of distress. Again, the participants were informed of their freedom to skip questions or to withdraw from the interview at any time during the process. The interviews concluded with statements of thankfulness for their time and participation and the opportunity to ask questions or comment was given.

4.7. Summary and implications

The full research design and analysis methods were clearly explained in this chapter. Both samples recruited for this research differ from existent studies in regard to the “low risk” aspect of their occupation and the “out of office” settings. Either very little is known on this type of sample or data are mostly descriptive. By conducting empirical analyses and looking at uncommon samples this research would improve existing knowledge on workplace victimisation, but also provide avenues for future research using same or similar samples. In addition, the analysis of interpersonal tendencies offers an interactional perspective to victimisation that was neglected in previous studies. The FIRO-B already highly used in the occupational world appears to be the best tool to investigate this aspect of the study. However, as it is presented in the next chapter, its lack of empirical validity has been challenged, which explains the use of a Facet Theory approach in order to provide a better understanding of its structural model. By doing this, the present study would provide further empirical evidence on

the FIRO-B's best structural model and offers a new model for other researchers to replicate and cross-validate.

Finally, the decision to use mixed methodology ensures a more accurate analysis of the data and provides a better unification of both quantitative and qualitative findings. Quantitative analyses such as SSA-I and correlations would offer empirical statistics on workplace victimisation, but also a new perspective on interpersonal tendencies as risk factors. Additionally, Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (with a soupcon of Content Analysis) adds strength and details to previous findings as well as providing the victims' personal view of their victimisation as taxi drivers. Results from this research would have an impact on the victims, the organisations involved, but also on other organisations and the police forces. Training, educative programmes, implementations of safety and disclosure procedures, and another perceptions of the concept of violence at the workplace are all potential implications from this research project.

Chapter V

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior Scale

The FIRO-B inventory is widely used across social and psychological fields. Its dimensional structure has recently been subjected to examination and created debates on its validity. This chapter presents an overview of the recent studies which investigated the FIRO-B's three-factored structure and provides the present research's own findings from MDS analyses conducted on the home-visit workers sample of 1,868 participants. It is an extension to the previous chapter on the methodology used within this research.

5.1. Theoretical framework

The FIRO scales are widely recognised and used in various settings, but more particularly in organisational consultancy, development and training, as well as in clinical settings. Many authors have used the FIRO instruments to study the effect of inter rather than intra personal tendencies on phenomena as diverse as social interaction attributes (Siegel and Miller, 2010), perceptions of female gossipers at work (Farley, Timme, and Hart, 2010), offending style (Youngs, 2004), attachment style (Huebner, Thomas, and Berven, 1999), cross-cultural personality differences (Meredith, 1976), and intimate partner abuse (Poorman and Seelau, 2001). Furthermore, psychologists and other scientists have used the FIRO-B scores to analyse and provide outcomes on topics as wide ranging as effective team working (Fisher, Macrosson and Semple, 2001), optimal leadership styles and managerial level (Ahmetoglu, Chamorro-Premuzic, and Furnham, 2010; Hogan and Hogan, 2001) and clinical treatment program success (Lee, 1996).

The FIRO instruments validity and reliability have been the subject of several examinations. Some studies have shown an internal consistency reliability ranging from .81 to .94 (Gluck, 1979; Huebner et al., 1999) and test-retest reliability coefficients between .71 and .85 (Gluck, 1979; Huebner et al., 1999). Other studies looked for any significant differences between respondents, particularly genders (Huebner et al., 1999; Poorman and Seelau, 2001) and cultures (Bayou, Siegel, and Smith, 2006; Siegel and Miller, 2010). Despite the FIRO scale's popularity and some evidence of its validity and reliability, there remains much debate about whether the underlying structure proposed by Schutz (1958) is the most appropriate way of describing the structure of interpersonal personality. Consequently, Schutz revised his inventory and added the Element-B (Behavior) as an updated version of his interpersonal personality theory (1992). Nevertheless, some debate remains in regard to Schutz's classification or subscales, particularly concerning the distinction between Schutz's Openness (previously known as Affection) and Inclusion components (Dancer and Woods 2006; Furnham 2008; Hurley 1992; Macrosson 2000; Mahoney and Stasson 2005).

Hammer and Schnell (2000) presented the Inter-correlations between the six FIRO-B scales conducted on an American sample of 3,091 participants and compared their correlations with Schutz's own standardization sample when creating the scale (N=1,340). Table 5.1 presents the results. Strong significant correlations could be found in both samples between the four scales of Inclusion and Openness. It is also interesting to note that both Control scales did not significantly correlate with each other and obtained low correlations with other scales. These results suggest that the FIRO-B scales of Inclusion and Openness contain elements which are significantly

similar and close to each other, which incites debates on their construct validity. Similarly, Macrosson's review (2000) examined ten FIRO-B Inter-correlation matrices. Results suggest that a two-factor model would be more accurate to describe Schutz's scale, which he labelled Control and Nurturance, the latest being a combination of Schutz's Inclusion and Openness. This was later supported by analyses conducted by Mahoney and Stasson (2005) who found correlations of $r = .65$ between Expressed Inclusion and Expressed Openness, leading them to suggest that two dimensions of Dominance (Control) and Socio-Emotional Affect (Inclusion and Openness) underpin the FIRO-B. The two-factor rather than three-factor solution is once again reinforced in a recent study conducted by Furnham (2008) who, by looking at correlations between the FIRO-B components and the intrapersonal personality traits of the Big Five, found support for a two-factor model (Costa and McCrae, 1985, 1992).

Table 5.1

Inter-correlations between FIRO-B scales using Pearson correlations presented in Hammer and Schnell (2000)

Scale	Expressed Inclusion	Received Inclusion	Expressed Control	Received Control	Expressed Openness	Received Openness
Expressed Inclusion		.57	.20	.14	.56	.42
Received Inclusion	.49		.22	.09	.48	.55
Expressed Control	.12	.06		-.02	.11	.05
Received Control	.08	.06	.07		.06	.11
Expressed Openness	.47	.24	.19	.22		.59
Received Openness	.27	.24	.31	.22	.42	

Note: Coefficients above the diagonal are from the American sample, all coefficients $> .05, p < .001$ (Hammer and Schnell, 2000); Coefficients below the diagonal are from Schutz's standardization sample (1978)

In addition to the accuracy of the FIRO-B's dimensional structure, there is no published evidence of the psychometric properties supporting Schutz's coding system calculating the scores for both the FIRO and the FIRO-B scales. Consequently, there is uncertainty on the accuracy of using Schutz's proposed coding and this suggests that perhaps a more accurate analysis of his model could be obtained by using the raw scores rather than the coded ones. Thus far, research investigating Schutz's theory not only have used his proposed coding system, but they also have kept the subscale total scores obtained from the proposed sets of items comprised in Schutz's original FIRO-B dimensions (1958). Similarly to the coding system for Schutz's dimensional structure, no psychometric evidence can be found supporting the division of individual items in each dimension. In another words, there is no psychometric support justifying the composition of each dimension. This brings us back to our previous inquiry and supports the investigation of Schutz's model by using the raw scores rather than the coded ones in order to possibly provide a more precise psychometric structure of his model.

As mentioned in the preceding chapter, Schutz (1958) stated that he based his FIRO-B scale on the facet theory approach proposed by Guttman in the 1950's (see Chapter IV for more details). By using facet theory analysis called Smallest Space Analysis (SSA), this chapter tests Schutz's proposed dimensions by using the raw scores from each item and proposes an alternative model following these analyses.

5.2. Schutz's FIRO-B

5.2.1. Facets of Element-B. The FIRO-B's dimensions or subscales proposed by Schutz have been presented in details in the last chapter. However, the best illustration of its facet structure can be visualised in the following mapping sentence (Figure 5.1).

It can be seen that there are three main facets which can be identified by the *status* of the relationship, the *mode* of the relationship, and the *form* of the relationship. The first facet involves the two possible status of the relationship: either that the individual may be Wanting or actually Experiencing these features of the relationship. The second facet presents the two different modes involve in interpersonal relationship: Expressed or Received. Finally, the third facet comprises three elements which can be identified as Schutz's original subscales: Control, Inclusion, and Openness. Consequently, different possible combinations can be obtained, each one providing templates (or 'structuples' as it is known – cf Borg and Lingo, 1987) from which questions are derived.

The extent to which a person (p) agrees with the statement about there

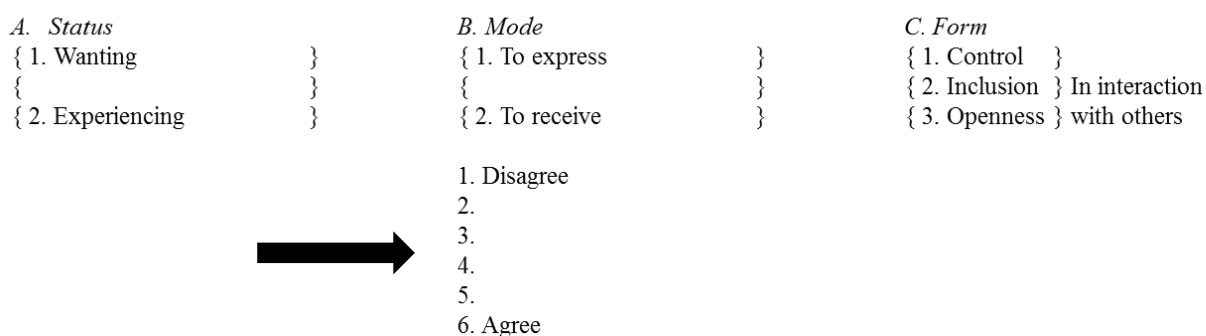


Figure 5.1. Mapping Sentence presenting the facets of Schutz's (1992) theory of interpersonal personality.

Therefore, the FIRO-B provides several combinations of these elements, one from each facet, 2 x 2 x 3, for a total of 12 possible templates of questions. Take item 1 for instance, "I seek out people to be with". This item involves an actual experience (A2), an express mode (B1), and the inclusion form (C2), giving a hypothesised structuple A2 B1 C2. However, it is noteworthy that the same template can be identified in different questions. Therefore, A2 B1 C2 can also be the hypothesised structuple for

item 19 “I am included in informal social activities”. Thus, Schutz created nine items (questions) for each of the possible structuples for a total of 108 questions.

In regard to the first facet (A), Schutz’s original version of the FIRO did not differentiate between the Wanted and Experienced (also known as Received) aspects in some questions. Only in his revised version with the addition of the Element-B (1992) did he separate the Wanted and Actual experience in each question, resulting in a long questionnaire which might make it harder to interpret. For this reason, the present study excludes the first element of this facet (A1: Wanting) and concentrates only on the actual aspects experienced by each individual, on his/her actual behaviour towards others. This then involves the evaluation of only 54 items from the FIRO-B scale⁵, 9 items for each of the six remaining structuples.

5.2.2. Previous studies analysing the FIRO-B structure. Some authors tested the FIRO-B model by analysing the individual items through correlations or factor analysis techniques (Dancer and Woods, 2006; Gluck, 1979; Macrosson, 2000). The majority of these studies examined the FIRO-B’s construct by comparing it with other self-report personality-based instruments, such as Eysenck’s Maudsley Personality Inventory (Gard and Bendig, 1964), the Big Five Inventory personality scale (Mahoney and Stasson, 2005), the Sixteen Personality Factor questionnaire fifth edition (16PF5) (Dancer and Woods, 2006), and the NEO-PI-R (Furnham, 2008). As noted above, these examinations did not find support for the three-dimensional theory proposed by Schutz.

Macrosson (2000) analysed ten FIRO-B Inter-correlation matrices using factor analysis and meta-analysis techniques. He found significant correlations between the

⁵ The FIRO-B scale is presented in full details in the questionnaire in Appendix A

dimensions of Inclusion and Openness, suggesting the formation of an interpersonal super-factor referred to as Nurturance. As to the dimension of Control, he found that its Expressed and Received components relate to one super-factor which he named Dominance. Therefore, Macrosson suggested that Schutz's FIRO-B's construct validity was not supported, as the findings showed a two-dimensional measure as opposed to its original three-factor model. Similar results were obtained by Mahoney and Stasson (2005), who observed a strong correlation between the dimensions of Inclusion and Openness, but no significant correlation between Control and the other dimensions was found.

In their examination of the FIRO-B structure, Dancer and Woods (2006) found that its three-factor model was not reliable as independent factors - the dimensions of Control Openness and Inclusion were found not to be mutually exclusive factors. Dancer and Woods, building on the hypothesis previously identified by Mahoney and Stasson (2005), suggested a bi-factorial structure as a more appropriate model for the FIRO-B. The two-factor structure of Dominance and Socio-Emotional Affect was put forward. Dominance was made up of the Expressed and Received elements of Control and Socio-Emotional Affect incorporated the Expressed and Received components of Openness and Inclusion. This model has recently received further support by Furnham (2008), who conducted a factor analysis and found that the dimensions of Inclusion and Openness loaded on the first factor (Eigen value 2.36) which explained 39.3% of the variance and that Control scores loaded on the second factor (Eigen value 1.12) which accounted for 18.66% of the variance. Once again, this goes in favour with the two-dimensional model.

Despite providing further support to the two-dimensional model for the FIRO-B, these studies differ from the current paper in regard to two important methodological aspects. Firstly, these studies have added and used the scores from each individual item assuming that each set of nine items defined a distinct measure neglecting the possibility that each item might intercorrelate with each other. Yet no psychometric evidence was found supporting that the nine items composing each sub-scale measure exclusively that set of facet elements. Secondly, most of them have conducted factor analysis in order to examine the factor structure of the FIRO-B.

As explained in the previous chapter, factor analysis has been and is still highly used in social sciences but some would argue that MDS methods such as SSA-I are more accurate when examining the full dimensional structure of an inventory (e.g. Cronshaw and Jethmalani, 2005; Maraun, 1997; Maraun and Chrisjohn, 1995). As argued by Maraun (1997) in a paper looking at the Big Five's facet structure, one can only understand the topology of the p-dimensional point by looking at all dimensions all at once as a whole, not by looking at it one dimension at the time. This cannot be done by using factor/principal component analysis. In addition, by using factor analysis researchers had to follow the rule of thumb stating to ignore small to moderate factor loadings. This practice can be seen by certain authors as "inexplicably ignoring features of the structure itself", defining small loadings as unimportant (Maraun, 1997). Factor analysis therefore does not consider every loading in order to position every single variable in the common factor space that comprises the structure. Thus, there are many advantages in using MDS techniques such as SSA-I compared to factor analysis as: 1) it makes fewer assumptions on the structure of phenomena (Guttman, 1968); 2) it does not insist on linear mapping; 3) and it requires a solution space of smaller

dimensionality than factor analysis, easing the detection of important topological elements of the structure (see e.g. Schlesinger and Guttman, 1969 in Maraun, 1997). Consequently, the present research uses SSA-I analysis in order to provide a better understand of the FIRO-B dimensional structure and uses the six point raw responses of each 54 items rather than the coding frame provided by Schutz to examine every potential contribution from each individual element and their possible interrelationships.

5.3. Method

5.3.1. Sample. The sample consisted of 1,868 Polish residents between the ages of 18 and 71, inclusive, from which 410 were males and 1,455 females; three participants did not provide their gender. The sample had a mean age of 40 with a standard deviation of 13.29. Participants were loan sellers from the same company located in various towns and cities in Poland.

5.3.2. Procedure. In the context of a consultancy project, 3,000 questionnaires were sent to home-visit workers employed by the same company located in Poland. A total of 1,868 complete questionnaires were sent back to the researcher, for a response rate of 62.3%. The questionnaire was composed of demographic items such as gender and age, specific questions related to their current company such as training questions, incident items related to their working tasks and the FIRO-B scale.

5.3.3. Analysis. The advantage of using MDS statistical analysis to investigate facet structures has been greatly demonstrated over the past 50 years by Guttman and his followers, and this in various domains such as intelligence (Guttman and Levy, 1991), criminal action (Canter and Heritage, 1990), workplace adaptive skill (Cronshaw and Jethmalani, 2005), and personality inventories notably the Big Five (Maraun, 1997) and

the Jackson's inventory (Maraun and Chrisjohn, 1995). In addition, these studies and over 100 others have used SSA-I as the main method for exploring the construct validity of an inventory based on the facet framework, such as the FIRO-B's case. Moreover, as previously noted in Chapter IV, MDS procedures do not make assumptions about the underlying structure of phenomena as opposed to factor analysis and similar methods. This, added to the existing empirical data, supports the present research's argument that SSA-I is the most appropriate method to use in order to fully examine the FIRO-B's facet structure.

5.3.3.1. Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I). The main use for SSA-Is is to calculate the empirical correlation structure of the variables. As an MDS method, an SSA-I graphically represents the relative sizes of the observed relationships (correlations) between variables (Guttman and Greenbaum, 1998). SSA-I can be defined as a technique that plots variables as points on a multi-dimensional spatial map based on similarity coefficients (such as Pearson correlations) among the variables, and this into the smallest geometric space possible. Consequently, variables that are plotted close to each other on the map are defined as being strongly inter-related and linked to a common psychological process, while unrelated or weakly related variables are plotted relatively far apart. It is important to bear in mind that in SSA-I the position of the variables in relation to scaled axes is not significant. The importance is the relative spatial distances between the variables (Brown, 1985). In addition, SSA-I attempts to organise the inter-variable relationships in the smallest possible dimensionality required to obtain a geometric representation with a good fit (Shapira, 1976).

The goodness of fit of SSA-I solutions is measured by a coefficient of alienation (Guttman, 1965; in Guttman and Greenbaum, 1998) which also facilitates the selection

of the appropriate dimensional configuration. The coefficient of alienation (d) designates the degree to which the distances between variables in the output map accurately represent the correlations between the input variables (Bloombaum, 1970). It varies between 0 (perfect fit between distances and similarity data) to 1 (worst fit). As a rule of thumb, coefficients smaller than .20 signifies an adequate fit (Shye et al., 1994). The goodness of fit does not depend on how one chooses coordinate axes for the space; distances do not change at all under any rotation (Borg and Shye, 1995). Regions can then be partitioned by the researcher using the principles of 'sensitivity' and 'selectivity' (Brown and Barnett, 2000). Sensitivity refers to the way in which partitioning is able to enclose target items within a zone as a function of the overall number of target items. Selectivity refers to the exclusivity of target items being in a particular partitioned zone as a function of all items in that zone (Brown and Barnett, 2000).

5.3.3.2. SSA-I and FIRO-B. Inter-correlations between the FIRO-B items from the 1,868 questionnaires (using Pearson's r coefficient) were performed and provided a correlation matrix which was itself subjected to a Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I). Figure 5.2 presents the first projection (vector 1 by vector 2) of the three dimensional solution from the SSA-I, using HUDAP7. The FIRO-B items are presented in chronological order with its own original statement from the questionnaire (see legend). Each one of them has its chronological number which was then located on their position on the plot. With a Guttman-Lingoes coefficient of alienation of 0.11, which is considered an adequate fit, the three-dimensional solution was selected over the two-dimensional plot as it provides a more accurate description of the pattern of

relationships between the variables. The plot was generated under conditions of global monotonicity and missing items were excluded on a pair-wise basis.

The SSA-I output presents the structure of the interrelationships between all FIRO-B items using the facet theory approach (see Chapter IV for more details). In Figure 5.3 the same solution is divided by regions which should represent each region. Lines were located on the plot to regroup adjacent items together, creating regions and therefore representing their boundaries. The nearer one item is from another, the stronger is their relationship. Similarly, items which cluster closer to the boundary of a defined region would be expected to have a stronger connection with the contiguous region than items regrouped in the centre of that particular region.

5.4. Hypotheses.

Based on the mapping sentence provided earlier (see Figure 5.1), three main hypotheses can be suggested:

1. All items expected to measure a specific facet are hypothesised to be located in the same region of the space.
2. Suggesting that each facet is independent from each other, therefore the regions containing its items are expected to divide the space in a different manner from other facets.
3. Based on the mapping sentence, all items sharing the same structure are expected to form a cluster in the same region of space on the plot.

In summary, the present study derived the above hypotheses from theoretical constructs, illustrated them in the provided mapping sentence, and tested them by exploring the underlying structure using a facet theory approach produced by SSA-I algorithm. The SSA-I space is analysed and will provide support to these hypotheses if

the regions are clearly demarcated on the plot. Nevertheless, if no hypothesis can be supported by the SSA-I output obtained by the analysis, the output remains a useful tool to examine further facet possibilities which could then be the subject of cross-validation in future research.

5.5. Results

5.5.1. Schutz's original FIRO-B facet structure. Looking back at the mapping sentence in figure 5.1, three main elements surface from Schutz's theory of interpersonal style:

1. Interpersonal tendencies are divided into two individual modes; Expressed and Received.
2. Interpersonal interactions can take three distinct forms; Inclusion, Control, and Openness.
3. Finally, interpersonal interactions can be Wanted or already Experienced (Actual).

The last element being left behind as only the Experienced (Actual) behaviours were analysed in this study, two remaining hypotheses can then be analysed to test Schutz's theory. The use of SSA-I provides a spatial examination of these hypotheses. Support for these hypotheses would be granted only if the following criteria can be established:

- a) all items expected to measure any one element of a facet should be located within the same region of the SSA-I plot,
and also
- b) this region of the SSA-I exclusively consists of items specific to that element.

SSA-I was performed on all 54 items from the questionnaire, using the raw data.

Figure 5.2 presents the first projection of the three-dimensional solution with Schutz's

coding framework for each element of each one of his facets. The reverse coded items (15, 18, 21, 27, 30, 33, 42, 45) are indicated with a R on the plot.

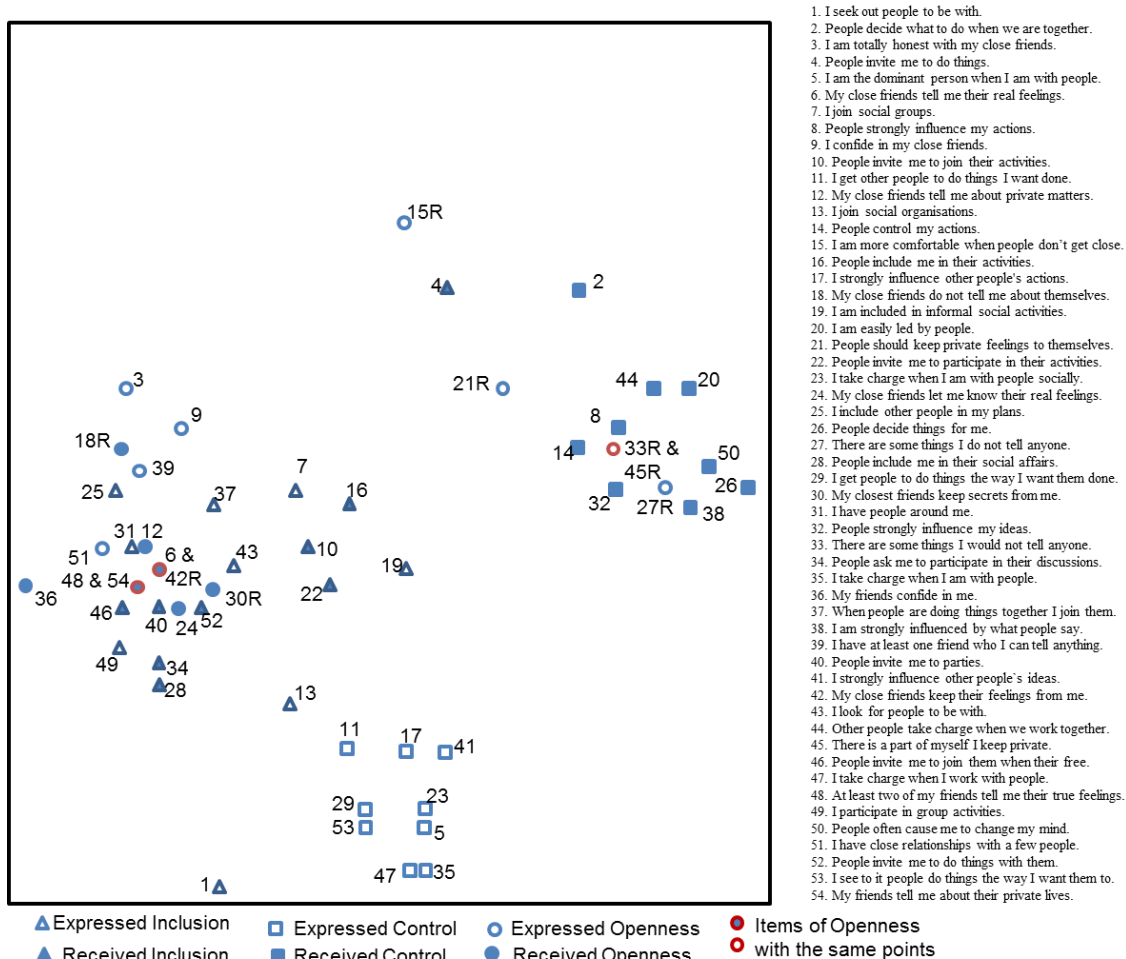


Figure 5.2. SSA-I solution (1v2) of 54 FIRO-B items with Schutz's original coding framework.

5.5.1.1. Evidence for the elements of the FIRO-B form facet. Three distinct interpersonal forms were hypothesised by Schutz; Control, Inclusion, and Openness. Each one of them needed to fulfil the two criteria previously mentioned in order to provide evidence of its facet. In terms of the form facet of Control, criterion a) found support to its hypothesis. Indeed, all items expected to measure Control can be located

in the right section of the plot. As to criterion b), although that region contains all 18 items measuring Schutz's Control, three items of Openness (reverse ones, 27, 33, and 45) form a small cluster in the middle of one of the Control item groups. Thus, the exclusivity criterion was not satisfied for the form facet of Control.

In regard to the form facet of Inclusion, it is possible to conclude that criterion a) was satisfied to a certain degree. Certainly all items measuring Schutz's form facet of Inclusion are located in the same region of the space, which is the left side of the SSA-I output. However, the presence of items expected to measure the form facet of Openness also appear in this region, without any distinct groupings. Therefore, criterion b) is rejected for the form facet of Inclusion. As to the form facet of Openness, neither criterion a) nor b) was satisfied. Not all items were found in a specific region related to that form facet as three items were located in the Control region (criterion a)) and the presence of items of Inclusion contiguous to items of Openness discard criterion b).

In summation, to some extent, there is evidence supporting the form facets of Control and Inclusion. However, none of the form facet could satisfy criterion b) and Openness appears to be the weakest form facet, overlapping other regions.

5.5.1.2. Evidence for the elements of the FIRO-B mode facet. Similarly to his form facets, Schutz's mode facets of Expressed and Received were tested using the SSA-I. The Expressed mode only obtains strong support within the Control region of the plot (bottom right). In this particular region, both criteria are satisfied. Indeed, all nine items of Schutz's Expressed Control form a specific region in the bottom right section of the space and only these nine items can be found in that specific region. But this was not replicated for the remaining items. Items of Expressed Inclusion and

Expressed Openness gathered together on the left side of the plot as well as with items from the Received mode. Some of them form a cluster with Received items, but most of them are dispersed around that grouping. Therefore, no distinction can be found within these facets. Criteria a) and b) were not fulfilled for the Expressed mode facet within the Openness and Inclusion forms. As to the Received mode facet, similarly to the Expressed mode, there is a clear area where all nine Received Control items clustered together (top right), which satisfies criterion a). However, as previously noted, three items of Expressed Openness are also located in this specific region, which discard the exclusivity criterion b). As to Inclusion and Openness items, although items measuring the Received aspect of the scale appear to cluster closer together than Expressed items which are scattered at the outskirts of the grouping, no distinctive region could be found for Received items within these form facets, rejecting both criteria.

Briefly, no strong evidence was found in support for Schutz's mode facets of Expressed and Received. Only support was established for the construct of Control in regard to the Expressed mode facet and to a certain degree the Received mode facet, but no evidence was found supporting the mode facets within Inclusion and Openness. Further explanation is needed in order to recognise Schutz's original Received and Expressed Inclusion and Openness items and provide a better understanding of their construct as they seem to overlap each other.

5.5.2. An alternative two-factor model for the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour scale. The SSA-I permits to interpret in further details the facet structure of the FIRO-B based on regional contiguity in which items were divided as presented in Figure 5.3. Coherent with previous studies the present

interpretation obtained via the SSA-I suggests two main interpersonal trends which can be defined as two factors. Although one of these factors supports Schutz's theory that interpersonal tendencies can involve different modes and forms of interaction, the present results propose a different definition of the FIRO-B's mode and form facets.

