A literature review of effective management of the risk of violence in licensed and retail premises arising from crime and disorder

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This report details a comprehensive literature review covering the management and prevention of work-related violence in retail and licensed premises. This review forms the evidence base of the ‘Good practice toolkit on preventing violence in retail and licensed premises’ available on the HSE website (http://www.hse.gov.uk/violence/toolkit/index.htm). This literature review and the toolkit were part of a research project commissioned by Westminster City Council (WCC), and funded by HSE under the ‘Local Authorities (LA) and HSE Working Together Strategic Programme’. This initiative aims to give Local Authorities better access to scientific support.

WCC saw crime and disorder and the risk of violence to staff and customers as significant issues in licensed and retail premises. They had started to tackle these problems through their CivicWatch Business project and partnership working with Crime Prevention Officers and Police Licensing Officers, but felt that their work would be further enhanced by national guidance – the toolkit.

HSL Work Psychologists, drawing information from this review, developed the toolkit in consultation with WCC and other stakeholders.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

A comprehensive literature review was conducted covering the management and prevention of work-related violence in retail and licensed premises. This review forms the evidence base of the ‘Good practice toolkit on preventing violence in retail and licensed premises’ available on the HSE website. This literature review and the toolkit were part of a research project commissioned by Westminster City Council (WCC), and funded by HSE under the ‘Local Authorities (LA) and HSE Working Together Strategic Programme’. This initiative aims to give Local Authorities better access to scientific support.

Methodology

The literature review was conducted at the start of the project in October 2005 and was used to identify gaps in the literature and inform the development of the toolkit. In order to identify relevant literature for the review, a number of sources were searched, including electronic databases used by HSE and general searches of the internet.

Due to the large volume of literature on violence and aggression, the search was restricted to literature relevant to the sectors forming the focus of this project, i.e. the retail sector and licensed premises.

Findings and conclusions

Despite a major problem with under-reporting, work-related violence is a significant issue, particularly in licensed and retail premises. Duty holders need to take more action to prevent and manage the risks of work-related violence.

The risk factors for violence need to be considered. These include the type of work staff are involved in and the training they receive, the location of premises, job design and work environment factors. Some of these risk factors may be open to change, whilst others may require control to minimise the risks. Consideration also needs to be given to any special groups of staff who may be at more risk and if they need any additional or special interventions to manage that risk.

Violence management can be achieved through risk assessment. There are numerous resources available, including the good practice toolkit developed as a result of this work, which aims to aid duty holders in this process. There are also numerous measures to control and manage the risks of violence in retail and licensed premises, and these measures do not have to be expensive. One of the most important measures is raising awareness amongst staff that work-related violence, including verbal abuse, is not acceptable. This can help staff work with managers in tackling this problem. Another key measure is partnership working, whether between similar businesses, with the police or local authorities, or trade unions etc. It is much easier to tackle work-related violence and crime when groups work together, sharing information and resources. Other measures can be grouped under headings relating to the environment, the job, training, or other legal options. A combination of these measures is advised. Duty holders need to decide what is reasonably practicable for them.

The review suggests much is possible in preventing and managing work-related violence in retail and licensed premises, although little evaluation work has been done.
Recommendations

**Raising awareness:** Attention should be paid to raising awareness of work-related violence as a health and safety topic to be assessed and managed in the same way as other workplace hazards. Duty holders need to include work-related violence, including verbal abuse as one topic in their risk assessment. In addition, attention needs to be paid to raising awareness at the staff level that violence is not acceptable. This should increase reporting and help organisations work with staff in tackling this issue.

**Improving reporting:** There is a need for improved reporting on this issue in order to better establish the extent of the problem, raise awareness and encourage action. Duty holders and their staff need to be encouraged to report violent incidents and simpler methods of reporting need to be developed.

**Using risk assessment:** Duty holders should be encouraged to use risk assessment as a way of managing and preventing the risks of violence. The toolkit developed as part of this work should aid employers in using a risk assessment process for this topic and Environmental Health Officers should use the information provided in the toolkit as a way of helping organisations through this process.

**Combining measures and working in partnership:** Duty holders should be encouraged to use a combination of measures most suited to their situation, business type and size, and again the toolkit can help organisations identify possible and suitable measures. Partnerships between organisations as well as between, for example, the police and Local Authorities should also be encouraged as an effective measure in tackling work-related violence and crime.
1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE REVIEW

This report details a comprehensive literature review covering the management and prevention of work-related violence in retail and licensed premises. This review forms the evidence base of the ‘Good practice toolkit on preventing violence in retail and licensed premises’ available on the HSE website (http://www.hse.gov.uk/violence/toolkit/index.htm). This literature review and the toolkit were part of a research project commissioned by Westminster City Council (WCC), and funded by HSE under the ‘Local Authorities (LA) and HSE Working Together Strategic Programme’. This initiative aims to give Local Authorities better access to scientific support.

WCC saw crime and disorder and the risk of violence to staff and customers as significant issues in licensed and retail premises. They had started to tackle these problems through their CivicWatch Business project and partnership with Police Licensing, but felt that their work would be further enhanced by national guidance – the toolkit.

HSL Work Psychologists, drawing information from this review, developed the toolkit in consultation with WCC and other stakeholders.

1.2 LITERATURE REVIEW METHODOLOGY

The literature review was conducted at the start of this project in October 2005 and was used to identify gaps in the literature and inform the development of the toolkit. There may, therefore, be more recent literature on this subject published since October 2005, which is not covered in this review.

In order to identify relevant literature for the review, a number of sources were searched. The HSE Search Team were asked to search their databases for the following terms:

- Violence
- Aggression
- Threat
- Verbal/Physical abuse
- Crime
- Disorder
- (NOT domestic violence)

AND

- Guidance
- Good / Best practice
- Managing / management
- Preventing / prevention
AND

- Licensed premises
- Pubs
- Clubs
- Nightclubs
- Retail premises
- Shops
- Banks/Building Societies

The following databases were searched: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts, International Bibliography of the Social Sciences, HSE LINE, CISDOC, NIOSHTIC, RILOSH, OSHLINE, Psychinfo, Medline, Embase, Business Source Corporate, and HSE research reports.

In addition to these sources, general searches of the internet were conducted, with a particular focus on other government websites, and literature provided by stakeholders such as Trade Unions, and charities like the Suzy Lamplugh Trust, were also reviewed.

Due to the large volume of literature on violence and aggression, the search was restricted to literature relevant to the sectors forming the focus of this project, i.e. the retail sector and licensed premises.
2 WORK-RELATED VIOLENCE: SETTING THE SCENE

2.1 VIOLENCE: HEALTH AND SAFETY OR CRIME ISSUE?

There is some question as to whether work-related violence is regarded as a health and safety issue to be dealt with by organisations or whether it is a crime issue to be dealt with by the police and crime prevention officers. Indeed, McGeer (2004) suggested that one reason for few businesses taking steps to address high levels of anti-social behaviour might be because lawlessness is traditionally seen as the prerogative of the police. Furthermore, the Home Office (2004) discussing the ‘Small Retailers in Deprived Areas’ (SRDA) initiative reported that some individual businesses viewed the SRDA initiative as a way to boost their competitive edge rather than as a vehicle to improve security and safety. However, it has also been suggested that assaults and abuse connected with work activities are starting to be seen as a health and safety issue and the separation of criminology and Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) is likely to blur with increasing levels of occupational violence (Mayhew, 2000; Shapland, 1995).

Whatever view is believed, various literature refers to the legal responsibilities of managers under health and safety legislation and hence moves the focus away from violence being a crime and security issue to it being a health and safety issue. Employers have legal duties under the Health and Safety at Work Act ‘to ensure as far as is reasonably practicable, the health, safety and welfare of their employees’. This duty includes risks arising from physical or verbal violence at work and, as such, usual health and safety risk assessment processes apply. By addressing workplace violence as a preventable hazard, employers can develop practical and effective strategies to protect their employees from serious health and safety risk. (OSHA, 1998; Poyner, 1988; Scottish Executive, 2004; USDAW, 1999)

While some employers take the control of work-related violence seriously, there is evidence that some do not. Indeed, the International Labour Office (2003) suggested that the recognition of workplace violence as a major threat to health and safety needs to be enhanced. It has been suggested that incentives for employers (particularly small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs)) may help to raise the profile of the management of work-related violence, and initiatives such as the Scottish Executive’s scheme rewarding good practice in training and prevention already exist (Scottish Executive, 2004).

2.2 RELEVANT LEGISLATION

Various pieces of legislation relevant to work-related violence are discussed within the literature (Beswick et al, 2003; GMB, no date; HSE, 1995, 1997, 2002; Scottish Executive, 2004; Unison, 1997, 2003; Zarola and Leather, 2006). The main legislation is summarised below:

Health and Safety at Work Act (HSWA) 1974

This Act places a legal duty on employers to ensure as far as reasonably practicable the health, safety and welfare of employees and that their employees work in a healthy and safe environment. Under the Act an employer has an obligation to ensure any potential risk of violence is eliminated or controlled. Unison (1997) reported that this legal duty is often ignored or minimised and the response to it is reactive or focuses more on the individual than the organisational context.

Management of Health and Safety at Work Regulations (MHSW) 1999

Requires employers to consider risks to employees and carry out a risk assessment to protect employees from exposure to reasonably foreseeable violence. A risk assessment is an
examination to determine what hazards exist in the workplace, to establish significance of risk, to identify and implement prevention measures and to produce a clear management achievement plan. Employers also have a requirement to appoint competent people, set up emergency procedures, provide information to employees and work together with employers sharing the same workplace. In addition, employees have a requirement to use the information/training received and to report dangerous situations/shortcomings in health and safety arrangements.

USDAW (1999) noted that the MHSW Regulations ACOP specifies the adoption of a ‘hierarchy of control’. Mayhew (2000) also recommended that strategies should be based on the Occupational Health and Safety ‘hierarchy of control’. This hierarchy involves the following:

1. Elimination of risk by removing the hazard is preferred.
2. If elimination is not possible, substitution with a less hazardous work process or improved equipment or technology is preferred.
3. Third choice is re-design of work equipment or work process to reduce risks.
4. Fourth choice is isolation of the hazard.
5. As a last resort administrative controls and use of personal protective measures is selected.