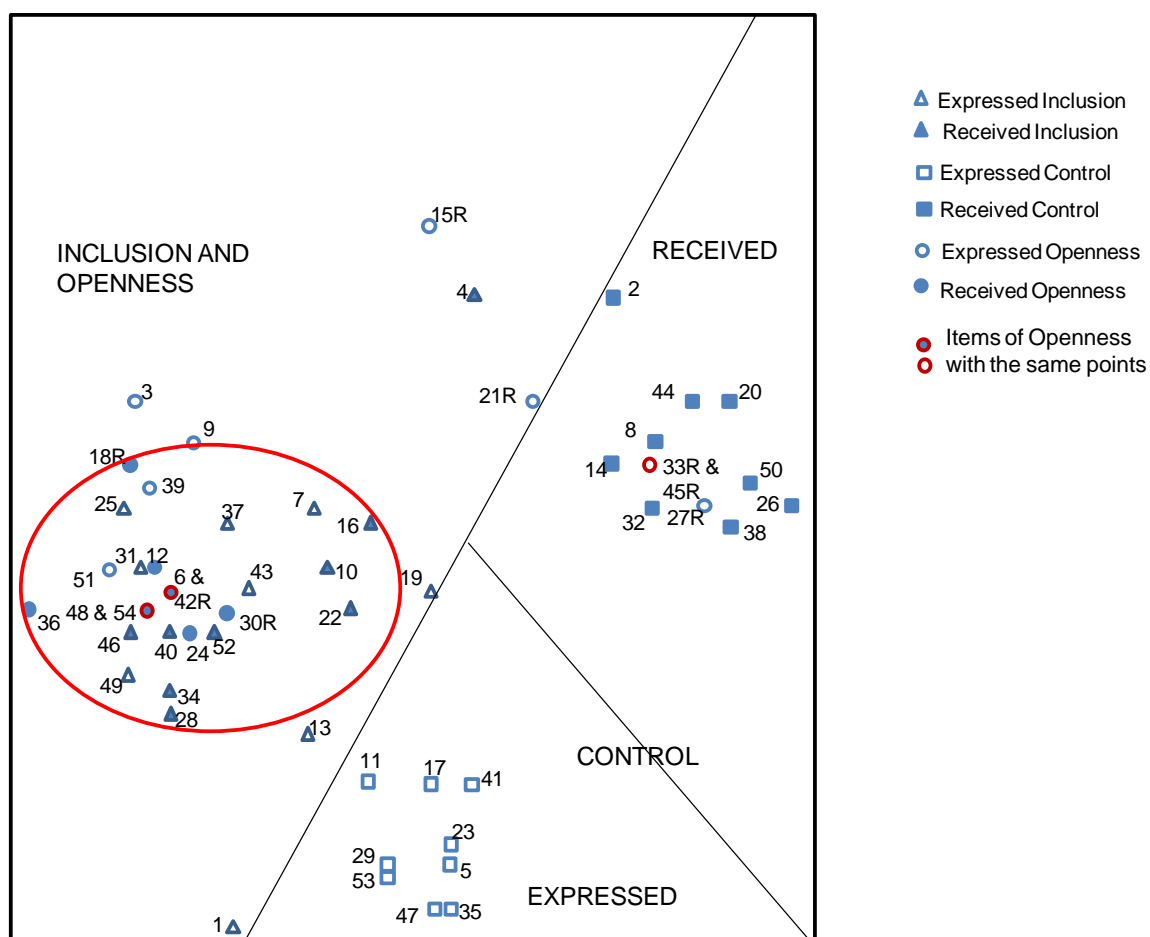


Figure 5.3. Regional interpretation of the FIRO-B mode and form facets

5.5.2.1. Form facets. In regard to the form facets, only one element of Schutz's original dimensions could be distinct on the SSA-I output, which is Control. All 18 items of Control, both concerning controlling others and being controlled by others, form a clear region to the right side of the plot. These items are meant to measure on one hand the imposition of dominance and include statements such as "I take charge

when I work with people” (item 47, Expressed Control) and on the other hand the receiving perspective with statement like “I am easily led by people” (item 20, Received Control). Schutz’s Control items also comprised of aspects of influence on and from others such as “I get people to do things the way I want them done” (item 29, Expressed Control) and “People strongly influence my ideas” (item 32, Received Control). Nevertheless, this region, more specifically the grouping on the top right, also includes three items of Openness: “There are some things I do not tell anyone” (item 27, Expressed Openness), “There are something I would not tell anyone” (item 33, Expressed Openness) and “There is a part of myself I keep private” (item 45, Expressed Openness). These three items are reverse coded Openness items and express a desire for privacy and withholding intimacy. Although they are meant to measure intimacy and affection, these items were reverse coded or negatively-worded and oppose to positive Openness items such as “I confide in my close friends” (item 9, positive Expressed Openness) which is located on the left side of the plot. These items, when reverse coded, indicate the lack of deliberately trying to keep intimacy away from others rather than attempting to gain affection or intimacy in a positive manner. Their proximity to items of control such as 8 “People strongly influence my actions” and 38 “I am strongly influenced by what people say” suggests a broader definition to the construct of Control that might include aspects of restricting access to intimacy, to sharing privacy with others. To a certain degree, this might imply that people who see themselves as highly influenced by others (high score on Received Control items) might also share qualities with sharing (lack of withholding) intimacy that these three Openness items are expected to measure (high scores on these items when reversed).

Although Schutz's form facet elements of Inclusion and Openness could not be clearly distinguished on the plot, there is a distinct cluster regrouping items from both form facets to the left side of the plot. This region comprises of items measuring involvement with others and gaining contact with others as well as elements of intimacy shared with and by others. All 18 items of Schutz's Inclusion are located in this region and the 15 remaining items of Openness. This interpretation corroborates earlier findings suggesting joining form facets of Inclusion and Openness into one factor/dimension (Macrosson, 2000; Mahoney and Stasson, 2005). Although some cluster closer than others (see red circle on the plot), clusters formed by the remaining items on the left side of the plot suggest a larger interpretation of what inclusive and intimate behaviours might involve within interpersonal interactions and appear to involve mostly the receiving aspect of it. The combination of the two indicates a form of socio-emotional affect as previously argued by Mahoney and Stasson (2005). Items such as "I have people around me" (item 31, Expressed Inclusion) do involve an individual considering being close to others, gaining access to others, which can be defined in both Inclusion and Openness facets. Items such as "My close friends let me know their real feelings" (item 24, Received Openness) and "People invite me to parties" (item 40, Received Inclusion) are located in the centre of that grouping and expressed one's confidence that others are close to him/her, get him/her involve in their lives. This grouping relates to being emotionally and socially engaged with others and this involves engagement from both sides.

5.5.2.2. Mode facets. In regard to the other components of the mapping sentence, this SSA-I interpretation can only partly support Schutz's mode facets of Expressed and Received behaviours. There is a clear distinction between the two modes to the

right region of the plot which can be defined as Control. Items measuring Schutz's Expressed Control construct do form an exclusive cluster to the bottom of the plot. However, in terms of the Received mode facet, although all items measuring that construct appear in the same region, the presence of three Expressed Openness items points out a weakness in its construct validity.

On the other side, no evidence of the mode facets could be found on the left division of the plot. The lack of clear definitions between the two mode facets on this region of the SSA-I challenges Schutz's construct validity in regard to the Expressed and Received components of Inclusion and Openness. It is possible to argue that gaining access and affection from others and providing access and affection to others go hand-in-hand. One cannot access others without giving others access to him/herself. The same can be said for giving and receiving affection. Therefore, the concepts of Expressed and Received might overlap in behaviours related to inclusion and intimacy, which explains the contiguity of these elements.

Again, further evaluation of the accurate measure of Expressed and Received Inclusion and Openness is needed. However, it is important to note that certain items cluster closer to each other, as other were scattered around. For the purpose of this study, that grouping is represented by a red circle on the SSA-I output, although it does not represent a distinct region. With the exception of item 4 ("People invite me to do things." Received Inclusion), every other item measuring the Received mode appears within this grouping.

As to items measuring the Expressed aspect, only 8 items out of 18 are included in the cluster, the others seem to scatter at the outskirts, some closer to the Control region. These include three items of Expressed Inclusion "I seek out people to be with" (item

1), "I join social organisations" (item 13), "I am included in informal social activities" (item 19), and one reverse item of Expressed Openness "People should keep private feelings to themselves" (item 21). These three Inclusion items involve taking initiative to gain contact with others and being confident of being included by others, which could be argued as being in control of the situation. As to the Openness item, once more it involves restricting intimacy or sharing privacy when reversed. It is possible to suggest that these behaviours could be interpreted as a form of control on an individual involvement with others, which would again broaden the definition of the control construct. Not far from item 21 are items 4 "People invite me to do things" (Received Inclusion) and 15 "I am more comfortable when people don't get close" (Expressed Openness, reverse coded) which are again related to sharing with others and being confident that others include self. As to items 3 "I am totally honest with my close friends" and 9 "I confide in my close friends" which appear on the outside of the grouping, both items expressed sincerity and confidence towards close friends. Perhaps the specificity of the statement involving close friends might have had an effect on the scoring or on participants' perception of Openness towards others. It is possible that some people consider being open only to their friends, therefore they would not find the use of that specification necessary.

In sum, small evidence was found to support Schutz's Expressed and Received mode facets, but only in terms of controlling behaviours in regard to the form facets. No support was found in regard to these mode facets within Inclusion and Openness form of interpersonal interactions, however there seems to be a closer relationship between items of the Received mode compared to items of the Expressed mode.

5.5.3 New combinations of mode and form elements. By combining the mode and form facets found within the SSA-I it is possible to distinguish three main interpersonal trends or components. The first one which is clearly defined on the output is a tendency towards Expressed Control, which is composed of all nine original Expressed Control items defined by Schutz. Second is a tendency towards Received Control, which comprises of all Schutz's original Received Control items and three of Schutz's Expressed Openness (reverse coded) items. Finally, there is a tendency towards Socio-Emotional Affect. This last interpersonal trend combines items from the form facets of Inclusion and Openness and from both mode facets of Expressed and Received. However, the disperse distribution of the latest region suggest that certain items are more closely related than the ones found at the outskirts of the region. Similarly, distance between the regions, added to their clustered distribution, implies that these components are significantly different, independent from each other.

In order to test the three components' internal reliability Cronbach alpha analysis was conducted on the items present in each region of the plot and on each one of Schutz's original scales (see Table 5.2). For the Socio-Emotional Affect component, the coefficient was calculated with and without the items on the outskirts of the region. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges between 0 and 1. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules of thumb: “ $\alpha > .9$ – Excellent, $\alpha > .8$ – Good, $\alpha > .7$ – Acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ – Questionable, $\alpha > .5$ – Poor, and $\alpha < .5$ – Unacceptable” (p. 231). Thus, according to the results presented in table 5.2, the three new proposed components each ranges between Acceptable and Good internal consistency, meaning that each one of them includes a reasonable set of items to

measure particular aspects of interpersonal tendencies. On the other hand, results show that Schutz's Expressed Openness and Inclusion dimensions present Poor to Questionable reliability.

Table 5.2

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for items drawn from the three regions in Figure 5.3

Component	Cronbach's Alpha
Expressed Control (new)	.87
Received Control (new)	.73
Socio-emotional affect	.88
Socio-emotional affect (without outsiders)	.90
Expressed Control (Schutz)	.87
Received Control (Schutz)	.78
Expressed Inclusion (Schutz)	.68
Received Inclusion (Schutz)	.79
Expressed Openness (Schutz)	.58
Received Openness (Schutz)	.80

5.6. Discussion

Schutz's theory of interpersonal tendencies presented in his FIRO-B scale suggests three forms of interpersonal style, Control, Inclusion and Openness, which are then divided within two modes of behaviour, Received or Expressed (Schutz, 1958; 1992). Although some studies have demonstrated good internal validity and reliability for his instrument, the present study corroborates other findings showing evidence of an overlap between the constructs of Inclusion and Openness. It also appears that Schutz's Openness tendency shares common elements with Received Control items from his original subscale. These findings propose that Openness, rather than being a

distinct interpersonal tendency, measures behaviours related to accepting others, either in terms of inclusion or control. When measuring controlling behaviours, items from Schutz's original Expressed Openness linked with these behaviours involve restricting intimacy, controlling what others should know about one self, restricting their control over what they know. In other words, a receiving aspect of control that Schutz did not identify implies a certain element of self-control in revealing private aspects to others. Similarly, Openness items (both Expressed and Received) also appear to relate to including behaviours. Both Expressed and Received items of Inclusion clustered with items of Openness which are describing behaviours that facilitate confidence and intimacy with others. This result implies that Schutz's facets of Inclusion and Openness might measure a common construct that would involve socio-emotional aspects of interpersonal interactions.

The facet analytic approach used in this study allowed the formation of a two-factor model: Control and Socio-Emotional Affect. This provides supporting evidence to previous findings from recent factor analytic studies of the structure of the FIRO-B (e.g. Dancer and Woods, 2006; Furnham, 2008; Mahoney and Stasson, 2005). These studies all came to the conclusion that the FIRO-B presents two rather than three content areas of interpersonal personality. These areas have been described as, on the one hand, a Socio-Affective or Nurturance tendency which include both Openness and Inclusion items and, on the other hand a Control or Dominance tendency. Though the latter supports Schutz's original Control dimension, this challenges his distinction between Inclusion and Openness factors. The facet analytic approach from the present study corroborates these findings. The SSA-I in figure 5.2 showed two distinct form facets. One of them can clearly be described as Schutz's original Control dimension.

All items measuring controlling behaviours can be located in this region. This suggests that the measure of Control on the FIRO-B scale is consistent with previous reports supporting it as a reliable dimension. The second region, to the left side of the plot, contains items of both Inclusion and Openness suggesting a common construct, rather than two distinct ones, of nurturance or socio-affection as proposed by earlier studies.

Yet, these factor analytic studies have failed to provide any distinction on the role of Schutz's mode facet of Expressed and Received. The present study's methodological decision to use the individual items of the Element-B rather than Schutz's coding framework permitted to confirm a distinction between Expressed and Received elements for the Control component. As shown in Figure 5.2, Received Control items and Expressed Control items are clearly divided on the right side of the plot, forming two distinct regions. Furthermore, the facet analytic approach not only confirms that Openness is not a distinct form facet as previously proposed by Schutz (1992), but also provides a new hypothesis suggesting that behaviours involving being controlled by others also implicates letting them know about yourself. Or in other words, not letting others controlling you also implies keeping yourself to yourself.

Consequently, the facet model instigates for broader definition of the Control interpersonal style. Schutz's Control involves dominance, leadership, influence, and power. However, the SSA-I shows that Control is not just about these behaviours but can also take the form of restricting or withholding intimacy. Not only these findings challenge Schutz's definition of Control interpersonal tendency, but also have implications for other interpersonal theories that describe Affiliation/ Love-Hate and Dominance/ Dominance- Submission as two independent factors of personality (Leary

1957; Wiggins, 1996). It redefines Control has both influence over others and what they know about you or what you are ready to share with them.

In the same way, the present facet model implies broader definitions of the Inclusion and Openness tendencies. According to Schutz (1992), people who present a tendency towards Inclusion would be described as "...outgoing, like to go to parties, to do things with a group and to start conversations" (p. 923), involving "...how much we desire to be with other people" (p. 923). Results from the present study demonstrate that some intimacy and affection related behaviours are also included in this need for attention and engagement with others. Indeed, it infers a common tendency that implies contact with others. When people seek actively to be involved, included by others, they also seek contact through facilitation of affection and intimacy. Therefore, Inclusion and Openness could be defined as, rather than two separate interpersonal styles, elements of a single tendency seeking general contact with others.

Another important aspect of Schutz's FIRO-B theory is the element of interactivity in order to obtain the full picture of interpersonal relationships, as opposed to the personality traits of intra-personal measures. His division of Expressed and Received aspects implies the consideration of both individual's characteristics tendencies to produce specific behaviours from others as well as behaviours expressed towards others. In order to delimitate these two modes of interaction, Schutz provided a direction of the interaction in each statement included in his inventory. For example, for Inclusion, he defined Expressed behaviours with statements involving "I initiate interaction" versus "I want to be included" in terms of Received behaviours (Schutz 1958, 1992).

Yet, in the present study, this division could only be observed in the Control component of the inventory, and this with the exception of the presence of Openness items, as already noted above. For the Inclusion and Openness region, which can be defined as Socio-Emotional Affect (Mahoney and Stasson, 2005), the absence of division between the two modes suggests that others tended to include individuals actively seeking to be included. Similarly, the openness to contact was the result of both the initiative from the other and, through disclosure, by the individual. In sum, in order to gain openness and inclusion by others an individual also has to be opened and include others in his/her life. Therefore, the concepts of Expressed and Received do not seem to be applicable in terms of socio-affection. Nevertheless, the closeness of the Received items of this region seems to bring support to its reliability as a distinct construct. Perhaps a clearer definition or better division of what could measure receptiveness would provide a more accurate scale for this construct.

Far from criticising Schutz's theory, this study acknowledges his notion of interactivity as a central element of interpersonal styles. However, this study also indicates the need for broader or subtler definitions of these components and how they operate within interpersonal relations. Though, results from the SSA-I could only provide an interpretation of these components in terms of Control as no distinction could be found within Inclusion and Openness form facets. This interpretation implies an understanding of the Expressed mode as how an individual would initiate interpersonal interactions and the Received mode can be defined as a way to access others.

5.7. Conclusion and limitations

The present study has investigated the structure of the FIRO-B by using a facet analytic approach rather than factor analysis as previously used by recent studies on this topic. Findings acknowledge the presence of independent facets of interpersonal styles which supports Schutz's original theory. However, consistent with recent studies (e.g. Dancer and Woods, 2006; Mahoney and Stasson, 2005), the SSA-I interpretation suggests two rather than three form facets. Nevertheless, Schutz's work and use of Facet Theory approach provides a richer understanding of interpersonal relationships, suggesting an interaction between elements of personality rather than separate factors working independently.

By using a facet analytic method, the present study has demonstrated that it is possible to examine the interrelationships between elements of one facet and elements from other facets. In addition, the new scales obtained from the SSA-I have provided support to the possibility to create reliable scales from items of the Element-B by using the raw scores from the Likert summations, without using the coding framework for each item.

Nonetheless, the results from this study have to be interpreted with caution as this research is not without limitations. First, there are limitations in regard to the sample. Its size itself can be seen as a reliable size for analysis, but large samples might on occasion cause complication whilst performing analyses. In addition, as the participants were recruited in Poland, the use of a translated version of the FIRO-B might have had an impact on the participants' interpretation of the statements, and therefore on their answers. Differences in culture and perceptions might impact on the scores distribution.

In summary, despite the lack of evidence to support Schutz's three-dimension theory and coding framework, the present study corroborates his facet approach to interpersonal personality and supports his items within his Element-B as a reliable measure of these interpersonal tendencies. For the purpose of this research, Schutz's original components and the present two-factor model with its three components of Expressed Control, Received Control and Socio-Emotional Affect are included in the analyses in the following chapters.

Chapter VI

Workplace Victimization

This chapter aims to provide a better understanding of the nature of workplace violence towards workers in non-office settings by examining violence committed by customers against home-visit loan sellers and against taxi drivers. Analyses are conducted on types of violence, victims' interpersonal tendencies, and other demographic elements which might have an influence on victimisation in this particular context. For instance, victims' interpersonal tendencies are analysed in order to identify if they have any relationships with victimisation at work. Victims' interpersonal tendencies are measured by the FIRO-B items, however following the recent findings in Chapter V and debates in relation to the inventory's structure validity, this study uses both Schutz's and the new components provided by the facet analysis. The research results and limitations are also discussed.

6.1. Theoretical framework

6.1.1. Loan sellers risk of victimisation. Workplace violence occurs in every type of setting in any profession. Although particular occupations could be defined as more at risk than others due to the nature of their job (e.g. police officers working with potentially violent criminals or accident and emergency department nurses working with people in distressed or with mental health issues), workplace victimisation affects millions of workers every year in many different ways. Leaving the occupation factor aside, the other major risk factors of victimisation, as mentioned in Chapter II, include working in community settings, exchanging money with the public, and working alone or in small numbers (Farrugia, 2002; Smith, 2002; Whitmore and Kleiner, 1999). Home-visit workers' duties do include those risks as well as working outside an office

setting, in an unknown environment (customer/patient's house), which disadvantages them and puts them more at risk of potential aggressions (Waddington et al., 2006). In the case of the loan sellers sample from this study, not only do they face risky situations by handling money in an unknown environment in which they are left alone with the client(s), but they also put themselves even more at risk when the time comes to collect the loan money. The same risky characteristics are present with the addition of a potentially negative reaction from the customer which could escalate into arguments or even aggression. In addition, the unknown customer's characteristics such as possible mental illnesses or criminal activities could add potential risks to their working conditions. Although known as being a "low risk" occupation compared to emergency services and social work professions, lone-working home-visit workers equally confront risky situations through their duties and unfortunately have been highly neglected within workplace violence literature.

6.1.2. Taxi drivers' victimisation. Although the level of workplace violence has seen its peak in the 1990s and had even tripled for some occupations during that decade (Whitmore and Kleiner, 1999), since then, the establishment of new laws and prevention strategies have led to a significant decrease of violence at work amongst many professions. However, violence against taxi drivers is still an important issue today. One just needs to look at recent headlines from UK newspapers such as "Finsbury woman attacked taxi driver when he didn't pick her up" (<http://www.islingtongazette.co.uk/news/> 10th August 2012), "Hastings taxi driver headbutted and bitten in attack" (<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/>, 3rd August 2012), and "Taxi driver suffers horrific injuries after attack by drunk thug"

(<http://www.cambridge-news.co.uk/>, 1st August 2012) to realise that the problem is still very present.

While police officers, prison officers and most emergency services workers are at high risk of being victimised by customers/patients or member of the public due to the nature of their job, taxi drivers are still known to be equally if not more at risk than those emergency services workers (Hendricks et al., 2007; Sygnatur and Toscano, 2000). The recent statistics on workplace homicide among American taxicab and livery drivers shows an average of 38 homicides per year between 1980 and 2009 (www.taxi-library.org/safety.htm). The highest numbers were recorded in the 1990s, with 76 murders recorded in 1991. All over the industrialised world, taxi drivers have a very high rate of homicide and experience high levels of verbal abuse and physical assaults (Mayhew and Chappell, 2005). With these statistics, it is not surprising that the media and social scientists have paid a great deal of attention on this specific occupation.

As to the risk factors mentioned earlier, handling money, working alone, and working outside office hours are all comprised in taxi drivers' daily activities. In addition, in the particular case of taxi drivers, their work setting features a lone worker who offers a service to one or more individuals who provide the worker with the desired location. These conditions do put the taxi driver at risk, not only due to the unknown location prior to the execution of the service, but also it isolates him/her from other individuals who could provide assistance if needed. Handling money is possibly the highest risk for taxi drivers, as robbery is the most common reason for violence and workplace homicide (Chappell and Di Martino, 2006; Couto et al., 2011; Schwer et al., 2010). However, empirical studies have pointed out that taxi drivers' victimisation

includes a much wider range of violence beyond assault and robbery including verbal insults and threats and even sexual harassment and false allegations (Hume, 1995; Keatsdale, 1995; Mayhew, 2000).

Table 6.1

OSHA's control procedures for taxi drivers (2010)

Physical Controls	Procedural Controls
Barriers – such as bullet-resistant glass – between drivers and passengers prevent robberies, injuries and death.	Establishing police protocols – including authorizing police stops.
Security cameras record activities within the vehicle, discouraging violent behaviour, and aiding in identifying passengers, if an assault does occur.	Promoting the use of credit card payments to limit the amount of cash in the taxi and thereby discourage robberies.
Silent alarms (such as an external light) and/or radio communication allow drivers to safely request help.	Providing safety training to teach drivers, dispatchers and company owners about protective measures.
Vehicle tracking devices, such as global positioning satellite (GPS) systems, allow drivers in distress to be located.	
Improved lighting inside the taxi allows the driver to be aware of passenger behaviour.	

Source: OSHA 2010

In order to prevent homicide and assaults towards taxi drivers, several governmental and non-governmental organisations implemented laws and prevention strategies to be applied by taxi drivers. OSHA, for instance, published a list of 8 control procedures in order to decrease the level of assaults against taxi drivers (Table 6.1.). The installation of partitions and security cameras are now regularly used in taxis across the United States. Similar procedures were put into practice all over the industrialised world, such as in Canada, the United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, and New Zealand (www.taxi-library.org).

6.1.2.1. Reasons behind violence against taxi drivers. As presented in table 4.1 (see Chapter IV), the main reasons behind violence towards taxi drivers are highly related to the risk factors for workplace violence in general (Rathbone, 2002), namely working alone, handling money, and out of office hours. Robbery being the most common reason behind violence, arguments between the driver and the customer are also an important source of violence or even of workplace homicide (Smith, 2002). These arguments can be triggered by fare issues, rudeness/disrespect, disdain for their job, or alcohol abuse (Couto et al., 2011).

6.1.3. Personality traits and victimisation. As well as circumstances, the literature shows that certain personality traits do have a significant relationship with victimisation, as explained in Chapter III. Traits or interpersonal interactions that are negative, hostile, aversive, demanding, or too controlling might put an individual at risk of becoming a target of violence from others (Aquino et al. 1999; Aquino and Thau, 2009; Neuman and Baron, 1998; Newbill et al., 2010). In addition, gender also seems to have an influence on risk of victimisation. Research demonstrates that after a conflict at work, female workers were more likely to show traits of empathy and try to express their emotions, to create solutions and to reach out, compared to their male colleagues who seemed more likely to display feelings of anger towards conflicts and to want to win at all cost with competitive behaviours (Davis et al., 2010). Research also shows that male workers are more at risk of physical assaults and violent incidents, as well as being victimised by customers, than women. Women on the other hand are more at risk of becoming a victim of verbal abuse, harassment or sexual assaults (de Judicibus and McCabe, 2001; Scalora et al., 2003).

Finally, research also suggests that people with high cognitive abilities have a significant positive relationship with the risk of becoming a victim at work and that personality traits such as dominance and independence reinforce that relationship compare to people with traits of cooperation, caring and attachment towards others (Kim and Glomb, 2010). Therefore, to fully understand the phenomenon of workplace victimisation, it is crucial to examine all potential relationships between victimisation and victims' characteristics.

6.2. Hypotheses

6.2.1. Victimisation of loan sellers. Subsequent to previous findings on personality and victimisation, it is possible to posit the following hypotheses for the loan sellers sample:

H1: Men will report higher levels of physical and violent incidents than women.

H2: Women will report higher levels of verbal abuse and sexual harassment than men.

H3: Victims of incidents at work will score higher on Expressed Control than non-victims.

H4: Victims of incidents at work will score lower on the Socio-Emotional Affect component than non-victims.

6.2.2. Victimisation of taxi drivers. Similarly, based on previous research on taxi drivers victimisation, the following hypotheses could be proposed for the taxi drivers sample:

H5: Evening and night workers will experience more violent types of incident (e.g. assaults).

H₆: Participants with a high score on Expressed Control (dominant behaviours) will show a higher level of victimisation than participants with lower scores.

H₇: Participants with a low score on Socio-Emotional Affect (hostile behaviours) will show higher level of victimisation than participants with higher scores.

6.3. Method

6.3.1. Samples.

6.3.1.1. Loan sellers. The sample is consisted of 1,868 loan sellers between the ages of 18 and 71, inclusive, comprising 410 males and 1,455 females, and three participants who did not provide their gender. The participants had a mean age of 40 with a standard deviation of 13.29. The majority of participants (50.1%) obtained a high school qualification, and 45.3% obtained a higher education qualification. The participants were home-visit workers from the same loan company located in various towns and cities in Poland (see Chapter IV for more details).

6.3.1.2. Taxi drivers. The sample includes 47 British taxi drivers from a metropolitan area of Scotland. The majority of them were men (91.5%) in their 40s (42.6%). Participants were aged between 30 and 71 years old. Only four female taxi drivers completed the questionnaires. Over 55% of the participants have been working as a taxi driver for 10 years or over (see Chapter IV for more details).

6.3.2. Procedure.

6.3.2.1. Loan sellers. As mentioned in Chapter IV, the sample was recruited in the context of a consultancy project from an international loan company. The participants were employees located in Poland. Out of the 3,000 questionnaires sent to potential participants, a total of 1,868 complete questionnaires were sent back to the researcher,

for a response level of 62.3%. The questionnaire was composed of demographic items such as gender and age, specific questions related to their current company such as training questions, incident items related to their working tasks, and a Polish version of the FIRO-B, previously describe in the precedent chapters.

The incident items included in the questionnaire were statements of possible workplace incidents specific to the company and nature of the participants' job. Participants were asked if they perceived at risk of experiencing the incident using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1: never to 7: frequently. Here is an example of the incident item: Verbal insult from a customer who was drunk or on drugs⁶. Afterwards, participants were asked to circle the question if they had actually experienced the presented incident.

At the end of the questionnaire, participants were asked to complete the FIRO-B scale. As explained in Chapter V, the FIRO-B scale measures an individual's interpersonal tendencies. This scale was used to look at the possible relationship between victimisation and personality traits, in this case interpersonal tendencies.

6.3.2.2. Taxi drivers. As previously mentioned (see Chapter IV), a total of 170 questionnaires were distributed in person to black cab taxi drivers at various locations in the city. The participants had to complete the questionnaire which was composed of background questions, workplace incident variables, incident disclosure variables, and the FIRO-B scale. Participants were then asked to return the questionnaire by post by using the pre-stamped envelope provided. Out of 170, 47 questionnaires were received for response level of 28%.

⁶ The original questionnaire is available in Appendix A

Similarly to the previous sample, the questionnaire included 11 incident items specific to the nature of taxi drivers' job. Participants were asked how frequently they have experienced the incident using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1: never to 7: frequently. Here is an example of the incident item: "Sexual harassment or inappropriate sexual comments by a customer"⁷. In the same way to the sample loan sellers, participants were also asked to complete the FIRO-B scale at the end of the questionnaire.

6.3.3. Analyses. Samples were analysed separately. As the present data were not normally distributed (the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was significant for all variables), and this in both samples, the use of nonparametric methods was opted to perform the analyses. In order to verify the hypotheses related to differences between groups (e.g. gender, victim/non-victim) Mann-Whitney tests were conducted on incidents and interpersonal tendencies within samples. Correlation analysis and Smallest Space Analysis were performed to test hypotheses suggesting relationships between interpersonal tendencies and other variables such as victimisation. Software such as SPSS and HUDAP were used to perform these analyses.

Due to its large size, a smaller sample ($n=205$) only composed of victims was selected from the loan sellers sample ($N=1,868$) in order to avoid size effects on the results. Similar analyses were conducted on the victim sample.

6.4. Results

The descriptive statistics from both samples (arithmetic means, range and *SD*) for the FIRO-B scale scores were compared with the its norms (Schutz, 1987b) in order to establish normality. Table 6.2 presents the comparison for both samples.

⁷ The original questionnaire is available in Appendix A

Table 6.2

Descriptive statistics and norms for the FIRO-B scores for both samples

	Loan sellers		Taxi drivers		FIRO-B norms
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean
Expressed Control	3.6	2.73	1.8	2.00	3.8
Received Control	2.1	2.09	3.4	2.40	4.6
Expressed Inclusion	5.0	2.00	3.7	2.35	4.8
Received Inclusion	4.2	2.38	3.8	2.89	4.2
Expressed Openness	3.8	1.93	3.8	2.10	3.5
Received Openness	5.8	2.34	4.1	2.72	3.6

It can be seen that the loan sellers sample obtained very similar means than the FIRO-B population with the exception of Received Control and Received Openness where their average scores are lower for the Control component and much higher for the Openness component. Overall, they can be described as moderately normal compared to the FIRO-B population. As to the taxi drivers sample, they cannot be defined as being an average sample according to the FIRO-B norms. Indeed, their average scores on the components of Control and Inclusion are much lower than the FIRO-B norms and the Openness means are slightly higher. Therefore, it is possible that this finding affects analyses conducted with the FIRO-B on this particular sample. It is also possible that the sample's characteristics, namely its small size and its male dominance, might have had an impact on their average scores. Consequently, the results obtained with this sample are interpreted with caution throughout this research.

6.4.1. Loan sellers sample ($N = 1,868$).

6.4.1.1. Descriptive statistics. By using the incident items that participants had circled (actually experienced) two additional variables were created: total victimisation and victim. The victimisation variable was created by adding all circled items together providing the total amount of incidents that the participants had experienced at work. The amount varies between 0 and 7 out of a possible 15. Table 6.3 presents the frequencies of victimisation. A total of 145 participants reported having been a victim of at least one of the incidents presented in the questionnaire.

Table 6.3

Amount of incidents experienced by loan sellers

Total amount of incidents experienced	Frequencies
0	1723
1	116
2	20
3	5
4	1
5	2
7	1

6.4.1.2. Differences between victims and non-victims. In order to verify if there were differences between groups on the FIRO-B components scores a Mann-Whitney test was conducted on those variables and the FIRO-B original and new components (see Chapter V). Table 6.4 presents the results.

Table 6.4

Significant Mann-Whitney coefficients on FIRO-B components between victims and non-victims

Variable	Mann-Whitney Coefficient (U)	Z	Sig (2-tailed)
Received Control	111901.500	-2.128	.033
Expressed Control	108261.000	-2.673	.008
Socio-Emotional Affect	111099.000	-2.215	.027

Significant differences between victims and non-victims were found only for both Received Control components (Schutz and new model) and for the new Socio-Emotional Affect component. By looking at the frequency revealed in the analysis, victims did indeed obtain slightly higher scores on those scales than non-victims. This does not support H₃ as victims did significantly score higher on Received Control but no differences were found for its Expressed component. Additionally, this discards H₄ as it seems that victims scored higher than non-victims on the Socio-Emotional Affect component. However, this still suggests that victims of incidents at the workplace differ on the interpersonal tendency to accept control from others but also on their tendency to create socio-emotional interactions with others.

As some participants reported having been victimised at work more than once, a Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to examine any potential differences on the FIRO-B components in regard to multiple victimisations. A significant chi-square coefficient was found only for both Received Control components; New Received Control: $X^2(6, N=1,868) = 13.316, p < .05$; Schutz's Received Control: $X^2(6, N=1,868) = 6.242, p < .05$. With the exception of the participants who experienced two different incidents, all other participants who experienced between one and seven incidents obtained higher scores on Received Control than non-victims.

Finally, a Kruskal-Wallis analysis was conducted to examine any differences between types of incident and interpersonal trends. Significant chi-squares were obtained on Expressed Control for victims of Money stolen by a stranger, $X^2(1, N=1,868) = 5.268, p < .05$, and on Socio-Emotional Affect for victims of Verbal abuse from a customer in arrears, $X^2(1, N=1,868) = 10.383, p < .001$. In both cases, victims obtained significant higher scores on these components than non-victims. This suggests a possible relationship between types of incident and interpersonal personality traits.

6.4.1.3. Differences between genders. Table 6.5 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney test between male and female participants. Significant differences are found between male and female participants on all three proposed FIRO-B components and four out of the six dimensions defined by Schutz. As the new Expressed Control component comprises of exactly the same items than Schutz's one, the results are presented only as Expressed Control. Only Schutz's Expressed Openness and Received Control did not obtain a significant difference between genders. Indeed, the mean ranks obtained by the analysis show that female participants scored lower on both Control new components and Schutz's Expressed Control and slightly higher on the other components presented in table 6.5. This confirms previous findings from personality literature in regard to differences between genders on interpersonal tendency scores.

Table 6.5

Mann-Whitney test results between genders on FIRO-B components within the loan sellers sample

Variable	Mann-Whitney Coefficient (U)	Z	Sig (2-tailed)
Expressed Inclusion (Schutz)	277523.000	-2.177	.029
Received Inclusion (Schutz)	265020.000	-3.477	.001
Received Openness (Schutz)	220193.000	-8.176	.000
New Received Control	254743.000	-4.524	.000
Expressed Control (both)	248103.500	-5.212	.000
Socio-Emotional Affect	254091.500	-4.588	.000

As to differences between genders on the type of incidents, table 6.6 presents the significant results obtained by the Mann-Whitney test. Only physical threats and actual violence variables show significant differences between male and female participants. Indeed, by looking at the mean rank from the analysis, it seems that male participants reported experiencing these incidents slightly more often than their female counterparts. Therefore, H₁ could be considered as confirmed by this analysis. However no significant results were found to corroborate H₂ suggesting that in this sample female home-visit workers did not report having experienced more verbal abuse incidents than their male colleagues.

Table 6.6

Significant differences between genders on type of incidents within the loan sellers sample

Variable	Mann-Whitney Coefficient (U)	Z	Sig (2-tailed)
Physical threat from a customer who was not in arrears	295027.500	-2.111	.035
Physical threat from a customer who was drunk or on drugs	295662.500	-2.144	.032
Actual violence from a customer who was drunk or on drugs	296820.000	-2.665	.008
Actual violence from a customer who was in arrears	296820.000	-2.665	.008

In order to examine if one variable influence victimisation more than other variables a multiple regression was performed between victimisation (dependent variable) and age, gender, and all the FIRO-B components. None of the Schutz's dimensions appeared to be a significant predictor of victimisation, neither were age nor gender. As for the new components found in Chapter V, the new Received Control component as well as Socio-Emotional Affect obtained significant results (table 6.7). However, results show that Socio-Emotional Affect on its own can only predict 0.20% of victimisation. When combined with new Received Control, it only increases to 0.50%.

Table 6.7

Results of multiple regression to predict victimisation (n = 1,868)

Model	β	R ²	F	R ² _{change}	F _{change}	Sig
1	.50 ^a	.002	4.588	.002	4.588	.032
2	.70 ^b	.005	4.554	.002	4.511	.011

a Predictors: (Constant), Socio-Emotional Affect

b Predictors: (Constant), Socio-Emotional Affect, New Received Control

6.4.2. Loan sellers victim sample ($n=205$). Due to the possibility that the previous results obtained within the whole sample could be influenced by its large size ($N=1,868$) and in order to look at victimisation in more details, further analyses were conducted on a smaller sample composed of participants who reported having been a victim of work incidents (item 72).

6.4.2.1. Descriptive statistics. A total of 320 out of 1,868 participants claimed that they experienced other incidents at work other than the 15 items presented in the questionnaire (items 55 to 69). From the 320 participants, only 205 provided details on the type of incident that occurred. The sample includes 149 female participants and 56 males. The majority of the participants were aged between 31 and 39 years old ($n=61$), followed by the age groups of 50-59 ($n=53$) and 40-49 ($n=43$), participants being between the age of 18 and 69 years old. This sample of 205 incidents could then be divided in 12 types. As some of them were reported only by one participant and others by a greater number, those 12 types of incident were examined individually. Figure 6.1 presents the frequencies for each type of incident.

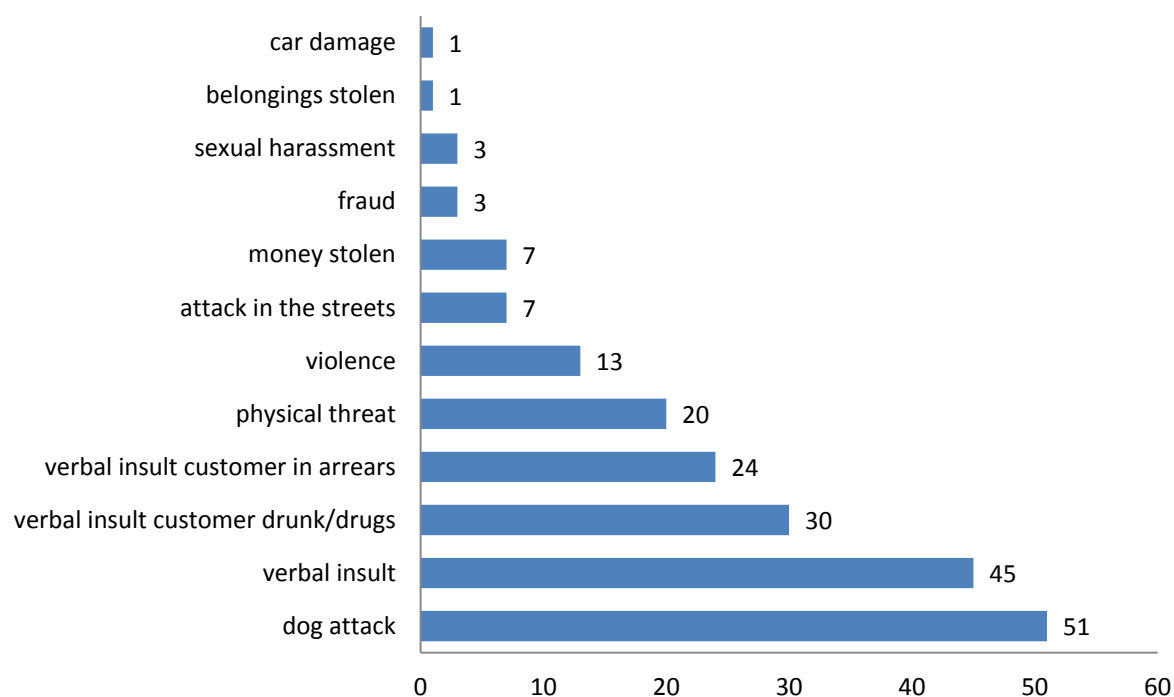


Figure 6.1. Number of loan sellers who experienced the incident

In addition, certain participants have experienced multiple victimisations in the sense that they reported more than one type of incident. However, no one experienced more than two types of incident. Nine participants stated being a victim of both physical threat and another type of incident. Only three types of incident were experienced on their own which were sexual harassment, belongings stolen, and car damage.

6.4.2.2. Interpersonal trends and differences between types of incident. As the current variables were not normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was significant for all variables), a Spearman correlation analysis was conducted on the incident variables and the FIRO-B components. Table 6.8 presents the correlation matrix between types of incident and the FIRO-B components. Only one low significant correlation was found between verbal abuse from drunk/drugged customers and Socio-Emotional Affect. This was confirmed by a Kruskal-Wallis test showing

only one significant chi-square coefficient for these variables: $X^2(1, N= 205) = 4.24, p < .05$. These 30 victims of verbal abuse significantly scored lower on Socio-Emotional Affect than the remaining 175 non-victims.

No other significant result was found between interpersonal tendencies and types of incident; however, this could maybe be the result of an important gap between the number of victims and non-victims. Indeed, some incidents stated by the participants were experienced by a small amount of participants, sometimes only experienced by a single individual.

Table 6.8

Spearman correlations between types of incident and the FIRO-B

	Received Inclusion	Expressed Control	Received Openness	Expressed Inclusion	Received Control	Expressed Openness	New Received Control	Socio- Emotional Affect
Verbal insult	.006	.065	.051	.117	.021	.062	.049	.059
Verbal insult cust arrears	.058	-.070	.170	.068	-.017	.120	.035	.076
Verbal insult cust drunk	-.099	-.036	-.178	-.105	-.017	-.112	-.129	-.144*
Dog attacks	-.009	.038	-.029	-.038	-.002	.018	.018	.009
Physical threat	.081	-.045	.081	.002	.019	-.096	-.027	.032
Violence	-.025	.053	-.055	-.005	.047	-.032	.053	-.027
Attacked on the streets	-.065	-.038	.086	.004	-.044	.081	-.027	.015
Money stolen	-.016	.094	-.004	.016	-.068	-.037	.098	.015
Fraud	.097	-.009	-.061	-.017	.100	.051	-.027	.011
Sexual harassment	.102	-.072	.051	-.033	-.033	.018	-.052	.025
Belongings stolen	-.120	-.024	-.118	-.095	-.077	-.052	-.059	-.117
Car damage	-.012	-.087	-.039	-.095	.066	-.122	.028	-.088

* $p < .05$

6.4.2.3. Interpersonal trends and differences between genders. A Mann-Whitney test was conducted to verify if there were any significant differences between male and female responses on the types of incident reported and on their scores on the new FIRO-B components. Results show no significant distinction between male and female victims on the types of incident they had experienced. However, by looking at the percentages per gender presented in Figure 6.2, it is possible to see subtle differences between the two groups. Male participants experienced more incidents related to actual violence such as attack in the street and physical threat compared to their female colleagues who experienced more verbal abuse related incidents and sexual harassment. Although no significant results were obtained through the analysis, it is possible to conclude that H₁ and H₂ were confirmed in this particular sample.

As to the differences on the FIRO-B components, table 6.9 presents the significant differences found.

Table 6.9

Significant Mann-Whitney results between genders on FIRO-B

Variable	Mann-Whitney Coefficient (U)	Z	Sig (2-tailed)
Received Inclusion (Schutz)	3227.500	-2.511	.012
Received Openness (Schutz)	2573.000	-4.272	.000
New Received Control	3269.500	-2.388	.017
Socio-Emotional Affect	2888.000	-3.393	.001

Men scored significantly higher on the new Received Control and lower on Socio-Emotional Affect and Schutz's Received Inclusion and Openness compared to their

female colleagues. Once more previous genders differences found in the literature are corroborated. Even in a sample composed only of victims differences between genders on interpersonal tendencies still exist. This corroborates results from the analysis on the types of incident as victims of verbal abuse from drunk/drugged customers obtained lower scores on Socio-Emotional Affect and appeared to be men in majority. Other support for this finding between genders and types of incidents, although not significant, are sexual harassment and actual violence. Confirming the literature, victims of sexual harassment were female and showed low scores on both Control components and high scores on Received Inclusion and Received Openness (or the combination of the two which is Socio-Emotional Affect), which are the direct opposite results for victims of actual violence (male, high on Control, low on Socio-Emotional Affect). Therefore, although no significant results could be found supporting the theory proposing that particular interpersonal personality traits might influence the risk of becoming the victim of a particular incident, results showing differences between genders on both types of incident and FIRO-B scores suggest that this relationship might still exist.

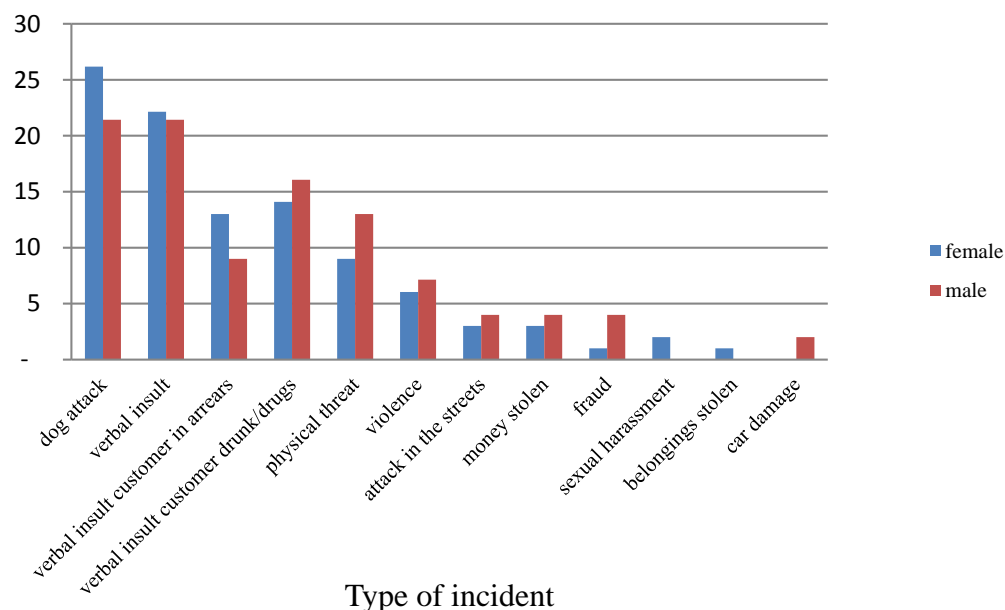


Figure 6.2. Percentage of loan sellers who experienced the incident per genders

6.4.3. Taxi drivers sample (N= 47).

6.4.3.1. Descriptive statistics. The sample is composed of 43 men and four women.

Over half of the participants did not provide their shift pattern, but out of the 22 who did, the majority of them work either evening (64%) and/or night shifts (82%). All participants declared having experienced at least one of the 11 incidents presented, making them all victims at least on one occasion. Figure 6.3 presents the percentage of occurrence of each incident within the sample, going from the less frequent incident to the more frequent from top to bottom. The most frequent incident experienced by the participants was verbal insult from a customer drunk or on drugs followed by physical threat from a customer drunk or on drugs and verbal insult from a customer who seemed sober. As no one experienced sexual assault from a customer, this variable was excluded from the chart.

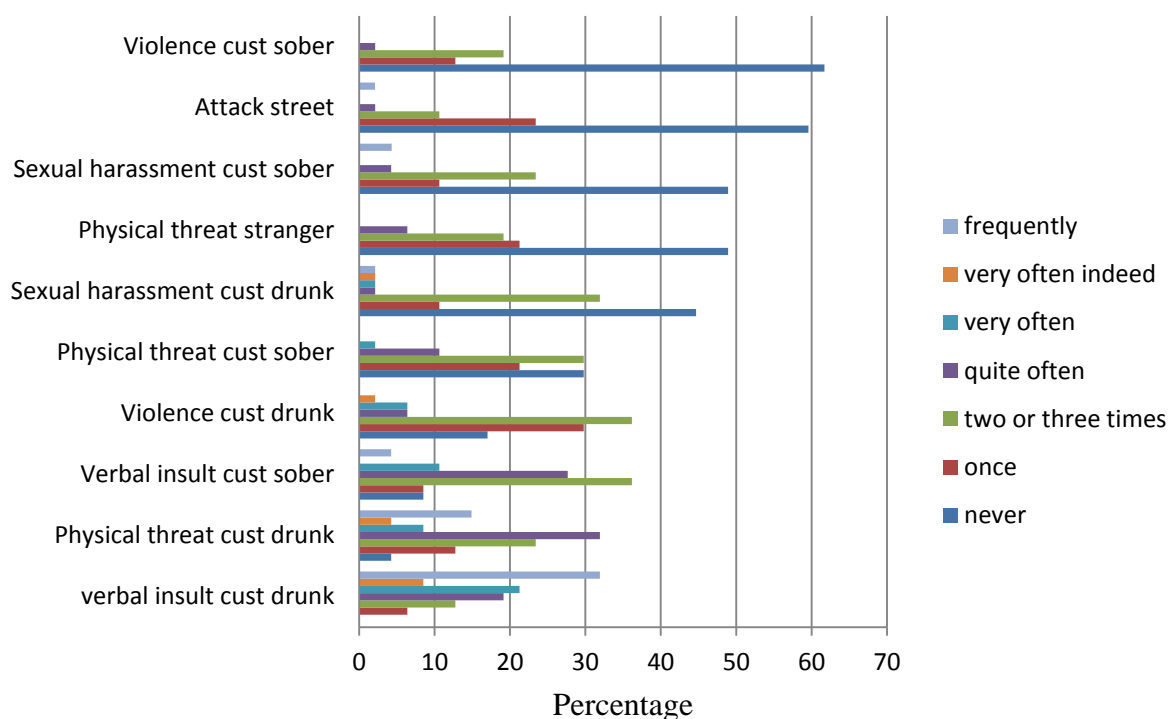


Figure 6.3. Frequency of each incident as a percentage within the taxi drivers sample

These frequencies were then divided within never occurred or occurred, which can be used to split the sample between victims and non-victims for each incident (victimisation variables). Figure 6.4 presents the percentage of victims for each incident (less frequent to most frequent from top to bottom). In addition to the percentage of victimisation for each incident, multiple victimisations could be calculated. Participants reported having experienced between one (2.3%) and ten (9.3%) incidents in total, with an average of 6 (18.6%). In addition, participants were asked to state any other incidents that they have experienced if not already listed in the questionnaire. Six participants reported having experienced the following incidents: “attacks on taxi, vandalism”; “female kicking taxi”; “people trying to kick taxi”; “got crashed into and then threatened with a knife”; “violent physical assault from a gang of 6 men, car kicked and hit on”; and “bullying in the work place”.

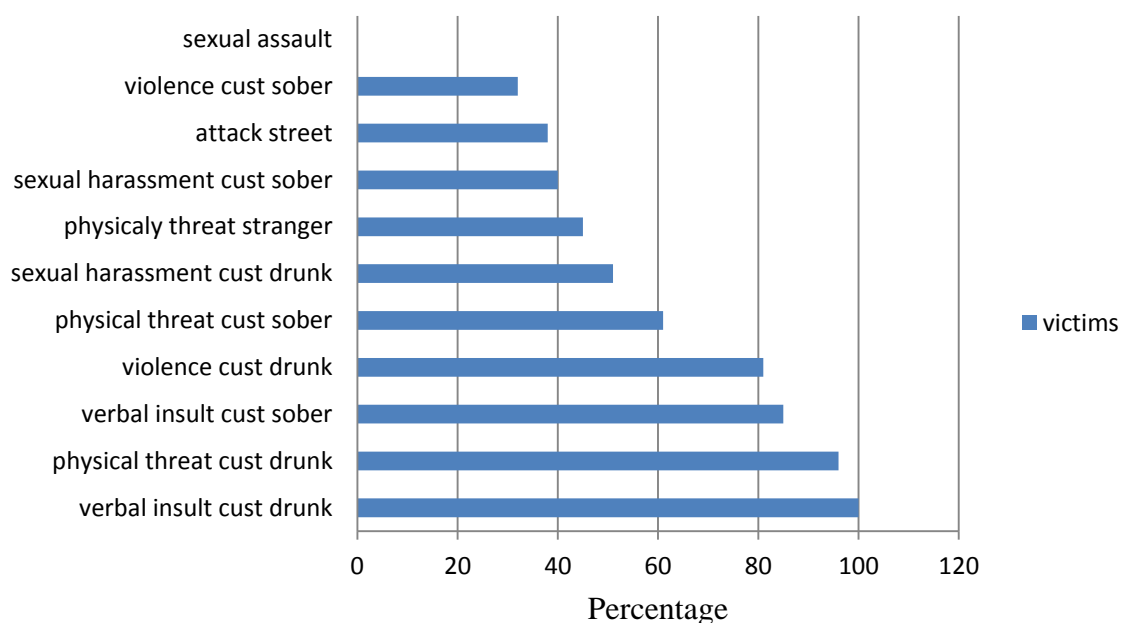


Figure 6.4. Percentage of victims for each incident within the taxi drivers sample

6.4.3.2. Victimisation and shift patterns. To test the hypotheses on victimisation, a Cramer's V test was performed to look at differences between shift patterns on victimisation. Only one significant Cramer's V was found between shift pattern and "sexual harassment by customer who seemed sober" (Cramer's $V = .507, p < .05$). Over a quarter (26.3%) of the participants who have experienced this incident stated working only nightshifts. Although the literature shows that most incidents would occur in the evening or at night, the participants in this study do not show significant differences between the shift patterns on victimisation. Thus, H_5 is rejected as it seems that taxi drivers are victims of incidents at any time of the day, any age and any time during their career.

6.4.3.3. Victimisation and interpersonal tendencies. Correlation analyses between the FIRO-B components and the incident victimisation variables were performed to verify any possible relationships between them. However, as four participants did not fully complete the FIRO-B inventory, the analyses were done on the remaining

participants ($N=43$). In addition, the variable “Sexual assault by a customer” was included from the analysis as no participant reported having experienced the incident.

Table 6.10 shows the significant Kendall’s tau correlations found.

Table 6.10

Kendall’s tau coefficients between types of incident and FIRO-B

	Schutz Expressed Inclusion	Schutz Received Control	Schutz Expressed Openness	Scutz Received Inclusion	Expressed Control	Schutz Received Openness	New Received Control	Socio- Emotional Affect
Verbal insult sober	-.320*	-.177	.026	-.302	-.158	.011	-.162	-.240*
Verbal insult Drunk	-.210	-.184	-.098	-.103	.074	-.048	-.094	-.107
Physical threat sober	.136	.131	-.059	.051	.114	.049	-.053	-.117
Physical threat drunk	-.088	-.145	-.199	-.193	.291*	-.030	-.043	-.030
Violence sober	-.081	.000	.000	-.062	.160	.151	-.039	.001
Violence drunk	.094	.031	-.205	-.103	.279*	.137	-.084	.161
Attacked stranger	.104	.159	.082	.000	.000	.062	-.022	.161
Threat stranger	-.211	-.077	-.266*	-.107	.072	-.006	-.198	.001
Sex Harassment sober	-.248	-.217	-.047	-.281*	-.059	.069	-.029	-.076
Sex harassment drunk	-.168	.109	-.133	-.138	.163	-.020	.040	.071

* $p < .05$

It can be seen in table 6.10 that only few incidents significantly correlated with particular FIRO-B components. Interestingly, the most serious incidents involving a higher degree of violence have correlated with Expressed Control. Although regarded as low correlations, these findings suggest that victims of those incidents obtained high

scores on Expressed Control, meaning that they show controlling behaviours when interacting with others. The analyses were also conducted on the variable “multiple victimisation” and the only significant correlation was found with Expressed Control (Kendall’s tau $b=.227, p < .05$). This indicates that as the amount of experienced incidents increases, higher is the score on Expressed Control. This corroborates H₆ and previous studies suggesting that controlling and dominant behaviours in interpersonal interactions are risk factors of becoming a victim of incident.

As to the other FIRO-B components, the significant relationships found were all negatively correlating with the type of incident. This suggests that victims of this incident obtained lower scores on this component (Inclusion, Openness and Socio-Emotional Affect). Again, this is supported by the literature which implied that people with hostile behaviours would be more at risk of victimisation and supports H₇. No significant correlations were found with Received Control components. Corroborating these findings are the results from a Smallest Space Analysis performed on the incident victimisation variables and the FIRO-B raw data presented in Figure 6.5.

The three components proposed by the analyses in Chapter V can clearly be seen in the SSA-I plot. Socio-Emotional Affect items are situated mainly on the left side of the plot, which are all of Schutz’s Inclusion and Openness items, with the exception of items 27, 33, and 45 which are originally Openness items but now are included in the new Received Control component. As to Expressed Control and Received Control, they are located on the bottom right and top right respectively. As all participants experienced “Verbal insults by a customer drunk or on drugs” and none experienced “Sexual assault from a customer”, these variables were excluded from the analysis. The SSA-I output demonstrates close co-occurrence between several incident variables

and Expressed Control items, namely “Actual violence by a customer drunk or on drugs”, “Physical threat by a stranger” and “Physical threat by a customer drunk or on drugs”. Their close proximity with items such as “I strongly influence other people’s actions” (item 17) suggests a strong relationship between them.

In other words, the closer the items are to each other, more likely that they will co-occur. In this case, victims of these incidents are more likely to score high on Expressed Control items, which confirms earlier findings through correlation analysis. A possible explanation could be that presenting dominant behaviours, wanting to be in control might provoke to a certain degree or escalate certain risky situations which then turn into more violent incidents such as physical threats and even actual violence.

In addition, it is possible to see a potential relationship between “Attack on the streets by a stranger” and Received Control items such as “People often cause me to change my mind” (item 50), which are both situated on the top right corner of the plot. Again, their proximity suggests that people who experienced this type of incident are more likely to score high on this component. Although not discussed in the literature, submissive behaviours might also have an impact on the risk of becoming a victim. A lack of control or giving full control to the customer/offender might also escalate some risky situations. Finally, both items related to sexual harassment from a customer appear to cluster near items of Socio-Emotional Affect like “I have people around me” (item 31) and “I look for people to be with” (item 43). This implies that victims of these incidents obtained high scores on this component. Once more, most of the research on personality and victimisation looked at negative and hostile traits. This result demonstrates that certain quality such as being open to others and welcoming might sometimes put individuals at risk of certain type of victimisation. In this case,

perhaps a warm and friendly behaviour could have given the wrong impression or opened up a conversation which then was taken too far. These findings point out the need for more research on other personality traits and their potential influence on victimisation as well as the links between them and certain types of victimisation.

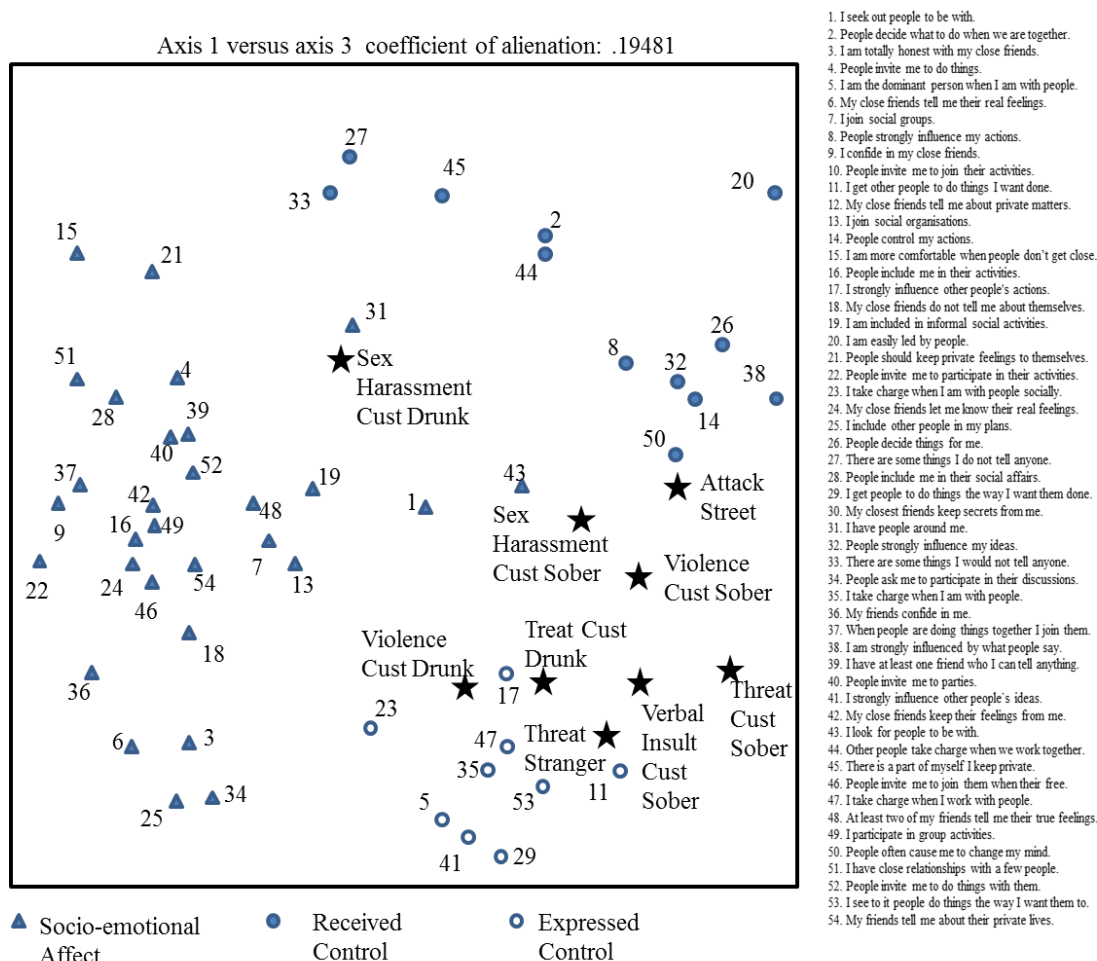


Figure 6.5. SSA-I (3D) between incident occurrence and raw FIRO-B items, divided within the new FIRO-B components from analyses in Chapter V.

Finally, as for the loan sellers sample, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine if one specific variable or a combination of variables can explain victimisation. As observed in table 6.11, no significant result was found for any variable or combination of variables in relation to predicting victimisation.

Table 6.11

Results of multiple regression analysis to predict victimisation (n = 43)

Model	β	R ²	F	R ² _{change}	F _{change}	Sig
1	1.207 ^a	.277	1.408	.277	1.408	.225

a Predictors: (Constant), Socio-emotional Affect, Age, Sex, Schutz Received Control, New Expressed Control, Schutz Expressed Openness, Schutz Received Openness, Schutz Expressed Inclusion, New Received Control

6.5. Discussion

Although several studies have been conducted on workplace victimisation and personality previous research on these topics have omitted to study unusual population of workers or, as indicated earlier in this research, “low risk” populations. Indeed, information on workplace victimisation relates mostly to emergency service workers or populations of workers dealing with patients/customers whose distress or situation put workers at risk of violence. This study aimed to provide more data on home-visit workers who were not considered an “at risk” population.