The Reporting of Injuries, Diseases and Dangerous Occurrences Regulations (RIDDOR) 1995

Employers must notify the relevant enforcing authority in the event of an accident resulting in death, major injury or absence from work for three or more days. This includes physically violent incidents. However, RIDDOR does not cover threats and verbal abuse.

Safety Representatives and Safety Committees Regulations 1977

Health and Safety (Consultation with Employees) Regulations 1996

Employers must consult with safety representatives on all risk assessment steps. Safety representatives represent staff on matters of health and safety (H&S). They may take up any issues of concern and have legal rights to raise H&S complaints with management, investigate hazards and complaints, inspect workplaces, investigate accidents/incidents, obtain information and facilities from employers/inspectors to help them carry out the safety representative role, insist on safety committees etc. The MHSW Regulations also give safety representatives the right to be consulted by the employer on information and measures used for the H&S of their members. Independent research reported by GMB (no date) has shown that where trade union safety representatives operate, employees are 50% less likely to have an accident. Under the Health and Safety (Consultation with Employees) Regulations 1996, employers must inform and consult with employees on matters relating to health and safety.

Finally, related to legislation is the issue of compensation. Walsh (2006) discussed various possible changes to financial compensation related to violence and some implications of these. In December 2005 the Government launched a Green Paper on supporting victims of crime, which suggests that the current scheme for compensating victims of crime (i.e. Criminal Injuries Compensation Scheme) should focus payment on those who suffered serious injury. This means that employees who suffered lesser injuries during employment may now be excluded from seeking compensation and these claims will have to be met solely by employers. Also, if
such changes take place in 2006, more claims from lesser-injured people will go to civil courts. Walsh suggests that a standard ‘Employers Liability Insurance Policy’ is unlikely to cover injuries to staff due to violent crime if there was no fault found on the employer. It is expected that victims will allege that employers failed to reduce the risk of violent assault or deal appropriately with an employee following an incident. Therefore, employers will need to look carefully at insurance cover (with the overall cost of insurance cover likely to increase) and ensure they have a risk assessment fully implemented for the risk of violence. USDAW (2003a) reported the USDAW ‘Legal Plus’ scheme that gives legal assistance to members that are injured in criminal attacks. However, they noted that it is important that members act quickly and report the incident to the police, employers and the USDAW representative within 48 hours unless injuries prevent them from doing so.

2.3 STATISTICS

Statistics on the level of work-related violence within the licensed and retail sectors come from a variety of sources including national household surveys (e.g. the British Crime Survey) and surveys of memberships (e.g. USDAW surveys). It is widely believed that there is a significant level of under-reporting of work-related violence (this is discussed in some detail in this review) and this combined with inevitable weaknesses in survey methodologies means that an accurate picture of the nature and extent of work-related violence is unlikely. However, the following sections of this review summarise some of the evidence.

The Home Office published the latest figures (for 2003/04 and 2004/05) on work-related violence from the British Crime Survey (BCS) in October 2005 (viewed from the violence pages of the HSE website, www.hse.gov.uk). From these figures it shows that the number of incidents of violence (assaults and threats) experienced by workers in England and Wales in 2004/05 was 655,000.

2.3.1 Retail

There have been a variety of statistics for the occurrence of work-related violence in retail premises. For example, USDAW website information reported that between 1995 and 2002 there were 118,000 physical violence victims, 250,000 threats and 500,000 verbal abuse incidents. Furthermore, USDAW reported:

- An average of at least one shop worker in Britain is attacked every hour of every working day.

- 47% of members reported physical attacks in the last 12 months.

- 72% reported threats of physical violence (frequency varied from 23% reporting violence only once or twice in the last year to 25% reporting violence at least once a week).

- 86% reported verbal abuse in the last year (36% said it was a daily occurrence and 59% said it happened at least once a week).

- 48% knew of examples where staff were off sick as a result of violence or threats resulting in mental stress, worry, insomnia, depression, sickness, being irritable etc.

- 41% knew of people forced to leave work/change jobs due to fear.
Three quarters of members reported that they were very or fairly worried about being physically attacked at work (this is higher than the actual incident percentage so effects of physical violence may extend beyond physical injuries).

87% of members reported being very or fairly worried about verbal abuse.

Examples of such physical violence, threats and verbal abuse included:

- A cashier stabbed in arm during robbery;
- An employee hit by customer who lost their temper because they could not authorise a refund.
- When approached for stealing, a drunken gang threatened they would get the manager’s wife and baby;
- When collecting trolleys an employee was threatened with a knife.
- Employees receive verbal abuse when they refused to sell alcohol to young customers or when they refuse to refund for no proof of purchase;
- Customers become impatient whilst queuing at tills or because staff did not have the goods the customer wanted. (USDAW, 2002b, 2003b).