Additionally, although taxi drivers’ victimisation has very much attracted both media’s and researchers’ attention for the past two or three decades, most papers are descriptive, providing statistics on types of offence, preventive measures, and case studies. This study aimed to enhance the existing data on taxi drivers’ victimisation, especially on its possible relationships with victims’ intra-personal factors. Based on Canter’s (1989) theory that crime involves a certain degree of interrelationship between the victim and the offender, this study has investigated the possible relationships between victimisation and victims’ interpersonal tendencies. Although research on victimisation has provided links between personality traits with risk of victimisation, this exploratory study used an interpersonal trends scale to provide a new avenue for research on personality correlates of victimisation.

6.5.1. Loan sellers sample. Studies on personality and victimisation argue that particular personality traits such as being controlling increase the risk of becoming a victim (e.g. Aquino and Thau, 2009). These studies have looked at various types of incidents in a variety of settings such as bullying at work and in school. Based on these studies and descriptive statistics on workplace violence, the current study proposed four hypotheses in order to examine the potential influence that interpersonal tendencies might have on the risk of becoming a victim at work.

According to these studies, men are more at risk of physical assaults and violent crimes, as women are more at risk of being the victim of verbal abuse, threats, and sexual harassment (de Judicibus and McCabe, 2001; Scalora et al., 2003). These statements were the foundation for the first two hypotheses (H_1 and H_2). Results from the whole sample provided support to H_1 as a higher percentage of men reported having experienced violent incidents compared to women. No difference was found between male and female victims to support H_2 . However, both hypotheses were supported within the victim sample ($n=205$). Results show a higher percentage of men who experienced violent incidents and a higher percentage of women who experienced verbal abuse. Due to the unequal amount of female and male participants in both samples, these results must be taken with caution. Further research using a sample composed an identical number of female and male victims would provide more accurate data on these hypotheses. However, the findings from the present study do corroborate the existing statistics on this topic. To offer more explanation on these particular differences between genders, more analyses were conducted in regard to their personality.

Research on personality traits shows distinctions between genders on their type of behaviours during a conflict at work. For instance, women show more traits of empathy and searching for solution compared to men who express more competitive and dominant behaviours (Davis et al., 2010). Results from the Mann-Whitney tests on both samples confirmed previous findings. Indeed, within both samples, male participants obtained higher scores on Control components than their fellow females workers who in contrast obtained higher scores on Socio-Emotional Affect. These results, when combined with the previous findings on types of incidents, suggest that individuals who show high traits of controlling behaviours (Expressed Control) or submissive behaviours (Received Control) might be more at risk of physical threats and assaults, in this case male participants. Based on the victim's precipitation theory (see Chapter III), it is possible to infer that individuals who showed high traits of control might have provoked, unintentionally, the escalation of the incident. Similarly, individuals with high traits of submission could in their case lose control of the situation which could then escalate to violent incident. On the other side, individuals who opened themselves and include others in their activities and show low traits of controlling behaviours seem to put themselves more at risk of verbal abuse, such as female victims in this sample. An explanation could be that these individuals seemed welcoming and opened to comments by customers who might have taken it a step slightly further and the lack of control might have worsened the situation. Again, more research should be conducted to verify these hypotheses. However, these findings do suggest a certain relationship between victimisation and victims' interpersonal trends.

Finally, two hypotheses were suggested based on findings between personality traits and victimisation. According to the literature, traits such as dominance and hostility

increase the risk of becoming a victim. This implies that individuals showing these traits would score high on Expressed Control either showing traits of dominance and low on Socio-Emotional Affect (combination of Inclusion and Openness items) showing hostile behaviours. Therefore, it was hypothesised that victims would score higher than non-victims on Control components (H₃) and lower on Socio-Emotional Affect (H₄). H₃ was partly supported by the analysis as victims obtained higher scores than non-victims on Received Control, but no significant difference was found on Expressed Control. As to Socio-Emotional Affect, analyses on the whole sample reject H₄ as victims scored higher on this component than non-victims. However, on the victim sample, the Spearman correlation analysis and Kruskal-Wallis test show a significant difference between the two groups on this component and a negative relationship with verbal abuse from a customer drunk or on drugs. This means that victims of that incident scored lower on Socio-Emotional Affect and therefore corroborates H₄. Although significant, this relationship obtained a very low correlation coefficient and could be explained by a dominance of male victims for this type of incident; men tend to score lower on Socio-Emotional Affect. Another explanation for H₄ is the possibility that certain types of personality are more at risk of becoming victims of particular types of incident. Although no significant results were found to confirm this, mean scores on the FIRO-B components show that victims of a particular incident obtained higher scores on a specific component such as violence and Received Control and sexual harassment and Socio-Emotional Affect for instance. As these results might be influenced by genders, more research is needed in order to verify this possible relationship between personality and types of incident.

To sum up, most hypotheses related to victimisation were confirmed. It appears that men and women differ in their behaviours while interacting with others as well as on the type of incidents that they experienced. However, it seems that controlling behaviours do not influence the risk of victimisation but rather the lack of control or a high tendency to be controlled. In addition, a high tendency to accept others and get them involved in one's activities has a high influence on the risk of becoming a victim at work as shown by the multiple regression analysis in table 6.7. Indeed, Socio-Emotional Affect alone or combine with the new Received Control component were the only components to obtain a significant result. It is possible to argue that these tendencies might be related to victim's precipitation, increasing the risk of escalation of the incident.

6.5.2. Taxi drivers sample. In addition to victims' personality traits, research on victimisation has put forward the victim's precipitation theory (e.g., Daigle, 2013; Felson, 2006). This theory implies that victims of crime can, on some occasions, involuntarily provoke the offender which then escalates the situation. As explained by Zapf and Gross (2001), people's reaction during argumentative situations has a crucial impact on its outcome. In the case of workplace violence, the victim's reaction to certain situation with customers might sometimes decrease or increase the risk of further incidents. Therefore, this study aimed to provide more information on the potential victim's interpersonal tendencies with others and their possible impact on victimisation.

Results from correlation and Smallest Space Analysis demonstrate significant relationships between interpersonal trends and types of victimisation. Figure 6.5 provides the results from the SSA-I output and shows clear clusters between the FIRO-

B new components and incident variables. On the right side of the plot, more violent incidents such as “Actual violence by a customer drunk or on drugs”, “Physical threat by a customer drunk or on drugs”, and “Physical threat by a stranger” are located closer to items of Expressed Control. Six out of nine incident items clustered in the bottom right corner of the plot which can be defined as the Expressed Control region. This supports H₆ suggesting that people who would show traits of control and dominance would obtain a higher level of victimisation. Also, high traits of dominance and wanting to be in control could be the source of victim’s precipitation. Arguments with customers who do not want to let go could therefore escalate into threats or even assaults. In addition, dominance and confidence could sometimes be perceived as arrogance, mostly if the person is under the influence, and again could increase the risk of an escalation.

Slightly further up on the plot is the region defined as Received Control. The only incident which clustered closer to the Received Control items was “Attack on the street by a stranger”. One explanation could be that people who have personality traits related to being controlled and submissive might show a lack of control in certain situation which could therefore put them at risk of being the ideal target for perpetrators. Finally, incidents related to sexual harassment by customers both clustered near Socio-Emotional Affect items. If defining people with high scores on Socio-Emotional Affect as opened, warm, welcoming, inclusive and extraverted towards others, the explanation for these results could be that victims created a rapport with these customers perhaps too friendly or too close that might have been wrongly interpreted by the customers. On the other side, it could also just be that their friendly attitude provided an opportunity for the customers to take it a step too far. As well as

the SSA-I results, significant positive correlations were found between Expressed Control component and multiple victimisation, “Physical threat by a customer drunk or on drugs”, and “Actual violence by a customer drunk or on drugs”, supporting H₆ and the results from the SSA-I. Negative significant correlations were also found between Socio-Emotional Affect, Inclusion and Openness components and verbal types of violence such as verbal insults and sexual harassment. This implies that when victims experienced these incidents, they obtained a low score on these components and therefore corroborates more or less H₇ which stated that victims with high scores on these components would show a lower level of victimisation. Victims scoring low on Socio-Emotional Affect for instance can be defined as closed, introvert, quiet, secretive and could therefore be perceived as cold and even hostile to some people. This could explain why these qualities could increase the risk of verbal insults if customers do not feel understood and provided with a warm service. Although no information was provided on the exact time (shift pattern) of when the incident occurred and if it was preceded by an argument or any other possible causes that could have been prevented, these results still demonstrate that there is a significant relationship between victimisation and the victim’s interpersonal tendencies. More research on this topic is needed to both replicate the findings and provide further data on personality and workplace victimisation.

Analyses were also conducted to observe any potential relationships between victimisation and other variables such as work experience, age and shift pattern. According to the literature, age and work experience both decrease the risk of victimisation (e.g., Chappel and Di Martino, 2006; Schwer et al., 2010). No significant results were found within this sample to confirm these findings. Nevertheless, results

show a significant relationship between “sexual harassment who seemed sober” and shift patterns. It seems that over 25% of the victims stated working only at night. Although being a serious incident, this does not corroborate H₅ predicting that evening and nightshift workers would experience more serious/violent types of crime as their conditions put them more at risk (e.g. bars closing/drunk customers, dark streets, less witnesses). However, several participants answered working more than one specific shift and sometimes even alternate between day, evening, and night shifts. Therefore, their victimisation would not be specified to the shift pattern.

Finally, a multiple regression was conducted to verify if one or a combination of various variables could explain victimisation. No significant result was obtained when looking at age, gender and all FIRO-B components. However, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, all results from this particular sample might be interpreted with caution as participants showed an average tendency to score lower on all FIRO-B components than the norms except for Schutz’s Openness dimensions. This result can be explained by the very small size of the sample as well as being composed of a majority of male participants.

6.6. Conclusion

In summary, this study has corroborated previous findings on personality and victimisation. It aimed to offer a better understanding of the nature of violence experienced by a “low risk” occupation that is home-visit loan selling as well as adding information on violence against taxi drivers. It provides new avenues for future research on populations which differ from the dominant ones in the literature. In addition, the use of interpersonal traits rather than personality traits offers a new perspective on crime and victimisation and can be seen as the foundation for an

Interpersonal Transaction model of victimisation. As well as bringing future research possibilities, these findings could be used for education/training purposes in organisations and therefore for prevention of workplace violence. Implications from this study will also be discussed in Chapter X. Further research is needed to enlarge the current knowledge on this topic and to validate the present findings.

Chapter VII

Workplace Violence Disclosure

The present chapter, just like the previous one, investigates the nature of violence committed on workers conducting their duties outside an office setting (loan sellers and taxi drivers). However, this study focuses on workplace disclosure rate and the reasons for (under)reporting an incident. The victims' level of disclosure, reasons behind disclosure, and general descriptive statistics are provided. Victims' interpersonal tendencies, measured by the FIRO-B scale, are also analysed to test any relationships between disclosure and interpersonal tendencies. This study aims to offer further information on workplace violence disclosure and on the reasons behind the decision-making process to report an incident or not. Results from the analyses and the research's limitations are also discussed.

7.1. Theoretical framework

7.1.1. General data on crime disclosure. Research on the disclosure aspect of crime has demonstrated that victims decide not to report an offence for various reasons such as feeling that the incident is not serious enough, lack of evidence that it happened, the impression that the police is unable to do anything, fear of being disbelieved, self-blame and feelings of shame to name but a few (Allen, 2007; Barclay, 2003; Block, 1974; Bowles et al., 2009; Mirrlees-Black and Ross, 1995; Taylor and Gassner, 2012; Thompson et al., 2010; Walker, 1994). In addition, other factors such as gender and age did show an impact on the level of disclosure when a crime occurs, but one particular factor was also the relationship between the offender and the victim (Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 1988). Although studies still debate on its impact as some show that the relationship does not influence the victim's decision to report the

crime and others argue that it does, the interesting aspect of this factor is the term relationship or as one could describe interaction between the victim and the offender. Once again, this suggests that the victim's interpersonal tendencies and reactions to the offender's actions could play a critical role in the likelihood of the offence's disclosure. Very little is known on the victims' personality's influence on the decision to disclose a crime. In addition, following research on workplace violence in the literature, "low risk" occupations have been neglected by social research on this topic. Although other occupations have been examined (e.g. taxi drivers), the literature on workplace violence as a whole lacks information and empirical research concerning workplace violence disclosure.

7.1.2. Taxi drivers' crime disclosure. Despite the establishment of prevention strategies, violence towards taxi drivers remains and it is fair to say that statistics on workplace violence amongst taxi drivers are unlikely to provide the accurate "picture" of the phenomenon. The two main reasons are the high level of under-reporting from taxi drivers (Elzinga, 1996; Stenning, 1996; Warshaw and Messite, 1996; Wynne, et al., 1996) and the "healthy worker" effect. The latter implies that workers who have been ill, injured, or affected psychologically by the incident will not be at work and will be unlikely to take part in surveys, therefore statistics might be biased by an unrepresentative sample of "healthy" workers (Mayhew, 2000). Some studies looked specifically at the level of reporting or under-reporting of workplace incidents and the reasons behind it. In the mid-90s, statistics showed that, at best, one out of five violent incidents was reported (Mayhew, 2000). Under-reporting occurs for various reasons, for all types of violence within all occupations on international levels as presented in earlier chapters.

In addition to under-reporting, as assaults do occur without any physical injuries, which could be seen as “emotional” injuries, some of those incidents are not recorded in the figures which then affect the data on the phenomenon. Nevertheless, national victim surveys, police records, newspapers, and websites such as national-taxi-association.co.uk and taxi-library.org provide a good source of data on the phenomenon.

Although a great deal of attention has been paid to the phenomenon, most data on taxi driver workplace violence are descriptive and focus on homicides. There is very little empirical research conducted on the topic and therefore there is a lack of information on the reasons behind under-reporting and very little is known as to the role that personal traits or behaviours could play into one’s decision to report a crime. The present study addressed these issues by looking more specifically at the level of reporting, the reasons behind reporting and under-reporting, and at the possible relationship between disclosure and victims’ interpersonal tendencies.

7.2. Hypotheses

7.2.1. Loan sellers sample. Subsequent to previous findings on crime disclosure, it is possible to suggest the following hypothesis for the loan sellers sample:

H₁: Male participants will obtain a lower level of disclosure than female participants.

7.2.2. Taxi drivers sample. Similarly, results from previous studies on taxi drivers’ crime disclosure led to the following hypothesis:

H₂: The perceived seriousness of the incident will have a positive relationship with the level of disclosure.

Although no hypothesis could be formulated in regard to the relationship between interpersonal tendencies and disclosure, the present study conducted analyses to examine any associations between these variables.

7.3. Method

7.3.1. Samples. The same samples of loan sellers (N= 1868) and taxi drivers (N= 47) were used for this study (see Chapters IV and VI for more details).

7.3.2. Procedure.

7.3.2.1. Loan sellers sample. The questionnaire administrated for the purpose of the consultancy project also included items related to disclosure of the incident. The two following questions were asked to the participants: “If you ever experienced any of the above did you report the incident to your supervisor or someone in X [company’s name]” (item 70) and “Did you report it” (item 73; after being asked if they have experienced other forms of incident). Participants were asked to answer item 70 using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1: it never happened to 5: I always reported it when it happened. Item 73 was answered by yes or no.

7.3.2.2. Taxi drivers sample. In order to provide more information on taxi drivers’ level of disclosure and the reasons behind it, participants were asked how often they have reported any experienced incidents on a Likert-type scale from 1: it never happened to 5: I always reported it when it happened. In addition, participants were asked to provide one or more reasons why they reported it or why they did not report it from a list of reasons provided. The latest were based on previous findings on crime disclosure. In both cases, participants had the opportunity to write their own reason if not present (qualitative data). In addition, in cases when victims had reported the incident, participants were provided with a list of potential people to whom they have

disclosed the incident. Finally, participants were asked if they have experienced any other type of incident omitted by the questionnaire. If so, they were asked to give a brief description (qualitative data) of the incident and the same disclosure items were asked in relation to that specific incident.

7.3.3. Analyses. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality performed in the previous chapter revealed that the present samples were significantly different from the normal population and therefore the present data were not considered normally distributed and nonparametric methods were opted to perform the analyses on both samples. Software such as SPSS and HUDAP were used to perform these analyses.

7.3.3.1. Loan seller sample. T-test and correlation analyses were conducted to verify the hypothesis suggesting significant differences between groups and to examine possible relationships between victims' interpersonal tendencies and disclosure level. Once again, due to its large size, the analyses were also conducted on the smaller victim sample ($n=205$) derived from the whole loan sellers sample ($N= 1868$).

7.3.3.2. Taxi drivers sample quantitative analysis. To tests the present hypotheses and due to the small sample size ($N=47$), Kendall's tau correlation analysis and Smallest Space Analysis were performed to test hypotheses suggesting relationships between other variables such as interpersonal tendencies and level of disclosure. In addition, Cramer's V tests were conducted on interpersonal tendencies and disclosure variables to test for any differences between groups.

7.3.3.3. Taxi drivers sample qualitative analysis. Qualitative data were analysed by using Content Analysis approach in order to cross-validate findings from the quantitative data and test the hypotheses. In addition, their content was also added to

the final interpretation of the results providing more details on aspects of workplace violence omitted by the questionnaire.

7.4. Results

7.4.1. Loan sellers sample (N=1,868). In regard to the level of disclosure of incidents which occurred at work, analysis on the whole sample was performed in regard to possible differences between genders on interpersonal tendency scores and level of disclosure.

7.4.1.1. Descriptive statistics. Only 128 participants (6.9%) out of the 1,868 loan sellers indicated that they had never reported an incident when it happened. As some participants chose that answer even though they claimed to have not been a victim of any kind of incident, a closer analysis reveals that 8.3% of the victims stated never to have reported an incident when it occurred when having experienced one of the 15 incidents presented in the questionnaire. The remaining participants claimed that they reported the incident either sometimes (7.2%) or always (27.5%) when it occurred.

7.4.1.2. Group differences on disclosure. A Mann-Whitney test was performed on the disclosure variables (items 70 and 73) between male and female participants. A significant result was obtained only for question 73 “Did you report it?” with $U=275458$, $z = -2.595$, $p < .05$. Actually, 33% of males did report an incident compared to 29% of female workers. No significant difference was found between genders when asked if the incident was reported to their superior (item 70). It is important to bear in mind that item 73 did relate to reporting another incident than the ones already presented in the questionnaire and did not specify to whom they reported it. These results only partly support H₁.

7.4.1.3. Interpersonal tendencies and disclosure. As to differences between interpersonal personality traits, significant Mann-Whitney coefficients were obtained for all new FIRO-B components and Schutz's Received Control and Openness dimensions (see Table 7.1). Results show that participants who claimed reporting incidents obtained significant higher scores on Received Control (both Schutz's and new) and Received Openness and lower scores on both Expressed Control and Socio-Emotional Affect. This suggests that certain types of personality might be more inclined to disclose incidents to the relevant authorities.

Table 7.1

Mann-Whitney coefficients between disclosure and FIRO-B

Variable		Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney Coefficient (U)	Z	Sig (2-tailed)
Expressed Control	Reported	472.48	91852.5	-2.006	.045
	Did not report	436.51			
Received Control	Reported	439.74	89176.5	-2.654	.007
	Did not report	488.00			
Socio-Emotional Affect	Reported	477.08	89276.0	-2.666	.008
	Did not report	429.28			
Schutz Received Control	Reported	438.21	88315.0	-2.964	.003
	Did not report	490.42			
Schutz Received Openness	Reported	474.18	90898.0	-2.269	.023
	Did not report	433.83			

7.4.2. Loan sellers victim sample ($n=205$).

7.4.2.1. Descriptive statistics. Only 7.8% did not report the incident from the 15 incidents stated in the questionnaire while 58.5% of them claimed that they always reported an incident when it occurred. As to the incidents provided by item 72, only 11.7% of them did not report the incident from the 12 types recorded. Victims from this particular sample showed a high rate of disclosure.

7.4.2.2. Group differences on disclosure. A Mann-Whitney test was performed to examine any potential difference in disclosure level between genders. The results show no significant difference between male and female participants on their level of reporting, discarding H_1 . The percentages within gender were very similar for all levels of reporting presented in the questionnaire for both genders. Men and women from this sample were equally reporting or not reporting an incident at work regardless of the type of incident.

7.4.2.3. Disclosure and interpersonal tendencies. Finally, Spearman correlations and Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to verify any relationships or differences between disclosure variables and scores on the FIRO-B components. No significant result was obtained for both types of analysis. However, when looking at the mean scores from the Mann-Whitney test, although not significant, it is possible to argue that participants who have reported experiencing incidents obtained higher scores on Socio-Emotional Affect and lower scores on both Control components compared to victims who did not report an incident. With the exception of the Expressed Control component, the other two components corroborate findings obtained within the whole sample ($N=1,868$).

7.4.3. Taxi drivers sample (N=47). In order to provide more information on taxi drivers' level of disclosure and the reasons behind it, correlation analyses were conducted to investigate any relationships between disclosure items and other variables as well as t-test analyses to verify if there are any differences between groups on their level of disclosure.

7.4.3.1. Descriptive statistics. Table 7.2 presents the percentages of participants on the different level of disclosure presented on the questionnaire. It can be seen that over half the participants never reported any incident when it happened. Only a very small percentage (4.3%) always reported incidents that occurred on work duty.

Table 7.2

Level of disclosure as a percentage

Level of disclosure	Percentage
It never happened	2.1
I never reported anything that did happen	51.1
Sometimes I reported it	29.8
Most times I reported it when it happened	4.3
I always reported when it happened	4.3
Missing value	8.5

7.4.3.2. Differences between groups on disclosure. To examine if certain variables have an impact on the decision to report it or not, Kendall tau correlation analysis was performed between incident, age, shift patterns, and years of experience variables and the disclosure variable. Results show a significant positive relationship between the disclosure variable and "Actual violence by a customer who seemed sober" (Kendall's tau $b=.458, p<.01$) and "Attack on the streets by a stranger" (Kendall's tau $b=.279,$

$p < .05$). Although these correlations are between low and moderate, it does suggest that victims of these incidents are more likely to report it. Considering that being the victim of actual violence and attacks can be perceived as more serious or major than minor incidents such as verbal insults, these correlations support H₂, showing the indeed the perceived seriousness of the incident has a positive relationship with the level of disclosure.

Analyses were also conducted to test if there were any relationships between shift patterns, age, years of experience and disclosure. Both Kendall's tau correlations and Cramer's V were performed. No significant correlations were found between these variables and disclosure.

7.4.3.3. Disclosure and interpersonal tendencies. A significant positive relationship was found between Expressed Control and level of disclosure; Kendall's tau $b = .283, p < .05$. This implies that victims who present higher traits of dominance and control (Expressed Control) were also more likely to report an incident when it occurred. Although no other significant results were found between disclosure items and the remaining FIRO-B components, it seems that interpersonal personality traits might play a role in the decision process associated with crime disclosure.

7.4.3.4. Reasons behind disclosure. After answering if they reported the incident or not, participants were asked to provide the reasons behind their decision by choosing one or more reasons provided or by stating their own reason. In addition, when participants stated that they reported the incident, they were asked to provide to whom they reported it. Almost half of the participants (48.9%) who disclosed the incident stated having reported it to the police and 10.6% to a colleague. Figure 7.1 presents the percentage of participants by reasons for disclosing an incident. Not surprisingly, the

main reason participants gave for reporting the incident was because they perceived it as a crime, which links with reporting it to the police. Other reasons to report an incident which were added by some participants included: “wanting compensation” and “damage caused”.

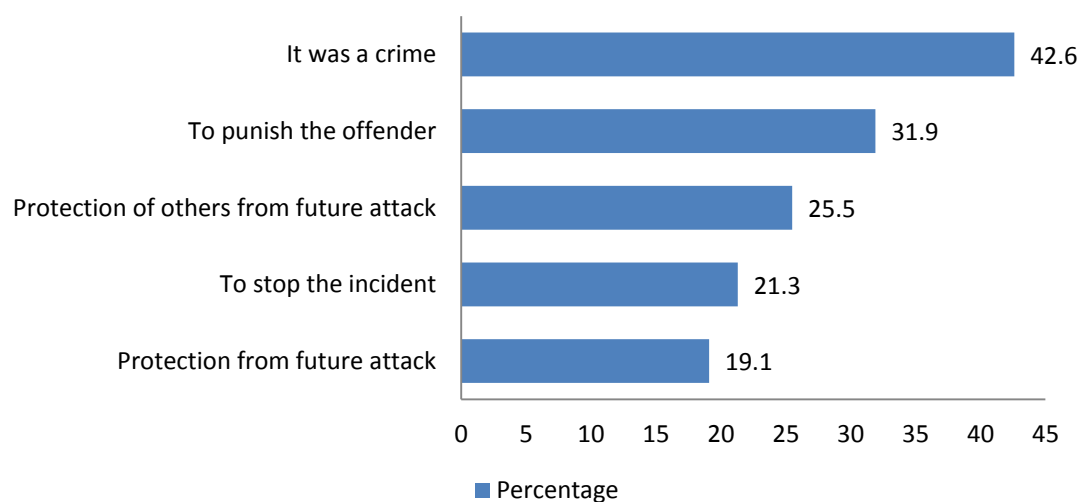


Figure 7.1. Percentage of participants by reasons for disclosing an incident

When participants stated that they did not report the incident, they were asked to provide the reasons behind it. Figure 7.2 presents the percentage of participants by reasons for not disclosing an incident. Over 40% of the participants expressed that they thought that the incident was not important enough to management or to the police for it to be reported. This corroborates earlier findings on victimisation and incident disclosure. Additionally, Content Analysis was performed on comments provided by some participants (10.6%) in regard to their reasons for not reporting any of the incidents that had happened during their shifts. These include: “Would lose money/time spent reporting”; “Taxi drivers’ don’t get help from police”; “Happens too frequently”; “Not worth the hassle. The police never do much to help”; and “Not serious enough to bother”. Again, this corroborates previous research findings

suggesting that the perceived seriousness of a crime and lost (money or time) affect the decision to disclose an incident.

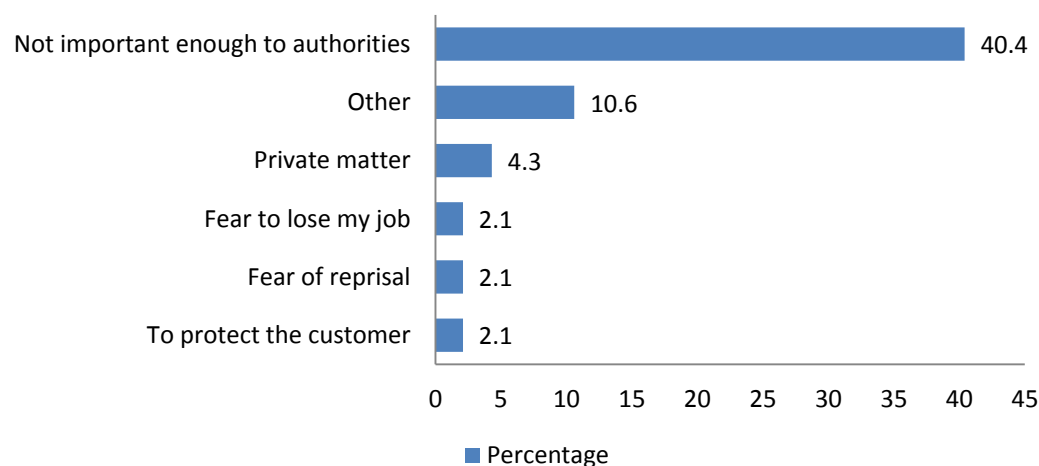


Figure 7.2. Percentage of participants by reasons for not disclosing an incident

7.5. Discussion

7.5.1. Loan sellers sample. In the case of the loan sellers sample, data were collected only on the level of disclosure of incidents that occurred during working duties. The majority of the loan sellers who experienced violence at work stated having reported the incidents in both the whole ($N=1,868$) and victim samples ($n=205$). However, no information on the person to whom they disclosed to was collected (e.g., colleagues, police) in the questionnaire. This specification was later added to the questionnaire with a British sample (see next section).

Based on the literature and statistics, female victims have a higher percentage of crime disclosure than male victims (Allen, 2007; Block, 1974; MacDonald, 2001; Skogan, 1976; 1984). Therefore, this study hypothesised that male victims will obtain a lower level of disclosure than their female counterparts (H_1). This hypothesis was only supported by results from the whole sample, where men obtained a slightly lower

percentage than women on the disclosure items. On the victim sample, no differences were found between the two groups. Again, due to the unequal number of male and female victims on both samples, further research is needed to replicate these analyses and verify the hypothesis.

Research on crime disclosure also suggests that the relationship victim/offender might have an influence on the decision to report or not report an incident. As explained in Chapter III, the relationship between workers and customers can be a difficult one to define. Some could say that a customer is a stranger to the worker as no intimate relationship is involved. However, it is possible to argue that regular customers might develop a certain relationship with workers, no longer seen as strangers. This suggests that the interaction offender/victim could have an effect on disclosure. Very little is known on intrapersonal characteristics and disclosure. Most studies have provided information on demographic differences such as genders or age groups but there is a gap in disclosure literature on personality's influence on reporting. Although no hypothesis could be suggested in regard to this possible relationship, this study has looked at the relationship between interpersonal personality traits and level of disclosure. While significant results were only found in the whole sample it seems that participants with higher traits of Received Control, submissive personality, tend not to report an incident compared to individuals with higher traits of dominance and socio-emotional affect. This suggests that certain type of personality might influence the victim's decision to report a crime or not. In this case, submissive victims at the workplace might also be seen as easily led by others in their decision making or intimidated by the offender. Once more, further research is needed in order to confirm the existence of a relationship between personality and crime disclosure.

7.5.2. Taxi drivers sample. As opposed to the loan sellers sample, over half of the taxi drivers stated never reporting an incident when it occurs. Despite its small sample size, the reasons provided for non-disclosure explain its high percentage.

Corroborating previous findings, participants who did not report an incident stated reasons related to police inaction, waste of time, and that the incident is not serious enough to be reported, which were all cited in previous studies (Barclay, 2003; Black, 1974; Bowls et al., 2009; Easteal and Wilson, 1991; Elsworth, 1997; Stenning, 1996). The latter, the perceived seriousness of the incident, seems to have a major impact on the decision to report a crime or not. Although participants who perceived the incident as not serious enough to be reported did not disclose it, participants who perceived the incident as a crime or as serious did report it to the authorities. This confirms H₂ and findings from Gottfredson and Gottfredson (1988) suggesting a positive relationship between the perceived seriousness of a crime and its disclosure. Effectively, significant correlations were found between level of disclosure and “Actual violence from a customer who seemed sober” and “Attack on the street by a stranger”. Both incidents were probably perceived as very serious by the victims as stranger attacks and assaults by customers who are not under the influence of any substance do not appear to have any explanations, more sudden assaults. In other words, when taxi drivers or people in general are assaulted by someone who is drunk, although they still report it, it is a common occurrence to blame alcohol as the source of conflict or as an excuse for the perpetrator’s behaviour. The more serious or major the crime was perceived by the victim (e.g. actual violence) higher was the level of reporting.