In a later survey of shop workers and managers (660 staff surveys were completed and 113 managers forms were completed), USDAW (2004a) reported the following statistics during the survey week:

- Abuse (887 incidents), threats (224 incidents) and violence (107 incidents).
- Wide variation of incidents between stores (40% had few incidents).
- 57% of workers were fairly or very concerned about verbal abuse and 21% were very concerned.
- 64% of workers were fairly or very concerned about threats and 28% were very concerned.
- 65% of workers were fairly or very concerned about violence and 36% were very worried.
- Managers’ survey showed that police attendance to violence call-outs was 48% and 62% to incidents without violence. 59% said there was a generally good response, however, 60% reported that the response time was over one hour and 40% under one hour.
- Only 30% of managers were aware of their local crime and disorder reduction partnership (CDRP) and only 15% of managers were contacted by the CDRP (but 88% of those contacted found them helpful).

In a study of over 500 independent retailers, the Association of Convenience Stores (2004a) studied retailers’ views of violent crime and police responses and found the following:

- 80% of retailers believe the problem of violent crime and anti-social behaviour is getting worse.
61% believe police efforts to help have not improved.

Only 27% believe the police are doing better.

38% of attacks saw no police action at all and if police visits were made 27% saw no follow up action compared to 15% in the same poll last year.

Only 13% of retailers said they have had any contact with their local Crime Reduction Partnership compared to 35% last year and only 10% of local stores said they were involved in any local community scheme.

The Safety and Health Practitioner (2003b) reported, from the British Retail Consortium’s (BRC) 10th annual crime survey, that in 2002 there were 16,200 physical assaults against staff, 48,600 threats of assault and 70,000 incidents of verbal abuse. The BRC (2005a, 2005b) also reported the following statistics for 2003 and 2004.

- Verbal abuse rose by 35% in 2004 compared to 2003. The number of incidents of verbal abuse per 1000 employees rose from 23 in 2003 to 31 in 2004, and per 100 outlets there was an increase from 159 (2003) to 223 (2004).

- The number of incidents of threats of violence per 1000 employees fell from 47 in 2003 to 19 in 2004, and per 100 outlets there was a decrease from 318 (2003) to 135 (2004) incidents (but a substantial increase from 30 in 2001).

- Physical violence was up 14% in 2004 compared to 2003. The number of incidents of physical violence per 1000 employees rose from 7 in 2003 to 8 in 2004 and per 100 outlets there was an increase from 43 (2003) to 62 (2004).

- Theft incidents rose by 18%. There was an increase from 2886 incidents in 2003 up to 3385 incidents of customer theft for every 100 retailers in 2004.

- There was a 9% increase in the cost of crime (value of losses from crime and crime prevention costs) (£1.96 billion in 2003 up to £2.13 billion in 2004). They suggested that investment did not work as £3.5 billion was spent on crime prevention over the past five years but losses were more than £7 billion.

Despite these high statistics for retail crime and violence, Robson and Teague (2005) reported that crime incidence in the retail, wholesale and motor trade category for assault on owners/staff was only 5%. However, the incidence of robbery was 11% and shoplifting was 38%, and a lot of violent crime can result from these types of crime (as reported in the third bullet point of Shury et al (2005) below). Indeed, the BRC’s 11th annual retail crime survey found that customer theft accounted for 63% of physical violence incidents and robbery accounted for 6% (BRC, 2004b).

Shury et al (2005) reported a large number of findings from the second Commercial Victimisation Survey 2002 (a national survey of crime against business premises in England and Wales), the following of which were relevant to retail.

- 1 in 4 retailers were subject to some sort of violent crime.

- Repeated victimisation was common for some crimes, including threats and assaults for which a relatively small number of businesses account for the vast majority of incidents, e.g. 94% of 1.7 million incidents were directed at just a third of victims.
Experience of threats and assault was strongly linked to victimisation by a range of other crimes including theft, vandalism and attempted burglary.

Retailers open for long hours (more than 9 hours per day on average) or that were located in deprived or more urban areas were more likely to be the victim of violent crime/robbery or be concerned about teenagers hanging around.

The use of a firearm during a robbery was rare (7%) but a knife was used in 21% of robberies. The use of a firearm of knife was more prevalent in more deprived areas.

After dark, one in four retailers had some concern for safety. Perceptions of anti-social behaviour were reflected by 32% of retailers feeling that ‘teenagers hanging around’ was a fairly or very serious problem (this could reflect a genuine increase in such behaviour or simply an increase in the national debate on such issues). This concern was felt less by more isolated retailers where risk of crime is lower and gangs do not hang around.

Comparison with the first 1994 survey showed that there was a slightly higher prevalence of violent crime amongst retailers of all sizes, 23% compared to 20%, although this was accounted for by higher rates of violence against larger retailers. However, the apparent increase may partly reflect changes to employers recording practices following the introduction of RIDDOR legislation in 1995 that requires employers to report serious incidents of violence to their enforcing authority.