This implies that minor incidents such as verbal insults might be highly under-reported from taxi drivers or in the workplace in general. Although it may seem

routine, mostly if the perpetrator is under the influence of alcohol or drugs, verbal insults and arguments appear to be the source of violence according to the results from Couto et al. (2011). Their interviews with eight taxi drivers revealed that the main causes of violence at their work were arguments over fares, rudeness/disrespect, disdain for their job, and alcohol abuse. Likewise, the frequencies obtained in this research show that the most frequent incidents happened when the customer was under the influence of drugs or alcohol (see Figure 6.4 in Chapter VI). Therefore, it is possible to say that the under-reporting issues related to minor incidents such as verbal insults have to be addressed by taxi drivers, taxis companies, and the police as they are more likely to be the start of possible escalations to more major incidents.

Finally, the possible relationship between interpersonal tendencies and disclosure was examined. Similarly to the loan sellers sample, a positive significant correlation revealed that taxi drivers with high traits of dominance (high scores on Expressed Control) were more likely to report an incident than participants who scored lower on this component. However, no other relationship was found between the remaining FIRO-B components and disclosure items. These results, when combined with results from the loan seller samples, suggest that some interpersonal traits do have an influence on workplace violence disclosure. More research on the personality correlates of disclosure is needed in order to verify these findings and provide more empirical support to this hypothesis.

7.6. Conclusion

In summary, this research provided more data on workplace violence disclosure by looking at the level of disclosure of loan sellers and taxi drivers victims of violence from customers. As well as corroborating previous findings on genders differences and

on the association between the perceived seriousness of the crime and its disclosure, the present study took a different approach to workplace violence disclosure by looking at the victims' interpersonal tendencies. It has provided significant evidence of relationship between interpersonal tendencies and disclosure, offering a foundation for research on personality correlates of crime disclosure.

This study can have implications not only for research purposes but also for organisations involved and the police force for training, educative, and prevention purposes. By providing more information on workplace violence disclosure statistics, types of violence, incident (de)escalation and reasons for (not)reporting incidents, police forces and workers can be more aware of the situations and implement preventive strategies or attend training to help them decrease the level of violence experienced by their employees. Research has demonstrated that knowledge of statistics on taxi drivers' victimisation decreases the risk of victimisation (Schwer et al., 2010). Also, training on risk taking as proven to be effective in certain countries. A training opportunity was offered by American taxi regulatory body and taxi companies to taxi drivers showing how to refuse customers in cases when they do not feel comfortable picking them up. Schwer et al. (2010) found that for a period of 12 months 41% of taxi drivers had refused to pick up a customer, on average refusing six customers in that year. This study has therefore some implications for statistics but also for the implementation of training opportunities for taxi drivers and other population experiencing workplace violence.

Chapter VIII

Case studies: Taxi Drivers

This chapter presents data and interpretations of two interviews conducted with taxi drivers, with the purpose of providing more information on their own experience as a victim in the workplace. In order to enhance the data collected from the questionnaires and to offer further details on taxi drivers' victimisation, participants were asked to take part in a short interview where they were asked to talk about their own work experience and victimisation. Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was selected as the most appropriate qualitative approach for these case studies. Content Analysis was also performed to incorporate these data with previous findings from the quantitative part of the research by looking at recurrent themes and categories. Interpretations and limitations of the study are also discussed.

8.1. Theoretical framework

Headlines such as "Taxi driver assaulted by customer" and "Man attacked and robbed cab driver" attract attention, not only in the media, but also from social scientists. The severity and shocking nature of these cases surely increase this curiosity to examine them; however they are always extreme cases. Rarely would media and social researchers provide information on minor incidents such as verbal abuse and threats, even though they are considered as offences within the law. Furthermore, information on taxi drivers' victimisation is very descriptive, sometimes reporting the point of view of the victim, but most of the time being in the simple form of statistics and media articles. The lack of information on taxi drivers perception of violence, the actual interaction with the offender, and the elements leading to the escalation of the incident demonstrates a weakness in workplace victimisation literature. They are

crucial aspects of victimisation and essential to fully comprehend the phenomenon but also to offer training, prevention and educative programmes to help reduce the occurrence of workplace violence.

8.1.1. Victim's perception and understanding of workplace violence.

Unfortunately, victims of non-physical violence such as verbal abuse, threats, and harassment are often uncertain whether or not an offence has occurred or believe that there is little they can do. However, in the United Kingdom for instance there are laws in place to protect people against these types of offence. The Sections 4 "Fear and provocation of violence" and 4A "Intentional harassment, alarm or distress" of the Public Order Act 1986 are two good examples. Under section 4 of this act, a person is guilty of an offence if he:

- (a) uses towards another person threatening, abusive or insulting words or behaviour,*
- or*
- (b) distributes or displays to another person any writing, sign or other visible representation which is threatening, abusive or insulting,*
- with intent to cause that person to believe that immediate unlawful violence will be used against him or another by any person, or to provoke the immediate use of unlawful violence by that person or another, or whereby that person is likely to believe that such violence will be used or it is likely that such violence will be provoked. (Public Order Act, 1986)*

Similarly, under section 4A, a person is committing an offence if he:

- (a) uses threatening, abusive or insulting words or behaviour, or disorderly behaviour,*
- or*
- (b) displays any writing, sign or other visible representation which is threatening, abusive or insulting, thereby causing that or another person harassment, alarm or distress. (Public Order Act, 1986)*

As noted in previous chapters, the perceived seriousness of the crime is an essential element influencing the victim's decision process to report an offence (e.g. Gottfredson

and Gottfredson, 1988; Skogan, 1984). Moreover, whereas some workers do not consider verbal abuse and threat as an offence and others attribute these types of offence as just minor incidents which are “part of the job” (Scott et al., 2010), this perception is defined as highly subjective to the victim and can affect the decision to report an incident or not. Additionally, research has demonstrated that the perception of an offence also varies from patients to staff (Ireland, 2006; Newbill et al., 2010) and from one culture to another (Escartin et al., 2011). This implies variations in people’s perception of what workplace violence involves and also dissimilarities between cultures. The latter is analysed in further detail in the next chapter.

Perception of bullying was also questioned in Vie et al.’s (2010) study where they found that some people perceived themselves as bullied even if it was not considered bullying and vice versa. Although research has been conducted on this topic, researchers, just like in other areas of workplace violence, have concentrated their work mainly on bullying. Hence, more information is needed on worker’s perception and understanding of workplace violence and on different types of violence to fully understand victims’ reactions, level of disclosure, and to provide prevention strategies to reduce workplace victimisation.

8.1.2. Victims’ interaction/reaction. Similarly to victims’ perception of workplace violence, very little is known on the interaction between victim and offender and on the process leading to workplace incidents. Findings from Zapf and Gross’ (2001) study on workplace bullying did demonstrate that the victim’s reaction to conflict have an impact on the escalation of incidents. They showed that certain victims used conflict strategies which involved dominance and provocation, sometimes not being aware of their own

provocative behaviours. This implies that victim's interaction with the offender might have an impact on its outcome, which in some cases is victimisation.

According to Felson (2006), aversive stimuli might facilitate an aggressive response, but they are not instigators. However, it could be interesting to investigate how these aversive stimuli when mixed with interpersonal tendencies could play a role in the escalation of aggression. Take the example of a taxi driver who had a long stressful day and takes on board a drunk and loud passenger who realised that he does not have enough money to pay the taxi fare at the end of his journey. If the passenger starts arguing in an aggressive manner, the escalation to a violent argument or even assault might be provoked by the combination of the taxi drivers' interpersonal trends (reaction) and his frustration caused by his stress. The rationality of decision makers is particularly limited because violent encounters often involve quick decisions, strong emotions, and alcohol (Felson, 2006). Those who are in a hurry, drunk, and lacking self-control often fail to consider costs, morals, or alternative approaches. Similarly, those who are upset after experiencing aversive stimuli may also make careless or impulsive decisions.

Moreover, people often attempt to influence the behaviour of others by using persuasion, reward, threats, or even punishment. If considering aggression as a social influence tactic, sometimes used as a last resort and sometimes as a first resort, it is important to study what could be at the source of conflict and aggression. Arguments involve an interaction between at least two parties and a peaceful solution requires cooperation from both parts. Unfortunately, many studies on aggression ignore the central role of interpersonal conflict. Conflict is a ubiquitous aspect of social life and a major source of aggression and violence. For this reason the interaction/reaction of the

victim should be considered as a key factor influencing the risk of escalation. More research looking at the victim's account of the interaction, what happened before, during, and after conflict, is required in order to fully understand the possible influence that a victim might have on his/her own victimisation.

8.2. Current case studies

In the previous chapters, quantitative data were collected and analysed in order to provide empirical statistics on taxi drivers' victimisation from customers. Although this delivered further information on incident types and occurrence, on incident disclosure and the reasons behind it, and on taxi drivers' interpersonal tendencies, these findings cannot give further information on the interaction between the offender and the taxi driver, on the reasons behind the escalation, on the driver's immediate reaction, and mostly on the driver's perception of victimisation. In addition, several comments on reasons for not disclosing the incident and on other types of incident were included in the open questions from the questionnaire, stressing the need to explore in more detail aspects of taxi drivers' experiences of victimisation. Thus the current study aims to answer two main questions that could not be answered by the questionnaire:

- 1) What is the victim's experience and perception of victimisation?
- 2) What was the interaction between the offender and the victim at the time of the incident?

In addition to these questions, the current study also explores in deeper details qualitative answers from the questionnaire as well as recurrent themes from the interviews on the main topics of this research namely victimisation and crime disclosure.

8.3. Method

8.3.1. Sample and procedure. The decision to conduct interviews with taxi drivers came up after a first recruitment phase had already been conducted. Therefore, out of the 170 questionnaires distributed to taxi drivers, only 70 had an invitation letter to participate in a short interview. Participants were asked to provide their contact details and to detach it from the questionnaire and insert it with the consent form in the provided envelope. Out of 70, four participants provided their contact details, but only two agreed to participate in the interview process for a response rate of 2.9%. The sample consists of two case studies obtained by the process of semi-structured interviews with two British male taxi drivers in their 60s. The first interview lasted 40 minutes with a black cab driver with 30 year experience who was still varying his shift between day, evening, and night shifts but only on a part-time basis. The second interview was ten minutes long and the interviewee had 17 years of experience as a private taxi driver, used to work in evening and night shifts, but at the time of the interview was only doing day shifts. Semi-structured interviews were conducted asking roughly the same questions to both participants⁸. In both cases, the participant was informed about their rights to confidentiality and anonymity and the voluntary aspect of the study. They were also informed about their rights to skip any questions and to withdraw from the interview at any time.

8.3.2. Analysis. As mentioned in Chapter IV, Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was opted as the most accurate method to analyse case studies. This method analyses the original stories in the participants own words, thus providing an extensive perception of the victim's experience. Besides, Content Analysis was also

⁸ The interview schedule is presented in Appendix D

performed in order to connect results from the case studies to findings from the quantitative analysis conducted in the previous chapter. This method involves looking at recurrent themes and categories from the data to verify hypotheses and test current theories. In the case of this research project, theories and hypotheses on incident occurrence, incident disclosure and reasons behind disclosure mentioned in the previous chapter were examined through these two case studies.

The analysis of the interview transcripts consisted of four main steps:

- 1) Numerous close detailed readings of the data in order to obtain a holistic view so that future interpretations stayed grounded within the participant's version;
- 2) Preliminary themes were identified and organised into groups and checked against the data;
- 3) Themes were then refined and summarised, and examined for connections between them;
- 4) A narrative interpretation of the interaction between the interpretative analysis of the researcher and the participants' version of their experience in their own words was produced.

8.4. Results

Both participants were asked to discuss as generally as possible their experience as taxi drivers, about different incidents that they had experienced and about their collaboration with the police forces. Due to the difference in length between the two case studies, the first interview provided more details than the second one, allowing a more in depth analysis of the data. Nevertheless, both interviewees provided similar information which was examined using a Content Analysis approach. Three common themes surfaced from their accounts: Perception and occurrence of incidents, Reasons for not contacting the police and Reasons behind violence.

8.4.1. Case study 1. The first participant (P1) had 30 years of experience as a black cab driver. At the time of the interview, he was working only on a part-time basis, but still worked both week days and weekends and did day, evening, and night shifts. His account revealed various aspects of his perception of the taxi driver profession with the most recurrent themes being Enjoyment, Pleasing the customer, and Feeling of disrespect and injustice. As to his experience of victimisation and interaction with customers, his account can be summarised by the following themes: Risk taking and Escalation, De-escalation strategies, and Normality.

8.4.1.1. Enjoyment. When asked if he has experienced any incident or violence from customers during his 30 year as a cab driver, P1 did discuss a few incidents of verbal abuse and gave examples of other taxi drivers experiences, but despite his misfortunes, P1's summary of his career was very positive:

“But I’ve been very fortunate. I’ve never, again touch wood, I’ve never had an extremely serious incident.”

On several occasions during the interview P1 has voiced his enjoyment for his job with expressions such as *“It’s brilliant. I’ve loved it. I’ve absolutely loved it”*. The interaction with the customers and the variety of individuals that he has the opportunity to work with appeared to be a very positive aspect of his profession to him.

“It’s great! And everybody’s an individual, everybody’s different. There’re very few people that are, or you can say oh he belongs to this particular group, or everybody has their little quirk, everybody has their thing. It’s brilliant.”

“Because the things that are been told, when you are sitting looking at the back of somebody’s head, it’s like being in the confessional.”

“And I enjoy people. I enjoy being around people, I enjoy people’s company. I enjoy the interaction with people.”

8.4.1.2. Pleasing the customer. Although he perceived his job as pleasant and interesting due to the interactions that he has with the customers, his perception of the main duties showed an opposite point of view of his clientele. When discussing his work duties, the majority of P1's statements related to pleasing the customer and how the taxi trade is customer service orientated, almost contradicting his statements of pleasant social interactions.

"[...] it's a question again for me to be as fast as possible, as cheap as possible, it's not a sort of social experience."

"Everything, everything to do with the taxi is about the customer and it's, and all the rules that concern, all the rules to protect us, but everything that's concerned in the taxi trade is about the customer. Customer's safety, customer's comfort, courtesy to the customer [...]"

Even when discussing the safety aspect of the job, such as the use of partition in the taxis, P1 described it as part of the customer service.

"The partition is not there to protect me from you, the partition is there to protect you from me. Customer service that's right! Aye! That's it. It's a customer service. It's nothing to do with protecting the driver from the public it's to protect the public from the driver."

Subsequently, although he expressed enjoying the interactions with customers, his point of view on the taxi trade, on the implementation of rules and accessories for health and safety, and on his work duties appears almost to revive bitter feeling about customer service. Perhaps this aspect of the profession, as often put as "the customer is always right", is at the source of stress, resentment, and even conflicts amongst taxi drivers and customers.

8.4.1.3. Feeling of disrespect and injustice. Other elements at the source of conflict between two individuals are disrespectful behaviours and feeling of injustice. P1 has

experienced negative attitudes in regard to his profession as he stated on many occasions, either by disrespectful comments from customers or his perception of others judging his job and his integrity.

“[...]people think that you have no integrity and that you can be bought [...]that you’re not better than a whore, because you’re driving a taxi, and that bothers me.”

“[impression of customer] You’re rubbish at this. Taxi driver, you’re just a wanker! [...]I do this and I do the next thing, I do whatever I do, but you...you’re just sitting there.”

“You’re not a person you’re just a taxi driver.”

It’s perception of unjust, judgemental and disrespectful attitudes towards him and his job was brought up regularly during the interview. It appeared not only to affect P1 on his perception of customers but also seemed to be the instigator of conflicts between him and them. So although he acknowledged a positive aspect of his profession, which is the interaction with a variety of people, this element also appears to cause detriment to his pride and integrity as a taxi driver. While these negative experiences can be very hurtful and frustrating, his overall interaction with the customer appeared very positive, as he puts it: *“But I had more funny experiences than violence.”*

8.4.1.4. Risk taking and escalation. When talking about these incidents with customers, P1 did provide examples of verbal abuse with customers or other incidents from the experience of colleagues. When asked about the causes of incidents and when providing examples of negative experiences with customers, P1 pointed out certain elements that could provoke or escalate the incident. For instance, he spoke about how he sometimes dealt with customers his own way.

“I have to say that I’ve, for my sins; I’ve been as violent to the punters as the punters have been to me. And, I’ve given as good as I’ve got verbally.”

“[...] get out of the taxi and you stand at the front of them [...] that’s how it goes or at the time it ends up going on the pavement and you’re kicking and swearing at each other for a bit.”

He also brought up how the taxi drivers’ reaction and certain decisions could put them at risk of getting in trouble.

“And I’ve got to say, you get one thing with other people who have thinner skin than I who would take insults personally. I could think of a couple of guys who would make trouble for themselves, because they thought [pause] humility’s the wrong word [pause] and being humble is the wrong word, but they don’t have the, they don’t have the sense not to hassle back.”

“There’s an awful lot of greedy guys in the trade who would take absolutely anybody as long as they’ve got a pound in their hand [...] they’ll take the risk.”

He also mentioned several times how alcohol affects customers and can be at the source of disagreement and conflicts. One example is when he compared how years ago intoxicated men were asked to go home by bar staff if heavily under the influence, but how today’s bar businesses keep providing alcohol to inebriated people who then take taxis and give some hassle to the drivers. In P1’s point of view, alcohol causes many arguments.

“Nowadays, it seems to be the case of you’ve still got money in your hand we’ll serve you [...] that spills over the taxi.”

8.4.1.5. De-escalation strategies. As well as discussing what could cause incidents to occur, P1 also explained how he usually deals with customers who are on the edge of starting an argument. According to his account, his own experiences with argumentative customers were de-escalated by using some humour or by agreeing with them.

“If someone’s agreeing with you they cannot have an argument.”

“I can use humour as a thing and what I do I use the football analogy you know.”

In relation to alcohol, P1 also admitted that although they might often cause conflict, he tries to look at the full picture, at the whole circumstances behind the situation in order to take a step back and react with a clear head instead of impulsivity.

“But I always try to separate the person from, the person who is rather than the person has become because of alcohol.”

8.4.1.6. Normality. Finally, P1’s account of incidents with customers was presented with a certain sense of normality, like a routine which he is used to or like other employees said in previous studies “part of the job”.

“It’s just one of these jobs.”

“It gets to the point that it is water over a duck’s back.”

“[...] but 9 times out of 10 it’s just shouting at people, just shouting at me, because it’s only words. Words, words can hurt at the time but they’re not causing you any physical violence.”

All these expressions demonstrate how it appears regular and normal in P1’s opinion that incidents, mostly verbal abuse, occur during his shift. The latest showing how he perceived verbal abuse as not as hurtful and destructive than physical harm. Finally, concerning physical violence, he explained how taxi drivers look after each other and would come to help one in distress. And again, the expressions used relate to be a part of the job.

“And it was the nature of the beast; it was the nature of the job that we’d looked after each other.”

8.4.2. Case study 2. As previously mentioned the second interview was considerably shorter and therefore contained fewer details. This could be explained by

the participant's circumstances. The second participant (P2) had 17 years of experience as a private taxi driver. Although he used to work evening and night shifts, at the time of the interview he was working only day shifts for a contract taxi company with regular customers. This might explain why he seemed to have experienced fewer incidents or misadventures than the first participant. Putting aside his description of experiencing incidents and his reasons for not contacting the police, his account clustered around two main topics: his perception of the safety elements of his profession and its customer service, more particularly his non-judgemental attitude towards customers.

8.4.2.1. Safety. While talking about incidents at work, the topic of safety procedures was brought up on a few occasions. According to P2's account, they appear to have a good system in place when serious assaults occur to a taxi driver.

"If it's a serious assault the police would be there right away. There's a system [pause] if a driver has been assaulted you just press an emergency button on the screen that we've got on our cab."

However, he also shared his point of view on the black cabs and their partitions which appeared much safer to him than using his own car as he was doing at the time of the interview.

"Black cabs are definitely best for working these days"

"I had a black cab I would work in the evenings, because there's a lock in the back and there's a partition between us."

It seems that, although they have procedure in place, P2 perceives the black cabs as more secure and safer than using his actual car. Although he explained that he is now working days because of the regular customers, contract taxis, and his willingness to get up early, his perception of evening and night shifts and the fact that he suggested

that black cabs would be safer for those shifts revealed a sense of feeling safer during the day and avoiding nuisance.

“I used to work nightshift years ago and that’s when you get the majority of trouble working nights.”

“If I had a black cab I would work in the evenings, because there’s a lock in the back and there’s a partition between us so, uh, they can’t get out unless they pay their fares and if there’s any trouble in the back of the taxi you just drive them to the police station.”

8.4.2.2. Non-judgemental attitude. In addition to the safety aspect of his profession, P2’s account revealed an element of confidentiality and respect for the privacy of the customers and their circumstances. When explaining about certain types of customers who have chaotic lifestyles, P2 did show a non-judgemental attitude and understanding towards their circumstances and explained that he still treats them as customers, no matter what.

“[...] but they’re drug addicts. They’re doing it for money for drugs. They work just for habits, for money drugs. It’s the only way they can get money.”

“[...] you’re a customer with a private life, you know.”

“I mean there’s a lot of drug people during the day. Going buying drugs. Well, you know what they’re doing, they’re buying drugs, but at the end of the day you can’t do anything, you know.”

In sum, P2’s account of his experience as a taxi driver revealed his need for safety and security and his respect for customers’ privacy. However, he seemed to acknowledge the differences on safety elements between his current work pattern (day shift) and his previous one (evening shift) even though he did not particularly experienced serious incidents, according to his account. He appeared to be more comfortable to work during the day with regular customers and contract taxis. In addition, his statements on customers’ privacy and lifestyles almost reveal a certain

aspect of powerlessness, having no choice to accept them as customers and get on with his job. Once more, this might be due to the “part of the job” and “the customer is always right” aspects of working with the public.

8.4.3. Content analysis. To allow the comparison of the data from the interviews with the data collected with the questionnaires, a Content Analysis was performed in order to explore the recurrent themes and categories revealed in both participants’ accounts and to test previous findings. Their common experience as taxi drivers clustered around three main themes: Perception and occurrence of incidents, Reasons behind not getting the police involved, and Reasons behind escalation (incidents). These themes were then compared with the quantitative data from the questionnaires.

8.4.3.1. Perception and occurrence of incidents. Consistent with the literature and previous findings from the last chapter and earlier studies, verbal abuse appeared to be the most frequent form of workplace violence experienced by both participants.

“Maybe a lot of verbal abuse from guys in the taxi.”

“One seriously verbal [...] a bit of an argybargy”

“But a lot of drivers give you a lot of grief. [pause] you get verbal abuse from other drivers.”

“[...] verbal abuse, it gets to the point that it is water over a duck’s back.”

“[...] then he started swearing.”

“[...] just shouting at people, just shouting at me, because it’s only words. Words, words can hurt at the time but they’re not causing you any physical violence.”

Despite being recognised as an offence by the law, their attitude of habituation towards verbal abuse demonstrates a different perception of this form of violence. As the latter statement reveals, it seems to be perceived less seriously than physical

violence to not worth doing anything about. Other incidents were mentioned, either from their own experience or from colleagues, such as physical threat, actual violence, theft, and inappropriate sexual propositions.

“And I’ve had...if you guy gets pulled out of the car, you know that stuff, but it’s mostly hands, it’s mostly shaking fists and shouting [...]”

“I’ve had a couple, I’ve had, I think there was one guy who tried to get the door open and, the thing is I just drove away.”

“I was involved in an incident with a guy with a knife and the person that he was trying to assault, [laugh] unfortunately for him, was an ex-policeman, a retired policeman, who didn’t panic. [...] He shouted out for help and we all came in.”

“I’ve had the odd person who ran away, not paying the fare.”

“[...] propositions by young ladies, propositions by young men.”

“[...] the girls, or the ladies of the night like we call them, they’ll get in to the taxi and ask to drive where they’re working and sometimes they’ll say “do you want to be my first customer tonight?”

These results support previous findings on incident occurrence with verbal abuse being the most frequent incident. However, when compared with other types of incidents provided by other taxi drivers in the open questions in the questionnaires, their accounts did not contain any statement about kicking the taxi which was mentioned three times out of five in the questionnaire. Perhaps they did not perceive it as a form of intimidation and violence. Once again, the perception of seriousness of the crime seems to be a crucial factor influencing victims’ disclosure rate.

8.4.3.2. Reasons for not contacting the police. During the interviews, participants were asked to elaborate on their experience with the police and the reasons why they

did or did not contact them when incidents occurred. With the exception of major incidents with fear of or involving physical violence, they seemed to agree that police should not be contacted for minor incidents. Their main reasons could be divided in three categories: Waste of time, Not serious enough, and Attitude towards the police.

Waste of time:

“You’ll talk to drivers and with incidents the time that you call the police, police take ages to arrive and that’s maybe an hour or two, not worth it.”

“[...] they (the police) will never get him anyway. So it’s just the police waste of time.”

“That’s right, by the time they get there.”

Not serious enough:

“[...] they (the police) will devote all their energy to serious crimes, but we’re not serious crime. That’s it, you know, that’s [pause] a taxi driver having a fight you know it’s not a serious crime or unless you kill somebody.”

“You’ll never phone the police for something worth only five to six quid”

Attitude towards the police:

“I honestly think that it’s because they’ve got so much going on.”

“Because if you get the police involved you have to follow the due process of law [...]”

“We spoke about getting the police involved [...] and I didn’t want to have any violence in front of his wife and his child, so I was wanting the police to come and the police never came.”

“And funny enough, more cooperation from the police about people smoking in the taxi that I ever get for being, you know, [pause] verbal abuse that are violent.”

These reasons are very similar to what was answered in the questionnaire, both in the quantitative and qualitative sections with over 50% of the participants who claim not having reported an incident when it occurred and over 40% stating “not serious enough” as the main reason behind it. As to the open questions, similar answers were given: “Would lose money/time spent reporting”; “Not serious enough to bother”; “Not worth the hassle”; “Happens too frequently”; “Taxi driver don’t get help from police”; and “The police never do much to help”. Once again, the seriousness of the crime dominates the reason behind low crime disclosure. Furthermore, the last three comments from the questionnaire support the interviewees’ accounts on the routine aspect of certain incidents and on their attitudes towards police’s help. The latter could have a massive impact on police forces’ duty and collaboration to tackle crime.

8.4.3.3. Reasons behind escalation (incidents). Finally, participants provided information on their perception of the source of violence: how it might start; circumstances prompting it; and behaviours that might provoke it. One of the main risk factors according to both participants is the use of alcohol on the part of the customer.

“Out of state drunk, you know the almost psychotic drunk.”

“And again, that spills over the taxi thing because you’re dealing with people who are, just beyond, you know, they’re on their feet but they’re not conscious.”

“And again, to go back to the alcohol thing, an awful lot of people they absolutely mean it when they’re saying it but technically they don’t mean it because it’s the alcohol it’s not them.”

“When they’re drunk. I used to work nightshift years ago and that’s when you get the majority of trouble working nights.”

“They’re drunk and they haven’t got a clue.”

Another source of violence between customers and taxi drivers in their point of view is arguments. According to their accounts, many reasons can be the cause of an argument, but the argument itself remains the main factor.

“[...]it’s a question again for me to be as fast as possible, as cheap as possible, it’s not a sort of social experience. So subsequently if you choose the wrong route it’s...[impression of angry customer]”

“But the amounts of arguments and verbal abuse that I got about the smoking thing was more than I’ve ever had about anything else.”

“There are a number of causes, the fare and not understanding.”

“I think the fare was about four pounds fifty, something like that, and he produced a fifty pound note. Of course I didn’t have change, I couldn’t change it, and that went to a bit of a [pause] a bit of an argybagy [...] we were stopping to his house and if I didn’t have any change it was my problem.”

“ [...] then he started swearing. I just said “be quiet”. I stopped the taxi. He wouldn’t get out of the taxi, so I talked to him and he left.”

Disagreement about the route, dispute about the fare, unsatisfied customer, and mostly misbehaviour due to the influence of alcohol seem to be at the heart of arguments which could then escalate into incidents. Corroborating findings from the quantitative analysis, violence from customers under the influence of alcohol and/or drugs appears to be the most frequent source of incidents, with participants having experienced at least once verbal abuse (100%), physical threat (96%), sexual harassment (51%), or even actual violence (81%) from inebriated customers.

8.5. Discussion

Both analyses revealed various elements of taxi drivers' perception of their profession that are common with what was previously enumerated in the literature. These elements enhanced previous analyses on workplace victimisation and workplace violence disclosure. Elements such as safety characteristics and sources of violence relate to the victims' own experience of victimisation, while perception of workplace violence and reasons behind (under)reporting are associated with workplace disclosure.

8.5.1. Victimisation

8.5.1.1. Safety. The IPA on both accounts showed a prominence to the safety aspect of their job. As participants were using two different types of car to carry out their job, two different opinions on safety and security were provided. While one promoted the safety and security of black cabs with the use of locked doors and partitions and emphasised its protective features for evening and night shifts, the other using this type of car disagreed on its safety feature for drivers. He was confident that all these procedures were provided for the protection of the customers rather than the drivers'. Although differing on their opinion, both brought up the safety issue of their profession which again corroborates previous findings stating that lack of security is one of the main triggers of violence (Couto et al., 2011).

8.5.1.2. Escalation of violence. In regard to the interaction with the offender, the analysis provided information on sources of escalation but also on de-escalation strategies used by taxi drivers when dealing with an argumentative customer. The main risk factors of escalation cited in the case studies relate to risk taking and provocative reactions from the driver's part. Risk taking such as picking up "dodgy" customers or working in unsafe areas increases risks of being victimised. Contrasting with the

results from Couto et al., (2011), findings from this study show an acknowledgement that taxi drivers still take some risks.

In regard to the reaction and interaction with the offender, although not specifically inquired, results from the analysis demonstrate provocative behaviours (perhaps unintentional) from the taxi drivers' part towards argumentative customers. Reactions such as stopping the car and asking the customer to leave, stepping out of the car, shouting back at them, and taking insults personally are all negative and provocative behaviours that could then increase the risk of escalation to violent incidents (Zapf and Gross, 2001). Of all circumstances at the heart of violence, the use of alcohol or any other substance from the customer was by far the most frequently cited source of argument and aggression. Other sources are arguments initiated by disagreement on the fare, disrespectful behaviours such as shouting and swearing at the driver, and disdain for the driver's job which attacks his/her dignity and integrity, which were all mentioned by the eight taxi drivers interviewed by Couto et al. (2011).

Referring back to the previous findings from the prior chapters and other studies, certain types of interpersonal personality traits such as dominance have a significant relationship with violent incident at work (e.g. Aquino et al., 1999). Answers from both interviews did present certain traits of being or wanting to be in control of the situation from the taxi drivers part with descriptions of behaviours such as telling the customer to "shut up" or getting out of the taxi to get the customer out. Although the results from the FIRO-B scale could not be linked with the interview due to confidentiality policy, it seems that being in control or dominant plays a part in the possible escalation of violence. This would provide support to the victim precipitation

theory, again without any intention to blame the victim, which refers to the victim's role (active/passive) in his/her victimisation (e.g. Doerner and Lab, 2012).