Finally, the following statistics are related to the problem of retail violence in the US but while these are not UK-relevant, they do show the extent of the retail violence problem and provide a useful worldwide context. Casteel et al (2004) found that violence accounted for 99% of all deaths among liquor store employees in the US. In an analysis of data from the Bureau of Labour Statistics Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, Janicak (1999) reported that retail has the highest fatality rate with 1.66 deaths per 100,000 employed and the highest homicide rate with 1.57 homicides per 100,000 employed. Also, of 918 fatalities reported, 18.5% were the result of a violent act and of these, 74% were in retail. Over 57% occurred between 7pm and 3am and the majority of these were related to robbery incidents. It was suggested by Licata (2000) that many retailers fail to recognise the threat of violence. For example, retail trades account for 85% of non-fatal assaults and more than half of murders. In 1997, 665 retail staff were fatally injured and 59% of these were homicides. Peek-Asa and Howard (1999) studied inspection and investigation practices of different industries for violence/security and found that, despite still being under-represented by inspections, retail was inspected for violent events most frequently. Such retail inspections were most commonly initiated by accident reports (45%) or employee complaints (38%) and were most likely in response to Type I violence (robberies and criminal activity – this type of violence accounts for almost 80% of homicides and at least 30% of non-fatal assaults).

2.3.2 Licensed Premises

There is considerable evidence linking the incidence of violence to the consumption of alcohol, and this is likely to have an impact on the incidence of violence towards staff working in licensed premises. However, information on work-related violence within such premises is not prevalent. Statistics have shown that there is an estimated 1.2 million incidents of alcohol-related violence in the UK (Cabinet Office, 2003; Gates, 2000). Also, the Home Office in October 1999 reported that a third of assaults and threats were due to alcohol and 17% due to drugs. The TUC, in January 1999, reported that violence in hotels and pub/restaurants had increased by 3% in the last five years (Gates, 2000). Later statistics suggest that the incidence
for assault on owners/staff in the Hotels and Restaurants category was 11% (Robson and Teague, 2005).

Some references reported specific statistics relating to violence in licensed premises. In the ‘Tackling Alcohol-related Street Crime’ project, Maguire and Nettleton (2003) reported the following:

- 61% of alcohol incidents involved physical violence.
- Over half of the alcohol incidents (and the most violent ones) were outside licensed premises.
- 42% of arrestees had previous arrests for violence.
- Door staff were victims or alleged assailants in 16% of violent incidents. Luke et al (2002) found that doormen were felt to be responsible for 11% of assaults.
- Most common assault was punching and kicking. In 10% bottles were used.
- Most injuries were minor but 12-15% were more serious.

Furthermore, Richardson et al (2003) cited statistics showing that alcohol use was linked to violent crime.

- Binge drinkers were more likely to offend than other young adults (39%) and binge drinkers are five times more likely to admit to fight incidents.
- Young male binge drinkers were particularly likely to offend (49%).
- One quarter of male binge drinkers reported being involved in violence.
- The frequency of drunkenness was strongly associated with violent crime and fighting. Those people that are drunk at least once a week are five times more likely to be involved in violent crime or fighting.
- Young adults admitted to fights more during or after drinking.

There seems to be some disagreement in statistics relating to violence in licensed premises. For example, Leather et al (1997) reported that a significant proportion of licensees are exposed to either verbal or physical violence on a regular and alarming basis with statistics such as 38% experiencing shouting or abusive language at least once a week, 17% experiencing it daily, 30% experiencing fights without weapons, 22% experiencing fights involving weapons and only 6% saying they had never experienced any of these types of incidents. In contrast, Marsh and Fox (1992) reported that 36% of pubs experience disruptive arguments between customers only once a month and that the majority of pubs have little violence with only 6% of pubs reporting fights every week and only 5%/1% of managers reporting being attacked monthly/weekly. However, these differences may reflect the different times that the two research projects were done. Furthermore, Marsh and Fox (1992) suggested that some companies had reduced the number of managers being attacked by implementing training programmes for managers, implying the success of such a preventive measure.

The existence and use of weapons in violence in licensed premises has also been covered. Coomaraswamy and Shepherd (2003) reported that glasses and bottles were used as weapons in about 10% of all assaults and bar glassware had been identified as the principal weapon in licensed premises violence. Furthermore, it was found that injuries inflicted with glass were
more serious than injuries sustained by bottles. Similarly, in a study of hospital usage, Luke et al. (2002) found that patients were attacked with glass bottles or receptacles in 19% of assault cases.

Finally, Homel et al. (2004) showed that reductions in violence could be made if a programme of measures is introduced. For example, following the Queensland Safety Action Project, major reductions in aggression and violence were observed. For example,

- Arguments decreased by 28.2%
- Verbal abuse decreased by 60.4%
- Challenges and threats decreased by 40.5%
- Assault rates declined by 81.2%

2.4 UNDER REPORTING

There was a general agreement within the literature that violence is greatly under-reported. “With the current culture of under-reporting of retail crime, these figures may well only be the tip of the iceberg…” (BRC, 2005b)

For example, Leather et al. (1997) refers to this gross lack of reporting of violence at both the national and organisational level and gives estimates in the UK suggesting that between 30 and 80% of physical assaults go unreported. Robson and Teague (2005) also cited statistics regarding the under-reporting of crime in the retail and licensed premises categories:

- Retail, wholesale and motor trade – only 3% report assault, 8% report robbery, and 13% report shoplifting.
- Hotels and restaurants – 7% report assault, 8% report robbery, and only 2% report shoplifting.

Moreover, the level of under-reporting is thought to be even higher for verbal abuse or threats of assault. Therefore, it is easy to see that the problem of workplace violence, although potentially large, may be largely unrecognised.

A few references referred specifically to licensed premises when discussing the under-reporting problem. For example, Poyner and Warne (1988) noted that little data is available to show the extent of the violence problem in pubs. The extent of reporting is believed to be low (e.g. in 1986 there were only 15 reported incidents including cash transit robbery, pub raids, intervening and armed revenge/assault, resentment when asked to leave or refused service etc). There is a view held by some individuals working within the licensed and other sectors that some violence is inevitable and accepted (fatalism), so only serious incidents are reported. Therefore, it is suggested that reporting be encouraged, e.g. by using telephone reporting systems, to overcome this problem. Poyner and Warne also reported that there seems to be a difference between ‘managed’ pubs, where the brewery has more control and therefore there are more reports, and ‘tenanted’ pubs that run on their own and therefore report work-related violence less. Homel et al. (1992) and Cusens and Shepherd (2005) noted that police statistics greatly understate the extent of alcohol-related violent crime because most alcohol related assaults are not reported and because police often seem reluctant to record alcohol-related assaults. Homel et al (1992) suggested that surveys of injured persons presenting at hospital for treatment might allow a clearer picture of the true incidence of pub-related violence. Finally, Berkley (1997) highlighted
the kind of threat that may prevent licensed premises from reporting incidents, “A club with too many police calls can find itself fighting for its operating license”.

Home Office (2004) research shows that there is also substantial under-reporting of crimes against small businesses and the SRDA case study surveys back this up. Business owners were asked whether they had reported the most recent incident of each crime type they had experienced over the previous 12 months and it was found that typically 59% of these crimes had not been reported to the police. Similarly, in a survey of Sheffield independent small retailers, it was found that while verbal abuse was the most common incident occurring (representing 93% of incidents), this problem was not often reported as a crime and police involvement was low unless it developed into a more serious incident (Press et al, 2001).

2.4.1 Reasons for under reporting

There were many reasons given in the literature for why people may be reluctant to report crime and violence. The main reasons found are discussed below:

- **Acceptance of a culture of aggression.** Many people mistakenly regard/accept verbal abuse as ‘part of the job’ (fatalism), especially security workers. Furthermore, many service workers are encouraged to diffuse customer hostility with the customer service mantra, ‘the customer is always right’ meaning that they could be likely to simply absorb lots of verbal abuse (Boyd, 2002; GMB, no date; Scottish Executive, 2004; Standing and Nicolini, 1997; Unison, 1997, 2003).

- **Fear of being perceived as incompetent and unable to deal with the job.** Employees may think that it reflects badly on them and shows their failure to handle the situation. Studies on the effects of work-related violence find that self-blame is common among victims and so they do not report. This may be especially so for men as they do not like to admit failure (Scottish Executive, 2004; Standing and Nicolini, 1997; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003b).

- **Lack of reporting procedures or reporting procedures that are time consuming, onerous or too complicated.** Victims are discouraged due to not knowing how to report. Because verbal abuse is so common, staff may not want to fill in a time consuming form each time they experience it so in these cases it may be preferable to use staff meetings to discuss it or use diary sheets to briefly record it (Scottish Executive, 2004; Standing and Nicolini, 1997; Unison, 1997, 2003).

- **Risk management is not part of the work culture.** Employees do not feel encouraged by management to report incidents and they may worry that the manager does not treat reports seriously or that no action will be taken. Also, they may feel that there is a lack of support from other employees (Scottish Executive, 2004; Standing and Nicolini, 1997; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003b).

- **Lack of confidence in police response.** There is a belief that the complaint will not be dealt with seriously by the police or that the police can or will not do anything (“nothing will get done so why bother” attitude). Factors such as previous experience of the police not catching or prosecuting offenders (20% of retailers have reported this) or the speed of response to the reporting of a crime being a major dissatisfaction (40% of retailers) may also impact on the lack of confidence in the police response. Also, a belief that the perpetrator is not dealt with seriously enough, that crime largely goes unpunished and that the consequences for the offenders are not strong enough to deter them from committing offences again was also suggested (BRC, 2005b; Hibberd and Shapland, 2002).

- **Reporting offences only adds to the aggravation being experienced.** Victims may not want the attention to add to the distress that they already feel and post-crime trauma can impede a victim’s ability and willingness to formally report an incident (Mayhew, 2000; Scottish Executive, 2004; Unison, 1997, 2003).

- **Fear of reprisals and that the offender will seek revenge** (Hibberd and Shapland, 1993; McGeer, 2004; USDAW, 2003b; Young and Douglass, 2003).

- **Triviality.** Many crimes and anti-social behaviour are sometimes seen as too trivial to report or not serious enough, or are not worthwhile reporting because nothing was stolen or the loss was too small to bother about (Hibberd and Shapland, 1993; McGeer, 2004; Shapland, 1995; Shury et al, 2005).

- **Lack of training** (Scottish Executive, 2004).

- **Associated costs.** Costs to employers such as time off for employees to attend court are not worth it (Scottish Executive, 2004).

- **Victim’s relationship with an offender** (Young and Douglass, 2003).