8.5.1.3. Customer service. The customer-orientated element of their profession, although presented with more resentment from one participant compared to the other, is a dominant aspect in their day to day duty. Obviously by working with the public and providing a customer service this is not surprising, however their explanation of how they have to accept its negative elements just to "please" the customer supports previous statements from other workers who used expressions such as "part of the job" and "the customer is always right" (Scott et al., 2010; Waddington et al., 2006). Indeed, both accounts illustrated customer service as an obligation to make sure that the customer is satisfied, whatever it takes even though it involves dishonest manoeuvres such as doing a U-turn on a one-way street or providing a service being aware that there are illegal activities involved (e.g. buying drugs). This most possibly adds stress and problems for taxi drivers which could then increase the amount of aversive stimuli to their work, consequently putting them at risk of impulsive reactions to negative behaviours from customers as proposed by Felson (2006).

8.5.2. Disclosure: Reasons behind under-reporting

8.5.2.1. De-escalation and communality. As mentioned earlier on this research, the relationship between workers and customers has a tacit agreement of respect, politeness, and trust, to a certain degree, which when broken can provoke conflicts. In addition, despite the broken argument from the customer, some workers might feel obliged to preserve the relationship for either professional (e.g. customer service) or personal reasons (e.g. fear of losing job).

In order to maintain that relationship, some workers use de-escalation strategies to end the argument. Results from this study demonstrate three types of de-escalation strategies. On one side, there is the agreement with what the customer is saying. As put by P1, if the taxi driver agrees with the customer, there is no more space for arguments. A second strategy is the use of humour to lighten up the situation. This supports Zapf and Gross' (2001) findings demonstrating that constructive problem-solving and avoidance of the escalation of the incident helps victims to successfully cope with incidents. The final de-escalation strategy can be described as the recognition of the offender's circumstances. Again, this supports the idea mentioned in Zapf and Gross (2001) that recognising the potential escalation of the incident and avoiding it results in successful coping of the situation. Recognising signs such as the influence of alcohol or the state of mind of the customer (e.g. seemed nervous or angry the moment he jumped in) could decrease the risk of impulsivity from the driver if looking at the full picture and not taking any negative attitude too personally.

Perhaps by using these de-escalation strategies taxi drivers do not feel the need to report any offence to the police, however the results show several reasons why taxi drivers do get the police involved. Reasons such as being a waste of time, fear of being blamed, not knowing the offender's whereabouts and negative attitudes towards their collaboration with the police were brought up during the interviews and on the open questions from the questionnaires, which are consistent with the literature (Easteal and Wilson 1991; Elsworth, 1997; Stenning 1996). But the most popular reason from both qualitative and quantitative analyses was due to the perceived seriousness of the offence, as the majority of drivers (including the two interviewees) admitted perceiving the offence as not serious enough to be reported. Again, this supports several studies

which looked at reasons behind crime disclosure and argue that the perceived seriousness of an offence is one of the most influential aspect on the victim's decision to report or not (e.g. Cohn et al., 2013; Gottfredson and Gottfredson, 1988; Skogan, 1984).

8.5.2.2. Perceived seriousness. Studies show that the perceived definition of workplace violence, in most cases bullying, varies between workers and between cultures (Escartin et al., 2011; Ireland, 2006; Scott et al., 2010). Their findings show that certain workers perceive workplace victimisation as only physical violence, whereas others define bullying as containing only psychological violence. Results from both the IPA and the Content Analysis show similar interpretation of violence. Although admitting the high incidence of verbal abuse towards them, both participants provided statements implying its regularity and commonality that almost diminished its seriousness. By perceiving offences as common and to certain level excluding them from being offences, taxi drivers and other workers might be victimised without awareness of it. The definition and perception of what is included in workplace violence is a crucial aspect of the perceived seriousness of the offence.

8.5.2.3. Self-blame. As the fear of being blamed also appears as one of the reason for under-reporting crime, it is possible to suggest that the victim's reaction/interaction with the offender would affect his/her perception of self-blame. In a study of 155 female victims of sexual offences, it was revealed that most victims self-blame, that the incident occurred because of their behaviours or character somewhat (Ullman, 1996). Victims' behaviours during the offence vary from being totally submissive (frozen) to showing resistance to the offender (fight back). Hypothetically, these reactions can also be influenced by the victim's interpersonal tendencies. For instance, an individual

presenting high traits of dominance might not want to surrender to the offender and therefore might show resistance. In the case of the taxi drivers from this study, wanting to keep control of the situation by shouting back or provoking a fight on the pavement might be perceived as provocative; therefore the victim might have blamed himself for some part of the incident and would not want to report it. Again, the victim's perception of his/her own blame in regard to their reaction during the offence is entirely subjective, but it remains a potential factor influencing their decision to report it. Combined together with the perceived seriousness of the crime, these two elements, which relate only to the victim's own perception, affect disclosure rate and consequently their own work, crime statistics, and police work.

8.6 Summary and limitations

This study aimed to provide in depth information on taxi drivers' own experience of workplace violence by analysing two case studies. Information and themes unveiled by the analysis offered support to previous findings from the literature and corroborated results from the quantitative study conducted in the previous chapter as well as providing new information on de-escalation strategies and interaction with the offender. The results from this study could have practical implication on prevention, training, and educative purposes, as well as having an impact on crime statistics and police forces collaboration with victims. On the academic point of view, these results provide new avenues to be examined by future research on workplace victimisation, particularly on victim-offender interaction and escalation. These implications will be discussed in Chapter X. This study is not without limitations. Its main weakness is evidently its small sample size. Although the IPA approach is known to be used for case studies with a very small sample and aims to interpret the original experience from the

participant, the present sample cannot be representative of the taxi drivers' population. Despite their similarities and consistency with previous findings from bigger samples, a larger sample would enhance the results. The low response rate might be explained by the reluctance to discuss traumatic experiences which could bring back undesirable feelings and memories, the unwillingness to spare 10 to 20 minutes of their time after the completing the questionnaire which already took some time, or just the feeling that the incidents experienced were not serious enough to be discussed. Therefore, this study can be seen as an exploratory study with the hope that further research using interviews with larger sample of taxi drivers and other types of profession would be conducted in order to provide more information on the victims' own experiences of and similarities on workplace violence.

Chapter IX

Workplace Victimization- A comparison of the samples

This chapter looks at possible differences on workplace victimisation and workplace disclosure by comparing the answers of participants from samples derived from the last two studies: British taxi drivers and Polish loan sellers. Analyses such as correlations, SSA-I, and t-tests are performed to verify the hypotheses. This exploratory study aims to investigate the effect of occupation and other factors on victimisation and crime disclosure and therefore to offer further data for future research on this topic. Results and limitations are also discussed.

9.1. Theoretical framework

Studies on victimisation and crime disclosure have compared samples by looking at a variety of factors such as gender (e.g. Chappel and Di Martino, 2000; Davis et al., 2010), age (e.g. Bosick, et al., 2012; Chappel and Di Martino, 2006), occupation (e.g. Leblanc and Kelloway, 2002; Whitmore and Kleiner, 1999) and culture (e.g. Back et al., 2003; Hussain and Khan, 2008; Mueller et al., 2009). Differences between genders and age have already been mentioned and analysed in the previous chapters, so more attention is paid on the differences between cultures and occupations which might be influencing differences between the present samples.

9.1.1. Victimization.

9.1.1.1. Occupational differences and victimisation. As presented in Table 2.7. in Chapter II, some particular occupations are more at risk of victimisation at the workplace such as police officers, prison officers, taxi drivers, and mental health workers to name but a few. Previous studies examining workplace violence have

stressed the importance of situational or occupational factors as main risk factors of victimisation. Again, this was thoroughly discussed in Chapter II.

9.1.1.2. Cultural differences and victimisation. Although no culture is homogenous, each one comprising individuals with different religious, ethnical, educational, and economical backgrounds, there is still empirical evidence suggesting that cultures shape the interpersonal developments of their followers (Mueller et al., 2009). As mentioned in Chapter II, several crime victim surveys are conducted all around the world offering cross-cultural statistics on the phenomenon. One example is the review from Chappell and Di Martino (2000) which presented dissimilarities between countries on workplace violence (see Table 2.3 for more details). Similarly, the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) found significant differences in prevalence of workplace incidents between 31 European countries (see Chapter II and Parent-Thirion et al., 2007 for more details). For instance the survey found that the percentage of bullying largely varied between countries, ranging from 17% in Finland and 12% in the Netherlands to 2% in Italy and Bulgaria. Similarly, van dijk and colleagues (2007) have found major differences between countries on victimisation and level of disclosure (see Chapter II for more details). Rates of assaults for instance appeared to be much higher northern European countries than in southern ones. As to disclosure, rates really varied from one country to another. This topic is discussed later in this chapter.

Differences and similarities between cultures were also analysed in regard to bullying at the workplace. Escartin and colleagues (2011) found differences between 120 Costa Rican employees and 126 Spanish employees on their definition and perception of bullying. Although the whole sample defined bullying as only

psychological (80%), when separated culturally, their results showed that 30% of the Costa Rican employees included physical aspects in their definition of bullying compared to only 10% of the Spanish employees. Significant differences were also found on the direction of the offence, Costa Rican employees perceiving it as coming from supervisors compared to Spanish employees who also included between co-workers violence in their view.

9.1.2. Disclosure

9.1.2.1. Occupational differences and crime disclosure. In regard to workplace violence disclosure, very little is known on possible occupational differences on disclosure rates. Studies which examined the topic of workplace disclosure either looked at one specific profession such as farmers (e.g. Barclay, 2003) and taxi drivers (see Chapter VII) or provided general information on the whole sample, neglecting to examine differences between the occupations present in their samples.

9.1.2.2. Cultural differences and crime disclosure. As mentioned in previous chapters, crime disclosure can be influenced by various factors such as reasons behind its decision process, personal characteristics, and the perceived seriousness of the crime. An additional element that might have an impact on crime disclosure is the victim's cultural background. As presented in Chapter II, level of disclosure and the reasons behind can be highly influenced by the victim's cultural background (Back et al., 2003; Montalvo-Liendo, 2009; Smith and Bond, 1998; Yamawaki, 2007). The same factors influencing reporting can change from one culture to another. For instance, as some authors suggested, certain social norms might condemned the victim to stay quiet (Hussain and Khan, 2008). The percentage of disclosure from one country to another also shows important variations (van Dijk et al., 2007).

9.1.3. Interpersonal tendencies.

9.1.3.1. Cultural differences and individuals characteristics. As mentioned in Chapter III, research has shown differences on individual personality traits between cultures. People's reaction to certain situations can be highly influence by cultural values as demonstrated in previous studies (Kim et al., 2008; Schwart and Bardi, 1997). Kim and colleagues (2008) found differences between Western and Eastern cultures on the problem-solving mechanisms during work conflicts which relates on their reactions when facing the conflict. In addition, various cross-cultural studies have been conducted using the FIRO scale. In general, results have shown differences on the FIRO dimensions and SII scores between various cultures such as North Americans vs Non North Americans (Bayou et al., 2006) and Asians vs Americans (Siegel and Miller, 2010). These studies provide empirical support on the effects of cultural background on someone's personality traits and interactions with others.

9.2. Current study

This study investigates differences between the two samples on the two main topics from this research: victimisation and crime disclosure. More particularly, it examines any differences on relationship between interpersonal tendencies and victimisation and crime disclosure. To achieve this, variables such as types of incidents and their occurrence, interpersonal trends, and level of disclosure are subjected to analyses between two comparable samples representing two different occupations from two different countries.

However, it is important to bear in mind that the two samples offer differences not only on their occupation and country of origin but also on other variables such as their gender ratio and age groups. Therefore, although inclusion criteria were used to define

similar samples derived from each of the main samples, the results from this pilot study should be interpreted cautiously. Despite the great amount of research conducted on these topics, most research focuses on the differences between Western countries such as the United States or Western European countries and Eastern countries from Asia such as India, Japan, and China. Very little is known on differences between Eastern and Western European countries and few studies have looked at occupational differences on workplace victimisation and disclosure. This study aims to examine possible differences between the samples and to provide possible explanations.

9.3. Methods

9.3.1. Sample. In order to provide two comparable samples for the analysis, only male victims from the Polish loan sellers sample ($N=1868$) were included, for a sample of 56 Polish male victims. They were compared with the male victims from the British taxi drivers sample ($N=47$) who fully completed the FIRO-B scale ($n=40$) for a total of 96 male victims all together. On average victims were in their 40s with 52% of the participants being between 30 and 49 years old. Over half of the sample (51%) had obtained up to a high school level qualification. On average, participants from both samples have been working for their organisation for five to six years. However, within the British sample almost 50% of them have worked for over 11 years.

9.3.2. Procedure. The samples were selected in order to be comparable. As the British sample was already smaller in size ($N=47$) and was composed of male victims in over 90%, the Polish sample was selected following these criteria. Therefore, only male victims and only victims of at least one incident were selected from the Polish sample for a total of 56 participants meeting the criteria. A precise selection of common variables was also conducted, excluding variables that were not mutual to

both samples or with missing values. In order to test the hypotheses, common incident variables, disclosure variables, the FIRO-B raw data, Schutz's dimensions and SII, and the new FIRO-B components were selected from the previous datasets and combined to form a new dataset.

9.3.3. Analyses. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality was conducted on all variables and the present sample was found to be significantly different from the normal population and therefore the data were not considered normally distributed. Thus, nonparametric methods were used for the analyses. To verify any cultural differences, t-tests and chi-square analyses were conducted. To replicate previous studies and verify their findings, the use of Schutz's original dimensions as well as the dimension of Warmth and SII scores was added to the analyses. However, due to the lack of empirical evidence validating Schutz's dimensions and coding framework, analyses were also conducted on the new proposed FIRO-B components (see Chapter V). SPSS software was used to perform these analyses.

9.4. Results

9.4.1. Differences between samples on interpersonal trends. A Mann-Whitney analysis revealed significant differences between the British and the Polish victims on several interpersonal tendency variables. Table 9.1 presents the significant results. Consistent with previous studies, the British participants obtained significant higher scores on Schutz's Received Control. However, no significant differences were found for Total Warmth or for SII scores. Actually, the mean ranks obtained through the analysis show higher scores for the Polish sample on these variables. Similarly, the Polish (loan sellers) victims scored significantly higher than British (taxi drivers) victims on Schutz's Received Openness and, interestingly, also higher on Expressed

Inclusion and Expressed Control tendencies. This shows higher tendencies for Polish participants to perceive themselves as included by others, while still being in control.

Table 9.1

Significant t-test results between groups on FIRO-B components

	Mann-Whitney coefficient	Z value	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
New Expressed Control	580.5	-4.013	.000
Schutz's Expressed Inclusion	807.5	-2.349	.019
Schutz's Received Control	824.5	-2.225	.026
Schutz' Expressed Control	572.5	-4.114	.000
Schutz' Received Openness	854.0	-1.989	.047

Table 9.2 presents the means for each group on the FIRO-B variables. Even though some of these variables did not obtain significant differences between the two groups, it can be seen that the Polish sample obtained slightly higher scores on Expressed Openness, Total Warmth, Socio-emotional Affect, and on Social Interaction Index. This implies that the Polish sample showed higher traits of intimacy and involvement with others than the British sample.

Table 9.2

Means for British and Polish victims on the FIRO-B components

	Polish			British		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Social Interaction Index	23.68	56	8.699	20.43	40	8.339
Schutz Expressed Inclusion	4.86	56	1.793	3.73	40	2.309
Schutz Received Control	2.38	56	2.277	3.43	40	2.438
Schutz Expressed Openness	3.84	56	1.924	3.73	40	2.124
Scutz Received Inclusion	3.63	56	2.483	3.85	40	2.975
Schutz Expressed Control	3.93	56	2.696	1.73	40	1.797
Schutz Received Openness	5.05	56	2.438	3.98	40	2.731
Schutz's Warmth	17.38	56	6.754	15.28	40	7.639
New Expressed Control	32.88	56	9.531	24.55	40	7.828
New Received Control	25.57	56	7.956	29.68	40	9.233
Socio-emotional Affect	133.86	56	24.227	130.43	40	26.002

9.4.2. Victimisation. Figure 9.1 presents the occurrence of each incident variable as a percentage on the whole sample. It can be observed that over half of the victims from the whole sample have reported experiencing verbal insults from customers, either sober or under the influence of alcohol or drugs. The least frequent incidents appear to be the most violent or unexpected ones: violence from a customer who seemed sober (15.6%) and incidents involving a stranger (20.8% and 18.8%).

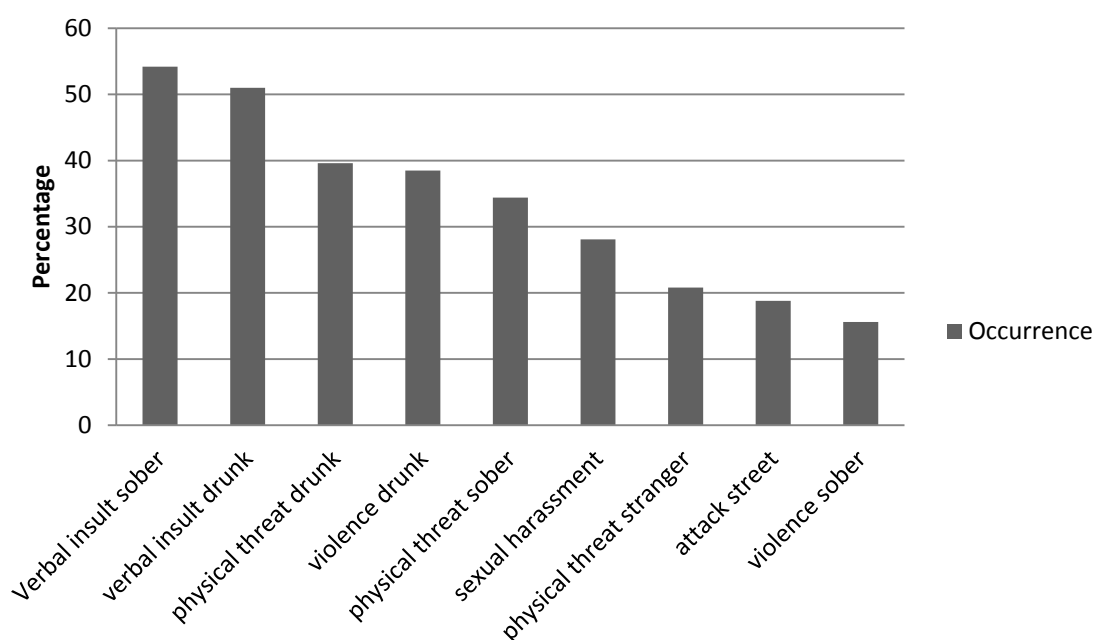


Figure 9.1. Occurrence of each incident as a percentage for the whole sample ($N=96$)

However, when percentages are divided by original samples, a significant difference between British and Polish victims is revealed (Figure 9.2). As all incidents have occurred within the British sample, only 5 incidents out of 9 were reported by the Polish sample: Verbal insult from a customer who seemed sober (30%), Verbal insult from a drunk customer (16%), Physical threat from a customer who seemed sober (11%), Violence from a drunk customer (7%), Attack on the street by a stranger (4%). As well as the important difference in incident occurrence, the Polish sample distinguished itself from the British one in regard to the state of the customer. In contrast to the British victims, Polish victims, within their sample, reported higher rates of verbal insults from a sober customer than from a drunken one. In the British sample, incidents involving a customer under the influence obtained higher rates than the same incidents involving a sober customer, this can be observed in all cases.

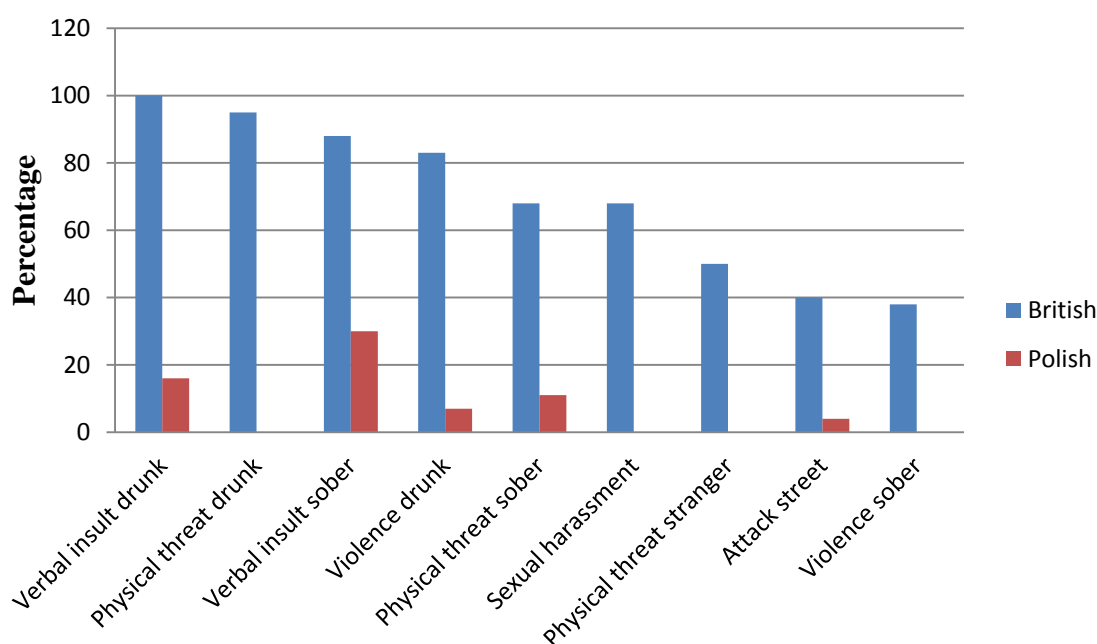


Figure 9.2. Occurrence of each incident as a percentage per culture

Due to the major gap between the groups on their incident occurrence it is not surprising that chi-square and t-tests analyses comparing the groups' means on the incident variables obtained significant coefficients ($p < .01$) for all variables. Just by looking at the percentages on Figure 9.2 it is possible to see that the British sample reported higher rates, not only of physical assaults and violent incidents, but for all the incident variables. However, these differences could be explained much more by the occupation than by the country (culture) of the victim. Consistent with the literature, these figures show that taxi drivers are much more at risk of violence due to the nature of their job.

9.4.2.1. Relationship between victimisation and interpersonal trends. Correlations analyses were performed separately on each group to investigate if there is any relationship between types of incidents and victims' interpersonal trends. Significant Kendall correlations were found between New Expressed Control and Physical threat from customer who seemed sober (Kendall's tau $b = -.345$, $p < .05$) and Actual violence

from a drunk customer (Kendall's tau $b = -.300, p < .05$) for the British taxi drivers sample. As to Schutz's dimensions, significant correlations were found between his Expressed Control and Actual violence from a drunk customer (Kendall's tau $b = -.321, p < .05$) and between his Expressed Openness and Physical threat from a stranger in the streets (Kendall's tau $b = .335, p < .05$) for this sample. In regard to the Polish loan sellers sample, only one significant correlation was obtained between Schutz's Expressed Openness and Verbal abuse from a customer who seemed sober (Kendall's tau $b = -.295, p < .05$).

In order to verify if these correlations were significantly different between samples, a Fisher r (z statistic) analysis was conducted on the above correlations as well as on the remaining non-significant correlations between incidents and the new FIRO-B components. Interestingly, results revealed no significant differences between the samples on the significant correlations presented above. None of these significant relationships were found to be significantly different between the two samples, even when examining Schutz's original dimension of Expressed Openness. However, as it can be seen in Table 9.3, three significant differences were observed between the British and Polish samples on their correlations between verbal abuse items and the two new FIRO-B Control components.

Table 9.3

Significant z statistics between the two samples

	Z	Sig two-tailed
New Received Control and verbal abuse from a drunk customer	4.34	0.0000
New Expressed Control and verbal abuse from a sober customer	3.34	0.0008
New Expressed Control and verbal abuse from a drunk customer	2.09	0.0366

Results reveal that the correlations between these variables are significantly stronger within the Polish loan sellers sample than within the British taxi drivers' one. This implies that Polish victims of these incidents obtained a stronger correlation between verbal abuse incidents and Control components. However, it is important to bear in mind that these correlations were not found significant while performing the correlation analysis.

9.4.3. Disclosure. A significant Mann-Whitney coefficient ($U = 445.5$, $z = -5.201$, $p < .01$) suggests differences between the two samples on their level of disclosure. Figure 9.3 presents the percentage for each elements of the disclosure variable. Half of the British victims did not report any incident that occurred on duty. In opposition, over half (57%) of the Polish victims did report every incident that they experienced at work.

In order to look at other possible factors influencing the decision to report an incident, a Spearman correlation analysis was performed on the disclosure variable and other variables such as types of incident, years of experience, age, and interpersonal tendencies. Table 9.4 presents the significant correlations.

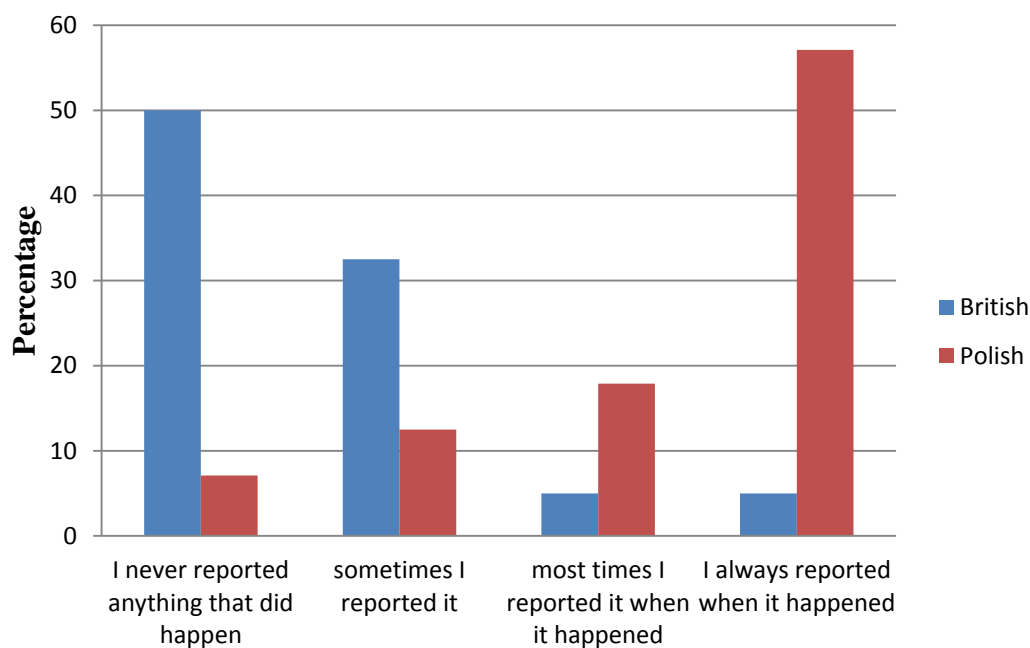


Figure 9.3. Percentage of each element of the disclosure variable per country

It seems that certain types of incident are reported more than others. Significant positive correlations were found between disclosure and particular incidents, the strongest correlations found with incidents related to the use of alcohol or drugs from the customer, as well as sexual harassment. As the incident variables were measured as 1=occurred and 2= did not occur and that the disclosure elements went from 1= did not report any incident that occurred to 5= I always reported an incident when it occurred, these correlations proposed that when the incident was rated as occurred, the level of disclosure was also low. This implies that these types of incidents did not have a high level of reporting when they did occur. Finally, positive significant correlations were found between disclosure and Expressed Control tendencies, both from Schutz's original one and the new proposed model. This suggests that people with higher tendencies to be dominant and in control would be more likely to report an incident that occurred at work.

Table 9.4

Significant Spearman rho between disclosure and other variables

	Spearman rho	Sig. (2-tailed)
Verbal insult from a customer who seemed sober	.256	.012
Verbal insult from a customer drunk or on drugs	.499	.000
Physical threat from a customer drunk or on drugs	.482	.000
Actual Violence from customer drunk or on drugs	.364	.000
Attack on the streets by a stranger	.217	.034
Physical threat on the streets from a stranger	.237	.020
Sexual harassment	.497	.000
New Expressed Control	.321	.001
Schutz's Expressed Control	.303	.003

9.4.3.1. Differences between groups on their interpersonal trends and disclosure.

A Kendall correlation analysis revealed significant relationships between the FIRO-B components and crime disclosure, but only within the British taxi drivers' sample.

There were significant relationships between disclosure and the New Expressed Control component (Kendall's tau b= .297, $p < .05$) and Schutz's Expressed Control (Kendall's tau b= .269, $p < .05$). However, after conducting the Fisher r (z statistic), these significant correlations were not found significantly different from the correlations found within the Polish loan sellers sample. No significant differences were observed between the two groups on their correlations (significant or not) between FIRO-B components and crime disclosure.

9.5. Discussion

Group comparisons have been conducted in various studies in relation to victimisation, individual characteristics, and crime disclosure. However, workplace violence literature lacks information and empirical research differences between occupations on victimisation. Although international and national statistics provide descriptive data on specific occupation, very few have examined similarities and differences in victimisation and crime disclosure between professions. Additionally, most cultural comparisons have focussed on Western cultures with Eastern/Asian cultures. Very little is known on differences between European countries, particularly on the comparison between Western and Eastern European cultures. Workplace victimisation literature lacks on cross-cultural comparisons. In a world of internationalisation, where different cultures mix to do business either between companies or within a company, cultural backgrounds should be considered when examining factors influencing workplace conflicts and its prevention. The present study aimed to examine possible differences between the two groups derived by the two main samples of British taxi drivers and Polish loan sellers in regard to their workplace victimisation and disclosure by looking at potential factors such as occupation and, to an extent, culture.

9.5.1. Victimisation. Results revealed that British taxi drivers experienced significantly higher rates on all types of incident than Polish home-visit loan sellers, which could be explained by taxi drivers' risk factors related to their jobs such as night shift and taking intoxicated customers on board. On the other side, Polish loan sellers appeared to experienced more violence committed by sober customers compared to British taxi drivers. Although both samples were selected using size, gender and

victimisation criteria, the sample of Polish male workers were perhaps not as representative of the whole sample of Polish loan sellers. Out of 1,868, they represented only 3% of the whole sample. In contrast, the sample of taxi drivers was represented by 91%, excluding three female taxi drivers and one male who did not fully complete the FIRO-B scale. Consequently, the results found on victimisation incidence might be explained by unrepresentative sample of the Polish sample which could then affect cultural and occupational factors.