- **Violence was perpetrated by the injured person** (Young and Douglass, 2003).

- **Publicity concerns** (McGeer, 2004).

Robson and Teague (2005) cited statistics regarding reasons for non-reporting of work-related violence in the retail and licensed premises relevant categories:

- It will not achieve anything – retail 48%, hotels/restaurants 43%
- Police do not find criminals – retail 34%, hotels/restaurants 28%
- Crime is not serious enough – retail 24%, hotels/restaurants 27%
- Lack of proof – retail 20%, hotels/restaurants 21%
- Police are not interested – retail 25%, hotels/restaurants 20%
- Could not identify offenders – retail 20%, hotels/restaurants 16%
- Time consuming – retail 17%, hotels/restaurants 15%
- Fear of reprisals – retail 5%, hotels/restaurants 6%
- Fear of negative publicity – retail 2%, hotels/restaurants 4%

Retail and Hotels/Restaurants were most likely to report the top three reasons above. There also appears to be a negative view of the police system: it was recognised that police systems should be changed so that police have business crime as a key performance indicator, instead of focusing on domestic crime. Also, it was suggested that police statistics should class business crime as a separate category so that they can see the true extent of this crime rather than submerging it within domestic crime statistics.
2.4.2 Better reporting

A few references considered factors that may encourage reporting:

Poyner and Warne (1988):

- Encourage the feeling that incidents should not be tolerated in the job.
- Organisational policy to report incidents.

Shury et al (2005):

- Improvements in police responsiveness could have a very positive effect on levels of reporting.

Standing and Nicolini (1997):

- Increasing awareness of the issue – the BCS showed that reporting of work-related violence increased during the 1980s and 1990s.
- Differences in the perception of what counts as work-related violence – this is bound to be affected by subjectivity in what is considered violent but also likely to be influenced by the wider concern for violence due to greater awareness.
- Introduction of stricter policies and greater reporting requirements by some employers may prompt higher reporting.

Various authors have recognised the need for the development of more adequate reporting systems. MAYBO (2004a) and USDAW (2003a) reported that one top tip for reducing assaults on staff was having a simple and effective violence reporting process to help build up a true picture of the risks. Indeed, the International Labour Office (2003) reported that organisations need a system of recording violence and violent incidents to raise awareness and learn about the causes, nature and severity of violence, the extent of violence in different areas and contributing factors. Also, USDAW (2005a) noted that any system for reporting incidents should include reporting of threats and incidents that are work-related but happen outside work, e.g. while travelling. The Scottish Executive (2004) noted that model guidance on the importance of reporting workplace violence to employers should be agreed.

USDAW (2005b) suggested keeping a record of refused sales, for example, as such information could be used to ban a young person from the store or as police evidence for an ASBO. Indeed, one example of the success of how reporting and recording all incidents of violence, abuse and threats can prevent incidents was noted by USDAW (2004b): a convenience store in Bradford used an incident diary from the police and when the staff told the youngsters that the store was collecting evidence they saw an immediate reduction in incidents.

This need for better reporting systems was why the British Retail Consortium (BRC) launched SCAR (Stop Crime Against Retail). This initiative calls for police to modify the system of crime reporting to encourage victims to report crimes, and calls on the government to work with sectors to raise awareness of the impact of crime and violence against retail. Retailers must be assured that police do take crime seriously and crime reporting by police needs modification (BRC, 2005b).

To improve the reporting situation and make a reporting system more effective, there should be:

- Clear commitment from senior management to make the system work.
- Simple to fill in and readily available reporting forms that are more than a simple accident book so as to capture verbal abuse etc.
- Training for employees to ensure they understand the importance of reporting.
- Specific management training on encouraging staff to report.
- Involvement of union H&S reps to help get the message across. (USDAW, 2003b).

Also, the Association Against Business Crime (AABC) website (2006c) cited benefits of an effective reporting system:
- Provides evidence on strengths and weaknesses of measures.
- Foundation for risk assessment and violence strategy.
- Essential base of data to work on.
- Establishes hot spots/issues leading to aggression.
- Trigger for staff care.
- Training issues can be identified.

### Statistics: summary

- The majority of data on the incidence and types of violence are available for the retail sector. There is little information on the licensed sector.
- There is evidence to suggest that work-related violence goes largely unreported.
- Verbal abuse is the most common form of work-related violence.
- Work-related violence statistics vary in what aspect of work-related violence is reported. For example, some surveys suggest 72% of retailers experienced threats of physical violence in the last year and 20% of retailers were subject to some sort of violent crime.
3.1 RISKS

Model

Poyner and Warne (1988) detailed a framework for analysing work-related violence. Figure 1 below lists some important aspects of the assailant, the employee and the work environment, which influence the likelihood of assaults occurring (i.e. risks). It also lists examples of the kinds of interaction and outcome commonly involved in assaults. More details on each of these sections are given below.