In regard to interpersonal tendencies, results from the current study provide evidence of differences between groups. Participants from Poland obtained significantly higher scores on Expressed Control (both old and new versions), Expressed Inclusion, Received Openness, Total Warmth, and SII. British victims obtained significantly higher scores only on Received Control. Again, due to the dissimilarities between the groups, it is difficult to attribute these findings on cultural, occupational or other factors. Nevertheless, in regard to the victims' interpersonal tendencies and the types of incident experienced, significant relationships were observed when the groups were analysed separately. British taxi drivers who experienced physical threat from a sober customer and actual violence from an intoxicated customer scored significantly lower on the Expressed Control components than fellow participants. The latter correlation was also found to be significantly different from the correlation obtained within the Polish victims. This implies that this relationship between low traits of dominance and being the victim of actual violence from an intoxicated customer is stronger with the British taxi drivers.

9.5.2. Crime disclosure. In general, results revealed that Polish loan sellers obtained higher disclosure rates than British taxi drivers. Analyses also provided interesting correlations between disclosure and other variables within the whole sample, notably incident variables. Considering previous studies suggesting that more serious (perceived) incidents relate to a higher rate of disclosure (e.g. Bowls et al., 2009; Tarling and Morris, 2010), most violent/disturbing incidents such as an attack on the streets by a stranger, actual violence, and sexual harassment should obtain strong relationships with the level of disclosure. However, all three incidents involving a customer drunk or on drugs (actual violence, verbal insult, and physical threat) obtained a significant positive correlation with the disclosure item. In this case, it implies that when these incidents occurred (score of 1 rather than 2), the level of disclosure for these variables was low, either not reported or sometimes reported. An explanation could be found in the alcohol/drug element of these incidents. Perhaps, the circumstances (customer drunk/on drugs) lightened the seriousness of the incident, almost giving an excuse for its occurrence compared to incidents which involved sober customers. Therefore, the incident would not be perceived as serious enough or to a certain degree might be perceived as predictable. As to the positive relationship between Expressed Control and disclosure, this might suggest that people who see themselves in control of their life might see it as their responsibility to report any incident to the relevant authorities.

Analyses were also performed on each individual group. Significant relationships were observed only within the British taxi drivers' group. Disclosure was significantly positively related to both New Expressed Control components and Schutz's original

Expressed Control. However, the non significance observed after z statistic analysis demonstrates that these relationships are not significantly different between groups.

Once more, findings from the analyses could perhaps be the result of occupational factors rather than cultural. It is known in taxi drivers literature that a small percentage of them report incidents at the workplace (e.g. Adams, 1996; Barling, 1996; Hume, 1995; Stenning, 1996). It is then not surprising to find that 50% of the British taxi drivers sample did not report any of the incidents that occurred while on duty. Additionally, the ambiguity towards the Polish sample as an accurate representation for the Polish culture might also have an impact on the results. Perhaps a better representative sample would have obtained different figures. More occupational comparisons are needed in order to provide further information on the factors affecting crime disclosure.

Indeed, numerous job characteristics might have an influence on the decision process to disclose a work incident. In the case of the present study, although both groups have similar characteristics in regard to the isolation with the customer, out of office hours and out of office setting, and handling money, taxi drivers differ from loan sellers on two major aspects of their job. First, evening and night shifts workers are more likely to pick up intoxicated customers, which is less likely the case for loan sellers. Therefore, by expecting intoxicated customers, taxi drivers might diminish incidents committed against them and decide not to report them. Second, although taxi drivers might work for the council or a taxi company, their work setting is their vehicle and they do not have immediate colleagues or supervisors to whom they could talk to. They do have a union, but the proximity and availability of people to talk to might play

an important role to their decision to report a crime committed at work. If taxi drivers have only the police to turn to, it may explain their high level of under-reporting.

9.6. Conclusion

The present study aimed to examine differences between British and Polish male victims of workplace incidents. Interesting results were obtained and confirm the presence of group distinctions in workplace victimisation, disclosure, and regarding interpersonal tendencies. However, these results have to be considered with caution as this study is not without any limitations. Although samples were selected to provide two comparable samples on size, gender, and victimisation criteria, there is some doubt on the accuracy of the Polish sample to represent the Eastern culture opposing the British sample. Perhaps the female victims from the whole Polish sample could have been more representative of their profession and culture. Additionally, the possible occupational factor should also be considered. Results on incident occurrence and disclosure could differ more by profession than by culture. Consequently, it is difficult and almost impossible to allocate the findings to one factor more than the other. Could it be possible that both culture and occupation had a role to play in these results?

Finally, as most cross-cultural studies have used American samples to represent their Western cultures, there is no certainty that their results would be representative of Western European cultures. Although the United Kingdom and other Western European countries are associated with Western cultures, there is still a possibility that their victimisation, disclosure, and interpersonal trends differ from American populations. More cross-cultural research should be conducted in order to examine differences or similarities on workplace victimisation between Eastern and Western European cultures, as well as between different occupations in order to obtain a full

picture of the phenomenon and provide inputs for research, training, and prevention purposes.

Chapter X

General Discussion

The main objective of this research was to expand the extent of knowledge regarding workplace violence by conducting empirical studies on two major components: 1) workplace victimisation and victims' intrapersonal characteristics; and 2) workplace victimisation disclosure rate and reasons behind (under-)reporting. This chapter presents a general discussion on the whole research, comparing and integrating results from the four key studies from the precedent chapters. It summarises and examines all analyses and findings from this research and provides associations with the existent literature.

10.1. Theoretical framework and research design

The aim of this research was to provide empirical data on workplace violence, more precisely on customers' violence towards workers. As it was noted, the literature on workplace violence is vast and has examined several of its components from bullying between workers to safety and preventative strategies for taxi drivers and nurses.

Nevertheless, it has neglected certain forms of violence as well as certain types of profession. For instance, numerous studies have been conducted on emergency services workers, particularly on nurses and care workers or health professions who are already at risk of victimisation due to the nature of their occupations. Indeed, employees in hospitals or working in emergency services are subjected to stressful working environments, having to work with people in distress, people who are mentally ill, or even with criminals, mostly in the case of police officers. Thus, it is not surprising that social scientists have paid a great deal of attention researching these types of occupation in order to analyse and perhaps improve the working conditions in

which these workers have to work. Yet, other professions which could be defined as “low risk” occupations also experience various forms of workplace victimisation and could also benefit from research and prevention strategies to improve their working conditions. Perhaps the “low risk” aspect of their job distorts workers’ perception of victimisation. If violence is not expected or at least not as frequent as in “at risk” professions, employees from “low risk” occupations might not even recognise that they are also victimised as it was demonstrated in a recent study on victims of bullying (Vie et al., 2010).

Another weakness from workplace violence’s literature is its propensity to study one specific form of violence, the most popular being bullying (e.g. Bowling et al., 2010; Escartin et al., 2011; Namie and Namie, 2009; Tuckey, et al., 2009). Although bullying at work is still fairly recent in the world of research as it has only just recently been recognised by some organisations as a form of violence, studies conducted on this topic often looked at its worker-on-worker type of violence, omitting other types of offender such as intimate partner, strangers, and customers (see Chapter II for more details). Furthermore, its dominance in the literature denotes a gap in research on other forms of violence, from subtle verbal insult and threat to actual violence and sexual harassment. Again, due to the recent attention paid to bullying by organisations and to its prevalence all around the world, it is understandable that researchers attempted to understand, examine and arouse awareness on this topic in order to prevent and to decrease its occurrence.

Nonetheless, this research argued that omitted occupations as well as other forms of violence should be investigated to obtain an accurate picture of workplace victimisation. The present research has aimed to enhance existent knowledge by

looking at an unusual “low risk” occupation such as home-visit workers, not related to care or emergency services organisations. The recruited sample comprised of 1,868 home-visit loan sellers. This research has also examined various forms of violence from verbal abuse to actual violence, providing a larger definition of workplace victimisation and more details on all its possible forms. Finally, as a great deal of attention has been paid to worker-on-worker types of aggression and violence from strangers being highly studied in research on workplace homicide, this research has analysed offences committed by customers against workers (type II, see Chapter II). To do so, analysis were conducted on a sample of 1,876 Polish loan-sellers (home-visit workers) and on a sample of 47 British taxi drivers. Both samples presented elements of risks through their work duties (e.g., money handling, lone working), are mostly victimised by customers as working alone with them, and could be perceived as “low risk” occupations compared to police officers and A&E workers. For more details on the recruitment process and reasons behind it see Chapter IV.

10.1.1. Victimisation. Research on workplace violence has already gathered a large amount of statistics on its prevalence, its victims, its offenders, and its risk factors on international levels (e.g. Chappell and DiMartino, 2006). But a major part of it is only descriptive, providing numbers and figures without empirical evidence. When empirical research was conducted, it put emphasis on the psychological consequences of violence on victims and the impact on organisational level (e.g. de Léséleuc, 2004; Chappel and Di Martino, 2006; Hershcovis and Barling, 2010). Studies which investigated victim’s personality and differences between groups such as genders and cultures provided theories on potential risk profiles (e.g. Aquino et al., 1999; Aquino and Bradfield, 2000; Glasø et al., 2007), or in other words possible personality traits,

which could increase the risk of being the target of violence at work. However, very few have examined the interaction between the victim and the offender as part of the risk of victimisation.

10.1.2. Disclosure. Similar issues were brought up concerning crime disclosure. Put aside the problematic nature of obtaining accurate data due to under-reporting and the “healthy-worker” effect (e.g. Mayhew, 2000; Stenning, 1996), research on crime disclosure remains very descriptive as well as focussing on other types of victimisation than workplace violence. For that reason, the present research aimed to collect more information on the level of incident disclosure at the workplace and particularly on the reasons behind the victim’s decision to report the incident or not.

10.1.3. Current research. Combining four key studies incorporating quantitative and qualitative data and using two samples representing two different professions from two different countries, this research offers a larger understanding of workplace victimisation by investigating the influence of victims’ interpersonal tendencies on workplace victimisation and on workplace violence disclosure. In addition, its use of combined methods of analysis provides complementary elements on each components of the research.

10.2. Workplace victimisation

As elegantly explained by Felson (2006), conflicts are part of almost everyone’s day to day life and result from the interaction of at least two actors. Considering that conflict is at the heart of most work arguments and taking into account that it is an interpersonal transaction (Canter, 1989), to some degree, between the two actors, it appears evident that looking at workplace victimisation as an interaction between the

offender and the victim would provide further details on what leads to victimisation and what could be done to prevent its escalation.

Hence, the present research has investigated the relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and workplace victimisation. To achieve this, the FIRO-B was used as a measure of interpersonal trends in the three quantitative studies. However, following recent debates on the validity of the FIRO-B's three-factor structure arguing that no empirical evidence could be provided to validate the use of Schutz's dimensions and coding framework, the present research conducted its own analysis of the FIRO-B's structural model using a Facet Theory approach. The Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I) results corroborate recent findings from the literature suggesting a two-component model (e.g. Dancer and Woods, 2006; Macrosson, 2000) rather than Schutz's original three-factor model of Control, Inclusion and Openness. To sum up, the SSA-I proposed a new two-component model to explain the FIRO-B structure: Control and Socio-Emotional Affect. The new components obtained good to excellent internal validity and therefore provided a validated model which was then used in the three key quantitative studies.

Previous studies on personality traits and victimisation have found significant differences between genders, but also between victims and non-victims. Their results suggested that men would be more likely to be the victim of physical and violent assaults, whereas women would be more likely to experience verbal abuse and sexual harassment (e.g. de Judicibus and McCabe, 2001; Scalora et al., 2003). In addition, certain personality traits such as hostile, aversive, dominant, individualistic, demanding, and negative behaviours were associated with high risk of victimisation (e.g. Aquino and Thau, 2009; Neuman and Baron, 1998; Newbill et al., 2010).

Therefore, it was hypothesised that significant differences would be found between male and female workers on their experienced incidents, as well as victims obtaining significantly higher scores on the Control components compared to non-victims. Due to the dominance of male (91.5%) in the taxi drivers (British) sample, the first hypothesis could not be tested.

10.2.1. Gender and victimisation. Results provided support for genders hypotheses. Indeed, overall male participants from the Polish loan sellers sample reported significantly more incidents of violence than female colleagues. However, in regard to female victims experiencing more verbal abuse and sexual harassment, this hypothesis was only confirmed in the victim sample ($n=205$) derived from the whole sample ($N=1,868$). The results could be explained by the large gap between the number of female and male in the whole sample. In addition, significant differences were found between genders on their FIRO-B scores. Men obtained significantly higher scores on Control components, whereas women scored significantly higher on Socio-emotional Affect. According to these results, this implies that individuals who show traits on both poles of the Control component would be more likely to experience violent types of offences, which targets in majority male victims and confirmed the second main hypothesis. On the other side, traits related to being open to others and including and being included by them appear to be associated with more verbal types of offences such as harassment and verbal abuse, from which victims are usually females. This suggests that certain interpersonal trends could be associated with the risk of victimisation of specific forms of violence.

10.2.2. Victims' interpersonal personality traits and victimisation. In addition to the gender differences obtained through the analyses, results revealed differences

between the two samples on the relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and types of incident experienced. First of all, it seems that British taxi drivers experienced more violent incidents and more victimisation in general than Polish loan sellers. In addition, differences were found on their interpersonal tendencies. Indeed, victims from the Polish loan sellers sample significantly obtained higher scores on Received Control, whereas victims from the British taxi drivers sample provided significant relationships between victimisation and Expressed Control. This implies that individuals with particular interpersonal personality traits might be more at risk of experiencing specific types of violence, for instance traits of dominance and actual violence.

Results did provide support to the hypothesis that individual with higher traits of dominance (high scores on Expressed Control) would be more at risk of violent incidents. However, results revealed two minor exceptions from the Polish loan sellers sample. Significant correlations were obtained between Attack on the street by a stranger and Received Control and between Sexual harassment and Socio-emotional Affect. The latter finding was replicated from the whole Polish sample on a male only sample, rejecting the gender effect. This suggests that individuals, male or female, showing interpersonal tendencies associated with openness and involving others (Socio-Emotional Affect) are more likely to be the target of sexual harassment. As explained in Chapter VI, it is possible to hypothesise that their friendliness and openness might sometimes create a closer relationship with the customers and increases the chance to put them at risk of inappropriate and unwanted comments and discussions, which can then escalate into sexual harassment.

As to the differences on the Control components, British taxi drivers showed significant correlation on the Expressed mode as the Polish loan sellers showed higher scores on the Received mode. Again this might be explained by the gender effect as the majority of the Polish loan sellers were female as oppose to male in the British taxi drivers sample, therefore the differences could be attributed to genders differences on interpersonal trends more than on cultural or occupational effect. Results imply that individuals with high scores on Received Control would present as more submissive and controlled by others, which in a conflict situation might be the cause of losing control which can then lead to escalation. It also seems that in the case of male victims from the British sample, the desire to be in control or to dominate the situation might unintentionally increase the risk of escalation of incidents. This was also noted in the case studies from the two interviews with British taxi drivers. Their accounts brought up a few statements from both their personal and colleagues' experiences revealing aspects of wanting to be in control over the argument with the customer which escalated into more serious incidents. This supports previous findings suggesting that dominant and hostile behaviours are associated with higher risk of victimisation.

10.2.3. Differences between samples on victimisation. The differences between the two samples within the victimisation study led to further analyses to compare them. To do so, a smaller sample of male victims ($n=56$) from the Polish sample in order to compare them to the British male victims sample ($n=40$). For this study, the use of Schutz's original dimensions was combined with the new proposed model in order to replicate previous cross-cultural studies using the FIRO-B and to allow comparison with their findings. The Polish male victims sample obtained significantly higher scores on Expressed Control, Expressed Inclusion, and Received Openness, whereas

the British male victims sample obtained significantly higher scores on Received Control. With the exception of the latter, the remaining results on the FIRO-B scale contradict previous findings between Asian and American cultures. However, as the present samples were already very different in size, gender mix, professions, and country of origin, it could not be hypothesised that the Polish culture would represent Eastern culture. So, these results could not be directly attributed to one specific factor (e.g. occupation or culture).

In regard to the incident rates, Polish male victims showed a significantly lower rate of physical and violent incidents compared to the British male victims. Again, this result must be considered with caution as this dissimilarity with previous findings could be attributed to an occupational difference rather than cultural. It has been argued that taxi drivers are at high risk of very violent offences. Consequently, the results could have been biased by the occupation of the participants rather than their culture.

Interestingly, when analysed separately, British participants showed significant correlations between victimisation (physical threat from sober customer and actual violence from intoxicated customer) and Expressed Control, which was found significantly different between samples through the z statistic test. But when compared with the Polish sample, they significantly scored lower on this component, on both Schutz's and the new one proposed in Chapter V. If considering the British culture as independent, one would expect them to show high scores on Expressed Control, showing dominance and not submission. The results show the opposite. But again, it could not be hypothesised that Britain culture represented the Western culture.

10.2.4. Links with victimology theories. Chapter III presented three main theories used in victimisation research: Lifestyle, Routine Activity, and Situational Exposure

theories. As previously noted, most studies have paid more attention to the first two, arguing that situational factors must be combined with individual factors in order to fully understand the phenomenon of victimisation (Schreck et al., 2003). Although the present study was not specifically performed to test the lifestyle-routine activity approach, its variables and analyses made it possible for the researcher to include this approach in the final interpretation. Individual factors such as gender, age, and interpersonal interactions with the offenders (including interpersonal traits from the FIRO-B) and situational factors such as shift patterns, type of occupation and what it involves, and settings (customer's house, taxi) were all included in the study of workplace victimisation.

Although the variables related to the occupation and settings were not directly analysed to test their influence on workplace victimisation, it is possible to argue that they are part of the guardianship aspect of the lifestyle-routine activities of the research samples. In both samples, the absence of guardianship is a key factor to consider when examining their risk of victimisation. Loan sellers attending the customer's house on their own put themselves at higher risk of victimisation as no colleague or other guardians are around to decrease the offender's motivation to commit the crime. Similarly, taxi drivers work alone and therefore place themselves at risk of victimisation not only by being alone in their taxi, but also by going to unknown and isolated destination as mentioned in Xu's (2009) study. The remaining situational factor was the shift patterns from the taxi drivers. Unfortunately, although it was known that the loan sellers were working at various hours, their questionnaire did not specify their shift patterns. The findings from the taxi drivers sample showed that night shift was a significant predictor of sexual harassment from a customer who seemed

sober. Although no other significant result was found between shift patterns and victimisation, this finding supports previous research stating that some situational factors affect the risk of victimisation (e.g., Chappell and Di Martino, 2000; Farrugia, 2002; Xu, 2009).

In regard to individual factors, both quantitative and qualitative analyses have provided support for impact of the target attractiveness/suitability and exposure (offender proximity) elements of the lifestyle-routine activity approach on workplace victimisation within the two samples. Indeed, the participants' gender, interpersonal tendencies and reaction towards the offender (in the case of qualitative analysis) were all found to be significant predictors of workplace victimisation. For instance, results showed that men are more at risk of violent victimisation, whereas women appear more at risk of verbal incidents. In addition, findings on interpersonal traits show that certain interpersonal tendencies significantly correlate with specific types of incidents, such as being opened and welcoming and incidents of verbal nature. These findings support the theory that the target's own characteristics might increase his/her vulnerability or attractiveness in the eyes of the offender. In addition, the potential victim's reaction or exposure to possible escalation also support the theory of lifestyle-routine activity. Indeed, results suggest that certain interpersonal traits such as controlling behaviours and provocative reactions (although unintentional) on the part of the potential victim might impact on the outcome of the incident. The shift pattern variable can also be taken into consideration for the exposure element of the theory. Most incidents involved intoxicated customers in the case of taxi drivers victimisation. Although they do not have control on their customers' alcohol intake, their decision to work during evenings and nights where there is a higher risk of getting intoxicated customers

increases their exposure to victimisation. Adding to the lack of guardianship, this study supports previous findings suggesting that lifestyle-routine activities of an individual have an impact on his/her risk of victimisation.

10.2.5. Victimisation summary and future avenues. The present results reveal significant relationships between interpersonal tendencies and victimisation. It seems that certain types of interpersonal traits are significantly related to certain forms of workplace violence. These findings have various implications within research on victimisation. Considering the theory of crime as an interpersonal transaction, this implies that certain forms of workplace violence occur within specific types of interpersonal transactions. According to these results, the victim's reaction (interpersonal tendencies) to the offender's action, which defines the interpersonal transaction, seems to have a major impact on its outcome or escalation. This could be the foundation for an Interpersonal Transaction model of Victimisation.

Yet, this transaction could not occur without the offender's input. In order to fully understand the influence of interpersonal personality traits on victimisation, one must also consider the offender's part into the interpersonal transaction. According to Canter and Youngs' (2012) theory of Victim Role, the offender's perception of the victim (object, vehicle, person), which is directly related to aspects of control (power) and intimacy (McAdams, 1993), might have an important influence on the outcome of the incident. Adding to it the victim's reaction/precipitation, the reaction might strengthen the offender's perception (attributed role) of the victim and escalate the situation. Consequently, based on the results from this research, more research on the offender's part within the interpersonal transaction would offer a better comprehension of the process of victimisation. Would the role assigned to the victim have an impact on

his/her reaction due to his/her own interpersonal personality traits? Or would these traits have an impact on the offender's role assignment? Additionally, it was demonstrated by Youngs (2004) that offenders committing certain types of offence show particular interpersonal personality traits. For instance, offenders committing expressive offence styles such as assaults and threats showed higher traits of dominance of others (higher scores on Expressed Control). Again, this stresses the importance of examining both the offender's and the victim's parts within their interpersonal transaction when studying workplace victimisation. Both sides would certainly impact on each other and would influence the final outcome of the incident.

Finally, results from this research could not provide certainty on the occupational versus cultural differences between the samples. Although differences were obtained, it could not be possible to attribute them to the culture or the occupation of the victims. This opens new research avenues on workplace violence. Research should be conducted on cultural differences within the same occupation. Similarly, occupational similarities and differences on victimisation should be examined within one culture in order to provide more information on their possible effect on workplace victimisation and enhance its prevention.

10.3. Workplace violence disclosure

Research on crime disclosure has already conducted a great deal of studies providing findings on groups differences such as age groups (e.g. Bosick et al., 2012) and genders (e.g. Greenberg and Beach, 2004; Pino and Meier, 1999), reasons for reporting (e.g. Tarling and Morris, 2010), reasons behind under-reporting (e.g. Allen, 2007; Bowles et al., 2009), the influence of victim's characteristics (e.g. MacDonald, 2001) and the influence of offender's characteristics on disclosure rate (e.g. Thompson

et al., 2010; Wong and van de Schoot, 2011), and differences between types of crime (e.g. Cohn et al., 2013; Greenberg and Beach, 2004). Although it has investigated almost all possible types of crime, including looking at the differences between reporting personal versus property crime (Fishman, 1979), very little has been done on crime committed within work settings. Once again, when studies investigated the matter on workplace violence, the form of violence studied was bullying (e.g. Matsunga, 2010; Namie and Namie, 2009; Vie et al., 2010).

However, research has been conducted on taxi drivers and has provided some information on their level of disclosure, which was found to be low (e.g. Adams, 1996; Hume, 1995). Data were also collected on the reasons for not reporting the crime (e.g. Eastal and Wilson 1991; Elsworth, 1997; Stenning 1996). These, as well as most studies on crime disclosure argue that the perceived seriousness of the crime is a significant element influencing the victim's decision to report an offence.

10.3.1. Demographic variables and disclosure. Following the findings from the literature and statistics, the present study hypothesised that female victims would obtain a higher disclosure rate than their male counterparts and that the perceived seriousness of the crime would influence reporting, more serious incidents showing higher disclosure rates.

Results provided support to the first hypothesis in the Polish loan sellers' sample. Female victims obtained a significantly higher rate of reporting than male victims, but this was only significant in the whole sample ($N=1,868$) as no significant result was found in the victim sample ($n=205$).

In regard to the differences between samples, British taxi drivers showed that more than half (51%) of the participants never reported a crime when it occurred. This rate

was directly the opposite of the Polish loan sellers sample as more than half (57%) of the participants admitted always reporting a crime when occurred. This difference cannot entirely be explained by cultural differences between the samples as the dominance of female participants in the Polish sample versus the dominance of male participants in the British one could also demonstrate a difference between genders on reporting. However, when both samples were compared in Chapter IX, results show that the Polish male victims sample obtained a higher disclosure rate than the British one, even though they were all males. Once again, this shows either a difference between cultures and/or differences between occupations. As argued in Chapter IX, it is possible that the work settings and procedures affect the level of reporting between the two occupations. Whereas the loan sellers had supervisors and other colleagues to talk to and perhaps disclosure procedures in place as a private company, taxi drivers were working alone most of the time and for the council, therefore camaraderie between colleagues and work networks can be very different in this public service. In addition, when asked if they have reported an incident when it occurred, the Polish loan sellers were not asked to whom they have reported it. It could have been to colleagues, friends, family, supervisor, manager or even the police. This aspect of the study was improved in the second phase of recruitment, but cannot be compared between the two samples. This element would have been a good indication of the network within the private sector as well as their way to deal with incidents (e.g. collaboration with the police). Similarly to victimisation, research comparing occupation in the same culture and comparing culture in the same occupation is needed to offer a full picture of the factors influencing workplace violence disclosure.

10.3.2. Perceived seriousness and disclosure. Unfortunately, reasons behind reporting were only collected within the British sample as this aspect of the study was raised following the first analyses. Consequently, these cannot be compared between groups, either culturally or in regard to their occupations. Results reveal that their main reason to report an offence committed against them while on duty was because it was perceived as a crime. Not surprisingly, the most common reason for not reporting was that the offence was not serious enough. This reason was also brought up during the two interviews with taxi drivers. Other reasons revealed in both the questionnaires and case studies were “waste of time” and “police inaction”. The latter might have a major impact on police work and crime statistics if taxi drivers cannot have trust in the police forces to help them. As this reason was pointed out several times in both questionnaires and interviews, there seems to be a weakness within the collaboration between taxi drivers and police officers.

As the majority of the taxi drivers admitted never to have reported a crime when it occurred, this pointed out that the perceived non-seriousness of experienced offences could also be associated with their perception or definition of what workplace violence can involve. Brought up within the qualitative analysis, the understanding of workplace violence, therefore the perceived seriousness of the offence appears to influence victims’ decision to disclose an offence. Some workers seemed to attribute forms of violence such as verbal abuse as part of their job, something that they have to deal with on a daily basis and which they are used to. Comments from the interviews showed how verbal abuse appears to be routine and not serious enough to be dealt with. In addition, it seemed to be perceived as less hurtful than physical injuries, however

research shows that some verbal and psychological abuse can affect victims as much and sometimes even more than victims of physical assaults (Budd, 1999).

As to its definition, authors still argue on the proper definition of workplace violence (Doerner and Lab, 2012; Escartin et al., 2011). Some researchers have named it workplace aggressions, others workplace victimisation, and others workplace violence. Furthermore, there is evidence of differences between employees from the same company on their perception of bullying (Vie et al., 2010). Differences on the perception of bullying were also found between cultures (Escartin et al., 2011). This suggests that the definition of violence at the workplace and its perceived seriousness might have an impact on its disclosure. Evidently, if someone who has been victimised does not perceive it as an offence, it is very unlikely that he/she will report it to the authorities. As well as the definition of violence within a company, it is also important to note that culture differences might also impact on the perception of violence. Indeed, some behaviour might be considered as inappropriate in some cultures, whereas it would be tolerated or even accepted in others. Therefore, the perception of workplace violence remains very subjective to the victim's own circumstances.

More research on the understanding of workplace violence and its perceived seriousness amongst employees should be conducted in order to verify its impact on prevention and disclosure. This possible cultural difference in the perceived seriousness of the offence might provide an explanation to the present results. Perhaps, some incidents were more tolerated in the British culture than in the Polish one which explained the gap between their disclosure rates. However, once again, the explanation could also be related to occupational factors. As mentioned above, some workers, taxi drivers for instance, have to deal with tricky situations such as intoxicated customers on

daily basis. Therefore, they might perceive incidents committed by intoxicated customers as minor or almost common and not worth reporting.

10.3.3. Interpersonal tendencies and crime disclosure. Finally, results from this research revealed significant relationships between disclosure and the victim's interpersonal tendencies. Within the Polish loan sellers' sample, significant differences were found between participants who reported and participants who did not report an incident on the three FIRO-B components. Participants who have reported an incident show significantly higher scores on Expressed Control and Socio-Emotional Affect and significantly lower scores on Received Control. Similarly, British taxi drivers obtained a significant positive correlation between disclosure and Expressed Control, which was also obtained when both samples were analysed and obtained a significant z statistic, suggesting that the correlation was significantly different from one sample to the other, being stronger within the British sample. All comparisons put aside, the recurrent relationship from all samples appears to be between Expressed Control and disclosure. This implies that victims with a tendency to control others would be more likely to report an incident.

These findings suggest that the victim's own perceived seriousness of workplace violence, interpersonal transaction, and certain interpersonal personality traits have an influence on the victim's decision to report the incident. This opens avenues on crime disclosure and more particularly on the personality correlates of crime disclosure.

10.4. Summary

The present research has provided evidence of differences between genders, victims/non-victims, and cultures/occupations on workplace victimisation and on workplace violence disclosure. The present study's perception of workplace

victimisation as an interpersonal transaction between the victim and the offender offers a different angle on workplace violence and how to look at conflicts and could be the base for the development of an Interpersonal Transaction model of Victimisation.

Similarly, the relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and disclosure opens new research avenues, particularly in regard to the personality correlates of crime disclosure. The use of an uncommon sample of home-visit loan sellers also provides a new aspect on the phenomenon and opens new avenues for research on "low risk" occupations.

Chapter XI

Implications and Conclusion

This chapter concludes the whole research by discussing its practical implications, limitations, and future research avenues. Implications for the police forces, for employers and heads of organisations, for the victims of workplace violence, and for research in investigative psychology are discussed. In addition, the limitations of this research are presented and possible explanations offered. Finally, future avenues for research are suggested.

11.1. Practical implications

11.1.1. Victimisation.

11.1.1.1. Organisations. Although this research was victim-orientated, it is important to note that workplace violence also affects organisations and institutions involved on various levels. The human cost of it is by far the most significant one. Organisations where workplace violence occurs might be affected by problems of recruitment, retention, absenteeism, poor work performance, high employee turnover, and even death of employees (de Leséduc, 2004; OSHA, 2001; Whitmore and Kleiner, 1999). By enhancing their knowledge of workplace violence definition and prevalence, organisations and employers could improve preventive strategies and working conditions in order to diminish the risk of victimisation of their employees.

Results show that victimisation is everywhere and can target certain types of people. In addition, it demonstrates that certain interpersonal tendencies and reactions to hostile behaviours from customers may also escalate situations, enhancing the awareness of the victim's role in certain incidents, without attributing any responsibility to the victim.

11.1.1.2. Victims. As pointed out by Ogan (2008), the key element of any crime, which is the victim, has been highly neglected in many areas of criminology and crime psychology. And this applies also in workplace violence research. By providing more information on victimisation at the workplace and offering victim's own accounts of their experiences, this research already enriches the current literature on the phenomenon and on victims of crime in general. But it also offers useful information which can be used specifically to support and help victims, particularly victims of workplace violence. As noted above, the results show that certain interpersonal tendencies could sometimes increase the risk of being the target of violence. Added to the influence of the victim's reactions on the escalation or de-escalation of incidents, these findings could be used in organisational training to increase the awareness on victim's passive and active precipitation. Additionally, the range of victimisation presented in this research could also provide better understanding of what workplace violence involves and what is seen as an offence within the law.

11.1.1.3. Research in Investigative Psychology and applied social sciences.

Finally, the present results on victimisation also have important research implications in the world of social sciences. Although this research might be perceived as investigating topics much more related to Organisational or Occupational Psychology, as the above elements show, it contains several components of Investigative Psychology. Workplace victims can experience all possible types of crime from verbal abuse and threat to assault, rape, and even murder. As Investigative Psychology is a social science which examines crime and its components, workplace victimisation fits in this criterion. However, as very little research has been conducted by investigative psychologists regarding this particular phenomenon, this research can therefore be

considered as a pilot study in this field. Along with a new type of offence or area to investigate, namely violence at the workplace, this research also stresses the gap in investigative psychological research on victims and their influence on crime. Several studies have investigated victims characteristics in regard to the offender's preferences or targets, the role of the victims perceived by the offender (person, object, vehicle), and the risks related to the victim's circumstances (Canter and Youngs, 2009; Daigle, 2013; Ogan, 2008). This study brings a brand new perspective to victimology in Investigative Psychology by looking at the relationship between victims' interpersonal tendencies and victimisation. As mentioned, based on Canter's (1989) theory of crime as an interpersonal transaction which was developed within the Investigative Psychology discipline, analyses and findings from the present research could be considered as the foundation for the development of an Interpersonal Transaction model of Victimisation.

11.1.2. Disclosure

11.1.2.1. Organisations. Results on disclosure also provide useful statistics and information to support organisations with the improvement or instalment of disclosure process within the organisation. By increasing organisations' awareness of the low disclosure rates of workplace victimisation, most particularly on certain occupations or on specific types of offence, it could provide useful information to the organisations involved to be used in de-escalation training, educative programme on the definition and seriousness of workplace violence, and on debriefing services. These findings are therefore useful for training and prevention purposes, not only for the taxi trade and financial loan companies, but also could be applied to all occupations increasing workplace violence awareness.

11.1.2.2. Victims. In regard to research on crime disclosure and benefits to victims, research shows that disclosing an incident or traumatic events has a positive effect on recovery for the victims (Pennebaker, Kiecolt-Glaser, and Glasser, 1998; in Mueller et al., 2009; Yamawaki, 2007). By enhancing people's and particularly victim's awareness of the importance of disclosing an incident this could have an impact not only on the disclosure rate and crime statistics, but also on victims' recovery from workplace violence. This could also improve disclosure procedures and generates debriefing process implementation within organisations.

11.1.2.3. Police work. Workplace violence disclosure is the main component of this research which has a direct impact on police work. The under-reporting issue causes problems to police work for many reasons. First, it impacts directly on the accuracy of crime statistics, which then provide inaccurate figures for crime reduction and prevention. It also has an influence on the work of the police forces and government agencies in respect to combating crime. The obvious reason is that if an offence is not reported, police forces cannot act in order to fight it. As previously noted, to enable them to combat crime police forces have to understand where, when and which type of crime is occurring, relying greatly on the population's willingness to report crimes, either as victims or witnesses.

Results from this research provide statistics as well as reasons for reporting or not reporting workplace victimisation. On one side it enhances the current statistics on workplace violence for the two occupations presented in this study. Additionally, the reasons behind not reporting seem to be highly significant to police forces as they all relate, to some degree, to police work. Indeed, the most frequent reason was the perception that the incident was not serious enough. Although this reason is subjective

to the victims and seems to affect them personally and not the police forces, the perception of violence and its understanding is also part of preventive strategies and training to both the general public and police officers.

If actual offences are not perceived as serious enough to be reported, this implies the need for more educative and preventive programmes for employees, employers and the general public. In addition, any offences, minor or serious, could also be at risk of escalation, therefore it is important for police prevention strategies and crime fighting to intervene at the source of potential escalation. The other two most frequently mentioned reasons were that it was a waste of time to report or implied inaction from the police's part. Again, these two reasons impact strongly on police work. As police officers have a duty to protect and maintain a safe environment for the public, if the perception of the latter is negative on their part it will be difficult for them to gain their trust and provide support when needed. By admitting that an offence occurred but feeling that reporting to the police would lead to nothing and would be a waste of time, this reflects very negative attitudes towards police forces. As these reasons were provided by the taxi drivers' sample of this research but was also mentioned in previous studies, it would be intriguing to investigate why they seem to hold these attitudes towards the police force. These results demonstrate a need for the police force to investigate their collaboration with certain occupations and perhaps to renew their trust in their work.

Finally, although this research did provide data on reporting only for one main sample of taxi drivers, this could support the police force in developing training and strategies to encourage greater reporting and prevent crime, to improve their knowledge

on victimisation and reporting, to assist in their investigations and decision-making process, and to enhance the accuracy of their data.

11.1.2.4. Research in Investigative Psychology and applied social sciences. The component of crime disclosure also provides further avenues in this field of research. Having a major impact on crime statistics and on police work, greater importance should be paid to this component and research should be conducted in order to understand under-reporting issues and increase disclosure rates. As very little empirical data can be found on crime disclosure, most particularly on workplace violence disclosure, the present research offers a greater understanding of this phenomenon. Moreover, the significant relationships found between workplace violence disclosure and the victims' interpersonal tendencies provides the foundation for further studies on personality correlates of crime disclosure.

11.2. Limitations

Despite all its implications, this research is not without any limitations and therefore its findings must be interpreted with caution. First, as mentioned earlier, from a sample point of view, certain results cannot be generalised to larger populations. The British taxi driver sample being fairly small and dominated by men could have possibly biased some of the results, mostly on Control dimensions and level of disclosure. Additionally, even though IPA is meant to interpret the participant's own experience, the size of the qualitative sample ($N=2$) is highly unlikely to be representative of the taxi driver population and therefore the Content Analysis findings must be cautiously interpreted. Although the Polish sample provided 1,868 participants, which could be seen as an accurate size for this type of research, it was dominated by non-victims and female participants which had an impact on the analysis. Again, the gender effect

might have biased some of the results. In addition, the lack of collected information on disclosure components restrained the current researcher in the provision of information on this topic as well as conducting further cross-cultural comparisons. Perhaps reasons for not reporting differ from one country to another. The language differences must also be notified. As pointed out several times in the literature (e.g. Chappel and Di Martino, 2006; Doerner and Lab, 2012; Escartin et al., 2011; Waddington et al., 2006), the definition of violence can often be associated to physical attack or physical harm. It was also proven that perception of certain forms of violence differ from one culture to another. Although the questionnaire was translated by professionals, it is possible that the meaning of certain forms of violence might have been perceived differently by Polish participants. Additionally, there is the possibility that the term violence might have confused or stopped potential participants to complete the questionnaire, thinking that violence would only include physical incidents such as assaults, fights, unwanted physical contacts. Therefore, another term such as incident at the workplace or the use of a definition might have had an impact on the participation rate or even on participants' willingness to be involved in the interview process. It is important to take into account the participant's perception of what is an incident at work and what is just normal routine. A better explanation of the results could have been provided if the participants' perception was also investigated.

Also, rather than being a positive aspect of the study, the use of the new empirical model for the FIRO-B scale could raise suspicion on its validity. As a pilot study, its results would need to be replicated and tested. However, findings do support previous results from other studies even though they used a different methodological approach.

Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind the issue of omitting its back-translation as mentioned in Chapter IV. Therefore as well as method bias due to the current samples' representation validity and construct bias in relation to the FIRO-B's construct validity, this research also presents item bias in regard to the translation of the quantitative items. Item bias can occur in the case of "poor item translation, ambiguities in the original item, low familiarity/appropriateness of the item content in certain cultures, or influence of culture specifics such as nuisance factors or connotations associated with the item wording" (van de Vijver & Tanzer, 1997; p. 271).

Despite the first translation being conducted by experts, it is suggested that translations are not without errors. For instance, a literal translation of items might provide another meaning/connotation in another language. Also, omissions, substitutions, and additions words to maintain its meaning might influence the difficulty of the item or its definition (Matsumoto and van de Vijver, 2011). It is therefore important to adapt to the cultural environment of the second language version to obtain the best translation. The same must be applied for back-translation. By omitting the back-translation of the quantitative items, including the FIRO-B, the present research findings might have been biased by its translation. The researcher could not verify if the definition of the items were the equivalent in Polish and English and therefore assuring that the Polish participants did understand them adequately for the analysis. Consequently, it is important to interpret the current results from the Polish sample with caution.

Finally, though it cannot necessarily be considered as a limitation but rather as a criticism, one aspect of this research might be seen by others as blaming the victim.

However, as explained earlier, this is far from being the researcher's intention. This research intended to provide more information on the potential risk factors of becoming a victim and this also includes victims' characteristics. Considering workplace violence or conflicts as an interaction between two people, supported by studies suggesting that certain reactions increase the risk of escalation, this study examined the full picture of victimisation and aimed to offer information that could be useful for training, educative and preventive purposes.

11.3. Future directions

Implications from this research also involve opening new avenues for future research on workplace violence, victimisation, and disclosure. This research has only barely examined the topic and many other aspects of this type of offence need to be investigated.

Stanko (2003 in Waddington) noted that four components were essential when investigating violence in order to fully understand its meaning: 1) the act of violence itself; 2) the relationship of the participants to each other; 3) the location of the act; and 4) the consequence or resultant injury. The present research has already aimed to investigate two of these components, the act itself and the relationship between the two actors involved. However, future research is needed on the crime location as it might have an impact on workplace violence understanding and prevention.

Additionally, the aspect of interpersonal tendencies presented in this study also brings up a new element in the examination of crime by looking at the victim's possible impact on the outcome. This could be integrated in research on the victim's role or even on its impact on the offender's modus operandi. Indeed, it is possible to argue that the victim's reaction to the offender's behaviours may increase or decrease the use

of violence or verbal abuse or any other actions taken by the offender. If this is the case, then this could also have an impact on crime linkage research, as the current literature seemed to have neglected the victim's influence on offenders' change of M.O. Similarly, as mentioned in Chapter X, the victim's interpersonal traits could also impact on the offender's victim role assignment or vice versa.

In addition, as this current study has its limitations and in line with future research, following is a brief description of an ideal study which would answer the main research questions as well as avoiding most current limitations. First, in order to investigate victimisation at work, a researcher needs to recruit a sample of workers who have a higher frequency of victimisation. Although most of the literature has studied A&E staff, they appear to be the ideal population for this kind of study as they do experience a great level of incidents. Therefore, to insure a high incidence of victimisation as well as various degree of incidents, the perfect sample for this study should be recruited in A&E departments and should be of a decent size (e.g., $N = 200$). To avoid gender bias, the researcher should make sure to recruit an equal number of male and female participants, as well as people within the same working roles/tasks. The latter would avoid any differences in degree or type of victimisation as it is possible to hypothesise that a cardiac surgeon working at A&E might experience different kind of violence than nurses greeting distressed patients.

Although the FIRO-B is highly used in occupational settings, results from this study suggest that it might not be the ideal inventory to use in order to answer the research questions. Analyses from Chapter V have supported previous findings in regard to the scale's weakness in its structural validity. Moreover, results from this study have not provided strong significant results linking victimisation and interpersonal tendencies,

only weak correlations were found and mainly with the Control components.

Therefore, the ideal study should assess personality with more reliable personality inventories such as the Big Five which would also replicate previous studies using different types of workplace violence rather than just bullying between co-workers.

The different types of violence should also be presented with a clear definition to avoid any ambiguity from the participants. For instance, verbal insult should be defined as “offensive and aggressive comments which include shouting, swearing, name calling, and discriminative remarks (sexism, racism, homophobic comments, etc.)”. As well as measuring victimisation through various types of incidents, disclosure level and reasons behind it should also be recorded, in a similar way than it was done in the current study. Additionally, semi-structured interviews, with a higher number of participants (e.g., $N = 50$) should be conducted in order to provide further data on the phenomenon. Finally, to answer questions regarding the effect of culture on victimisation and disclosure, an exact replica of the sample (A&E and same number of male and female participants) should be recruited in another country (e.g., UK and China). If all these criteria are met, it would provide the ideal research methodology to answer the current research questions without its limitations.

In conclusion, more research is needed on other components specific to workplace violence mentioned in Chapter II, namely types of offender and occupation risk. Research on workplace violence is very descriptive and mostly very specific in the sense that usually only one specific form of violence is studied or only one specific occupation is looked at. Although most occupations have been examined and all types of offenders have been studied, more research comparing one type of offender to another or occupational effects is needed. Perhaps, the same form of violence

committed by a stranger or a customer does not provoke the same reaction and therefore does not have the same impact than when it is committed by friend, family members, or a colleague. Furthermore, perception and disclosure rate might also differ from one type of occupation to another. This would have a great impact on police work and prevention strategies in order to tackle violence perpetrated at work. More comparative studies are needed in order to have a global picture of workplace violence's victims, perpetrators, situational risk factors, and cultural differences.

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED TO LOAN SELLERS
AND TAXI DRIVERS

(LOAN SELLERS QUESTIONNAIRE)**INSTRUCTIONS**

As part of [due to confidentiality policy the name of the company cannot be provided]'s continuing development, we have commissioned an independent Research Organisation, Psy-Q Ltd., to carry out an anonymous, confidential survey of a random sample of agents and employees. The results will be sent back directly to Psy-Q Ltd. so that no individual will be identified. (Your name is not required in the completed form.) Only general trends will be reported to the Head Office.

We would therefore be obliged if you would answer the following questions as honestly as possible in the way indicated. Once you have answered ALL the questions please seal your questionnaire in the envelope provided and hand it in to your office for forwarding to Psy-Q Ltd.

Please be sure to hand-in your completed questionnaire by Date to be determined. The completion of this questionnaire is completely voluntary. If you do not wish to complete it simply hand-in an unfilled questionnaire in the sealed envelope.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

What is your Branch/Department

Please indicate with an X or complete as appropriate

Gender: Female Male

Your Current Age:

Number of Dependants in Your Household

(People in your household dependant on your income)

Type of Accommodation in which you live:

Own home Rented Living with parents Other

Position in Household:

Chief income earner Secondary income Housewife Other

Do you use your own transport for agency purposes: Yes No

Do you walk to carry out your agent's duties? Yes No

Amount of time working with this organisation: Years **Months**

Highest Educational Level you have achieved

Elementary / Primary School

High School / Secondary School / Grammar School (with maturity

exams/qualifications) High School / Secondary School / Grammar School (without

maturity exams/qualifications)

Technical/Vocational qualification

University level educated

Professional qualification

The size of your agency: **number of customers**

Do you have any other jobs? If so please indicate what they are

SAFETY INFORMATION

Which of the following information have you had from X[company's name]?

Please place a number next to each one to indicate how often you have had the following information as follows:

1 = never, **2** = I think so but not sure, **3**= yes definitely

Information on safety provided when you were recruited.

Monthly sms containing a safety message

Telephone call 2 weeks after joining the business

Quarterly letter mentioning safety issues

Discussion on safety at the weekly performance interview with the DM

Now please indicate how *useful* you think these experiences are

1 = useless 2 = of little use, 3= quite useful 4= very useful 5= very useful indeed,
6= of considerable importance, 7 = crucially helpful information.

- Information on safety provided when you were recruited.
- Monthly sms containing a safety message (different one every month)
- Telephone call 2 weeks after joining the business
- Quarterly letter mentioning safety issues
- Discussion on safety at the weekly performance interview with the DM

X [company's name]

Put a number between 1 and 7 to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements?

1= totally disagree, 2= disagree, 3= disagree a little, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5= agree a little, 6= agree a lot, 7 =totally agree.

- X [company's name] Representatives always keep in good contact with their Development Managers
- X [company's name] ensures that its Representatives are always safe
- X [company's name] Representatives do not usually carry very much money on them
- X [company's name] Representatives do regularly check with their DMs on their rounds
- X [company's name] Representatives are at risk because of the money they carry
- X [company's name] is fair to its Agents
- My DM takes seriously any concerns I have about safety
- Overall, X [company's name] has a good reputation among customers
- Overall X [company's name] has a good reputation in the community
- Overall, X [company's name] has a good reputation as a place to operate as a Representative
- X [company's name] is fair to its customers
- As a Representative you have a good reputation with your customers
- As a Representative you are fair to your customers
- As a Representative you follow X [company's name]'s policies
- X [company's name]'s policies are clear and fair to Representatives

SAFETY OF VARIOUS SITUATIONS

Here are some situations which you may experience. Please indicate how safe or dangerous you think they are in general by putting a number in the box.

1= very safe, 2= quite safe, 3= reasonably safe, 4 = neither safe nor dangerous,

5 =moderately dangerous, 6= very dangerous, 7= very dangerous indeed.

If you do not let someone know where you are going and when you expect to return.

If you do not report safety incidents or concerns to your Development Manager

If you give the impression that you carry large sums of money.

If dogs are loose when you visit a client

If you do not vary the route you take to visit your customers.

If you enter the premises when a customer is not there

If the road is not well lit

If you meet a group of youths when collecting

If you do not bank the money from collections

If you do not vary when and where you use a bank

If you do not have the DMs number listed first in your contact list.

If you arrive at a house and there are people hanging around that you don't know

If you carry large sums of money outside your authorised limits

If you are asked unexpectedly for a loan

if you are aware that the customer is under the influence of alcohol or drugs

If you visit customers who are seriously in arrears

If you are alone with a male customer in his house

In general, your activities when acting as an agent

Have you ever experienced any of the following? If so please indicate how often

1= never, 2= once, 3= two or three times, 4= quite often, 5= very often, 6= very often indeed,

7= frequently

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| Verbal insult from a customer who was not in arrears | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Verbal insult from a customer in arrears | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Verbal insult from a customer who was drunk or on drugs | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Physical threat from a customer who was not in arrears | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Physical threat from a customer in arrears | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Physical threat from a customer who was drunk or on drugs | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Actual violence from a customer who was drunk or on drugs | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Actual violence from a customer who was not in arrears | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Actual violence from a customer in arrears | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Attack in the street | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Physical threat in the street | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Had money stolen from you by a customer | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Had money stolen from you by a stranger | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Had money stolen as part of a car accident | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Been attacked by a dog whilst operating as an agent | <input type="checkbox"/> |

If you ever experienced any of the above did you report the incident to your supervisor or someone in X [company's name]

1= it never happened, 2= I never reported anything that did happen, 3= sometimes I reported it, 4= most times I reported it when it happened, 5= I always reported when it happened.

If you have experienced any of the above how recently did it happen? Weeks ago

What was the nature of the incident? Please circle one of the above.

If you have experienced any other sort of incident please indicate it here.

Did you report it? Yes No

(TAXI DRIVERS QUESTIONNAIRE)

It is not essential that you have been a victim of any type of workplace violence to complete the following questionnaire, although you must be informed that this includes incidents such as bullying and verbal abuse to threat and physical assaults.

If you have and wish to be contacted for an interview and provide some information on your experience of victimisation at the workplace, please leave your details here. The interview should not last more than 10 to 20 minutes. Your personal details will still be bound by the confidentiality agreement and will be destroyed after the interview. A consent form will be provided at the interview for you to read and sign.

Name: _____

Email and/or contact number: _____

Please detach and put this with your signed consent form in the provided envelope.

INSTRUCTIONS

As part of a PhD research on workplace victimisation, you are requested to complete the following questionnaire voluntarily, confidentially and anonymously. The results will be sent back directly to the main researcher so that no individual can be identified by your organisation. (Your name is not required). Only general trends will be reported into the final thesis.

We would therefore be obliged if you would answer the following questions as honestly as possible in the way indicated. Please answer ALL the questions.

Please be sure to hand-in your completed questionnaire by Date to be determined. The completion of this questionnaire is completely voluntary. If you do not wish to complete it, you are free to withdraw at any time. However, please be aware that if you choose to withdraw or omit information, it will not be possible to use any of your answers for analysis.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please indicate with an X or complete as appropriate

Gender: Female Male

Your Current Age:

Amount of time working with this organisation: Years Months

Highest Educational Level you have achieved

Elementary / Primary School

High School / Secondary School / Grammar School (with maturity

exams/qualifications) High School / Secondary School / Grammar School (without maturity exams/qualifications)

Technical/Vocational qualification

University level educated

Professional qualification

Please indicate your occupation here:

Do you mainly work during: (you can check more than one box)

Day time (between 8am and 5pm)

Evening time (between 5pm and 10pm)

Night time (between 10pm and 8am)

Do you have any other job? If so, please indicate here:**Incidents at Work**

Have you ever experienced any of the following? If so please indicate how often

1= never, 2= once, 3= two or three times, 4= quite often, 5= very often, 6= very often indeed, 7= frequently

Verbal insult from a customer who seemed sober

Verbal insult from a customer who was drunk or on drugs

Physical threat from a customer who seemed sober

Physical threat from a customer who was drunk or on drugs

Actual violence from a customer who seemed sober

Actual violence from a customer who was drunk or on drugs

Attack in the street by a stranger while on duty

Physical threat in the street by a stranger while on duty

Sexual harassment or inappropriate sexual comments by a customer

Sexual harassment or inappropriate sexual comments by a stranger while on duty

Sexual assault by a customer

If you ever experienced any of the above did you report the incident to someone in or outside your organisation? (Please indicate the number as appropriate)

1= it never happened, 2= I never reported anything that did happen, 3= sometimes I reported it, 4= most times I reported it when it happened, 5= I always reported when it happened.

If yes, please indicate to whom you reported the incident (you can check more than one box):

- Colleague(s)
- Main supervisor
- Head of the organization
- Police
- Did not experience any of the above incidents

Why did you report? (you can check more than one box)

- Did not experience any of the above incidents
- It was crime
- Protection from future attack
- To stop the incident
- Protection of others from future attack
- To punish the offender
- Other

If not, why did not you report it? (Please check where appropriate, could be more than one box)

- Did not experience any of the above incidents
- Private matter
- Not important enough to management or the police
- Fear of reprisal
- Fear to lose my job
- Protecting the offender
- Other

If you have experienced any of the above how recently did it happen? Weeks ago

Have you ever experienced any other incident which was not mentioned above? If so, please indicate the nature of the incident here:

Did you report the incident to someone in or outside your organisation? (Please indicate the number as appropriate)

1= it never happened, 2= I never reported anything that did happen, 3= sometimes I reported it, 4= most times I reported it when it happened, 5= I always reported when it happened.

If yes, please indicate to whom you reported the incident (you can check more than one box):

- Colleague(s)
- Main supervisor
- Head of the organization
- Police
- Did not experience any of the above incidents

Why did you report? (you can check more than one box)

- Did not experience any of the above incidents
- It was crime
- Protection from future attack
- To stop the incident
- Protection of others from future attack
- To punish the offender
- Other

If not, why did not you report it? (Please check where appropriate, could be more than one box)

- Did not experience any of the above incidents
- Private matter
- Not important enough to management or the police
- Fear of reprisal
- Fear to lose my job
- Protecting the offender
- Other

If you have experienced any other incidents how recently did it happen? Weeks ago

Thank you very much for your participation.

If you need some support, please contact the following support services:

-Victim Support Helpline: 0845 30 30 900

-Samaritans Helpline: 08457 90 90 90

-Rape Crisis England and Wales: 0808 802 9999

-Rape Crisis Scotland: 08088 01 03 02

15. I am more comfortable when people do not get too close.	DISAGREE							AGREE
16. People include me in their activities.	DISAGREE							AGREE
17. I strongly influence other people's actions.	DISAGREE							AGREE
18. My close friends do not tell me about themselves.	DISAGREE							AGREE
19. I am included in informal social activities.	DISAGREE							AGREE
20. I am easily led by people.	DISAGREE							AGREE
21. People should keep their private feelings to themselves.	DISAGREE							AGREE
22. People invite me to participate in their activities.	DISAGREE							AGREE
23. I take charge when I am with people socially.	DISAGREE							AGREE
24. My close friends let me know their real feelings.	DISAGREE							AGREE
25. I include other people in my plans.	DISAGREE							AGREE
26. People decide things for me.	DISAGREE							AGREE
27. There are some things I do not tell anyone.	DISAGREE							AGREE
28. People include me in their social affairs.	DISAGREE							AGREE
29. I get people to do things the way I want them done.	DISAGREE							AGREE
30. My closest friends keep secrets from me.	DISAGREE							AGREE

48. At least two of my friends tell me their true feelings.	DISAGREE							AGREE
49. I participate in group activities.	DISAGREE							AGREE
50. People often cause me to change my mind.	DISAGREE							AGREE
51. I have close relationships with a few people.	DISAGREE							AGREE
52. People invite me to do things with them.	DISAGREE							AGREE
53. I see to it that people do things the way I want them to.	DISAGREE							AGREE
54. My friends tell me about their private lives.	DISAGREE							AGREE

APPENDIX B
SCHUTZ'S CODING FRAMEWORK

FIRO coding

item	Score to be included	item	Score to be included	Item	Score to be included
1EI1	4-6	19EI4	4-6	37EI7	5-6
2RC1	3-6	20RC4	4-6	38RC7	4-6
3EO1	5-6	21EO4*	1-3	39EO7	6
4RI1	5-6	22RI4	5-6	40RI7	5-6
5EC1	4-6	23EC4	4-6	41EC7	4-6
6RO1	5-6	24RO4	6	42RO7*	1-2
7EI2	3-6	25EI5	5-6	43EI8	6
8RC2	3-6	26RC5	2-6	44RC8	3-6
9EO2	6	27EO5*	1-4	45EO8*	1-4
10RI2	5-6	28RI5	5-6	46RI8	5-6
11EC2	5-6	29EC5	5-6	47EC8	5-6
12RO2	5-6	30RO5*	1-3	48RO8	5-6
13EI3	3-6	31EI6	5-6	49EI9	6
14RC3	3-6	32RC6	4-6	50RC9	3-6
15EO3*	1-3	33EO6*	1-4	51EO9	6
16RI3	5-6	34RI6	6	52RI9	4-6
17EC3	5-6	35EC6	4-6	53EC9	4-6
18RO3*	1-2	36RO6	5-6	54RO9	4-6

* Reversed items

EI= Expressed Inclusion
 RC= Received Control
 EO= Expressed Openness
 RI= Received Inclusion
 EC= Expressed Control
 RO= Received Openness

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT FORMS FOR

QUESTIONNAIRES AND INTERVIEWS

Informed Consent for Participation in Research
International Centre for Investigative Psychology
University of Huddersfield
Project Title: Workplace Victimization: interpersonal tendencies,
victimisation, and disclosure

Researcher: Valérie Savoie, PhD candidate

As part of my postgraduate studies at the University of Huddersfield I am conducting a study on workplace victimisation. I am looking more specifically on workplace violence committed by customers on home-visit workers or on workers working outside office settings. I would therefore be grateful if you could fill in the enclosed questionnaire comprising questions on workplace related incidents and an interpersonal tendency scale called the Fundamental Interpersonal Relationship Orientation Behavior (FIRO-B). It should not take any more than 10 to 20 minutes. I only want your opinion and experience. There is no right or wrong answer.

It is completely anonymous. The present consent form will be placed in the provided envelope and separated from the questionnaire. Therefore, it will not be associated with your answers. Neither your name nor any other personal details will be recorded in connection with your responses. Only general trends will be reported, no responses from individuals. Your answers will be used for the purpose of my thesis and might therefore be published and shared, including with your organisation (if requested). The data and consent form will then be stored and locked separately in the International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology (IRCIP) at the university and will be accessed only by researchers at the IRCIP.

By answering these questions you have consented to be in the study and agreed that your data can be used for current and future research projects by members of the IRCIP. Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected, but please be aware that if you choose to withdraw or omit information, I cannot use any of your answers for analysis.

Do you have any questions? Do not hesitate to contact me via my email address below. Please sign below if you would like to participate in this research. Please keep the second copy of this form for future reference.

Signature _____ Date _____

Valérie Savoie :

u0972903@hud.ac.uk

This project is being carried out under the supervision of Professor David Canter and Dr Donna Youngs. If you have any comments or questions about the study please contact them at: D.Canter@hud.ac.uk D.Youngs@hud.ac.uk

**Informed Consent for Participation in Research
International Centre for Investigative Psychology
University of Huddersfield**

**Project Title: Workplace Victimization: Interpersonal tendencies, victimisation,
and disclosure**

Researcher: Valérie Savoie, PhD candidate

As part of my postgraduate studies at the University of Huddersfield I am conducting a study on workplace victimisation. I am looking specifically on workplace violence committed by customers on home-visit workers on workers working outside office settings.

I would therefore be grateful if you could answer some questions related to your experience as a victim.

It should not take any more than 20 minutes.

I only want your opinion and experience. There is no right or wrong answer.

It is completely anonymous. The present consent form will be placed in the provided envelope and separated from the interview data. Therefore, it will not be associated with your answers. Only your age and the first letter of your first name will be recorded, only to trace back your interview if you ever wish to withdraw from the study at any point after the interview took place. These details will not be mentioned in my thesis. Some of your answers might be directly quoted in my thesis and might therefore be published and shared, including with your organisation (if requested). The data and consent form will then be stored and locked separately in the International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology (IRCIP) at the university and will be accessed only by researchers at the IRCIP.

By answering these questions you have consented to be in the study and agreed that your data can be used for current and future research projects by members of the IRCIP. Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected, but please be aware that if you choose to withdraw or omit information, I cannot use any of your answers for analysis.

Do you have any questions?

Please sign below if you would like to participate in this research. A copy of this form will be given to you to retain for future reference.

_____ Signature _____ Date

This project is being carried out under the supervision of Professor David Canter and Dr Donna Youngs. If you have any comments or questions about the study please contact them at D.Canter@hud.ac.uk, D.Youngs@hud.ac.uk

APPENDIX D
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interview schedule

Interviewer's introduction and explanation of the research purposes

Interviewer presents and explains the consent form, rules of confidentiality and anonymity.

Interviewer asks permission to take notes and/or record the interview.

Questions:

-How long have you been doing this job for?

-When do you usually work (e.g. weekends, evening, night shifts)?

-Please tell me more about the workplace incident that you have experienced?

-How did the incident start?

-What was said between you and the offender(s)?

-How many people were involved?

-Can you describe the offender(s) (approximate age, gender)?

-Where were you at the time of the incident (public place, customer's house, outside on the streets)?

-How did it stop?

-What did you do immediately after the incident?

-How recently did it happen?

-Have you reported the incident to someone else? If so, to whom?

-Why have you (or have you not) reported it?

-Was it the first time you have experienced an incident at work? If not, could you tell me more about the other incident(s) that you have experienced? (followed by same questions than above)

-Is there any more information that you would like to share with me?

-Do you have any questions?

Interviewer does a brief review of the answers with the interviewee.

-Would you like to add or to change anything?

Interviewer concludes the interview.