**Assailant**
- Personality
- Temporary condition
- Negative/uncertain Expectations
- Immaturity
- People with dogs

**Employee**
- Appearance
- Health
- Age and Experience
- Sex
- Personality and temperament
- Attitudes
- Expectations

**The Interaction**
- Giving a service
- Caring
- Education
- Money transactions
- Delivery/collection
- Controlling
- Inspecting
- Robbery
- Vandalism
- Interaction wrong = violence

**Outcome**
- Verbal abuse
- Threats with weapon
- Physical injury
- Attempted injury
- Angry behaviour

*Figure 1: Elaborated model of violent assaults at work (taken from Poyner and Warne, 1988).*

**Assailant:**
- Personality – history of violent and unsociable behaviour.
- Temporary Conditions – alcohol, drugs, illness, stress with unpredictable effects.
- Negative/uncertain expectations – expecting a negative interaction or in a bad mood.
- Immaturity – cannot control behaviour / peer pressure / group effects.
- People with dogs – can encourage aggressive dog behaviour.

**Employee:**

- Appearance – physical/heavy build, uniforms may provoke violence (but can discourage it too).
- Health – mental illness, stress, reduced patience.
- Age and Experience – older age raises expectation of competence / experience and improves reactions and confidence.
- Sex – women can calm customers, people generally do not hit women or women may be more vulnerable.
- Personality/Temperament – natural at difficult situations.
- Attitudes – influence behaviour to public and tolerance of public.
- Expectations – expectation of having to control rowdy people.

**Work Environment (physical setting/organisation culture and relationships):**

- Working alone – isolation.
- Job location – local area provides knowledge of clients etc.
- Cash handling – risk of robbery, especially in retail.
- Waiting and queuing – reduces tolerance and may create crowd effect.
- Time – may be more risk at certain times and days of week, e.g. pub drinking.
- Territory – people feel more secure or better behaved in their own premises.
- Privacy – being overheard with confidential information.

**Interaction:**

- For the likelihood of violence to increase there must be direct contact, either physical or some other transaction, and a feeling of unfairness.

**Outcome:**

- Verbal abuse, threats, weapons, injury, anger etc – it is practical to include all these terms under the general term of violence as the outcome can involve all the above.

**Risks**

There are numerous environmental, population and operational factors that are reported in the literature as being associated with robbery/theft or violence/aggression. The list below covers the main risk factors that have been discussed. They are either quite general and may apply to both retail and licensed premises or they refer more to retail. Some more specific information on licensed premises is also discussed later in this section.
**Environmental**

- Those employed in high crime or deprived areas (Licata, 2000; Mayhew, 2000; McGeer, 2004; Nelson et al, 1997; OSHA, 1998). Also, Hendricks et al (1999) mentioned having a low percentage of high school graduates in the area (strongest association), high percentage of people on public assistance, low median rent and stores close to graffiti and subsidised housing.
- Lack of customers or nearby businesses allows anonymity and limited observation from passers-by (Amandus et al, 1997; Janicak, 1999; Mayhew, 2000; OSHA, 1998). Indeed, Amandus et al (1997) reported a lower probability of employee injury when customers were present in the store during a robbery, as customers are seen as witnesses and so may be a disincentive to violence.
- Easy access/escape routes, e.g. ready access to cars/motorways for escape or a number of exits from a premise (Janicak, 1999; Licata, 2000; Mayhew, 2000; OSHA, 1998).
- Layouts designed to facilitate movement of shoppers in and out of stores mean that tills and kiosks selling tobacco and lottery tickets are located near doors; therefore, they are potential targets for robbers. Also, layouts comprising tills located along walls or an obstructed view of counters (Allen, 2000; Hendricks et al, 1999; OSHA, 1998).
- Poor visibility from outside shop to inside and poor lighting (Hendricks et al, 1999; OSHA, 1998).
- Older buildings and structures (strongest association) or newer and independent stores. Also, stores not located in shopping centres. (Hendricks et al, 1999).
- Environment factors such as overcrowded/busy premises, poor ventilation, dirty and noisy etc (Boyd, 2002; Unison, 1997, 2003).

**Population**

- High percentage of single males in the population or presence of groups of males who are strangers (Graham and Homel, 1997; Hendricks et al. 1999). Graham and Homel (1997) also noted that in-group/out-group perceptions, particularly among males, might lead to aggression.
- Inexperienced and younger staff – lack of experience, age and maturity may mean they cannot deal as well with overbearing customers or aggressive behaviour (Boyd, 2002; Mayhew, 2000), yet many job opportunities for young workers are in the hospitality and service industries (Mayhew, 2000).
- Marginalized populations (Graham and Homel, 1997).

**Operational**


- Night and shift workers, including late evening work such as stores staying open until 10pm or 24 hours (Allen, 2000; Amandus et al, 1997; Beswick et al, 2003; Licata, 2000; Mayhew, 2000; Nelson et al, 1997; OSHA, 1998; USDAW, 2005a). Amandus et al (1997) reported that 59% of robberies were at night time (9pm – 3am).

- Those who work alone, e.g. at supermarket petrol stations (Allen, 2000; Boyd, 2002; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2002; Licata, 2000; Mayhew, 2000; OSHA, 1998; RoSPA Occupational Safety and Health Journal, 2002; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003a). Indeed, Smith (2006) reported on a real life example of an armed robbery on an off-licence shop and noted the risk of lone working in licensed retail premises. However, Amandus et al (1997) noted that employee risk of injury was not significantly different between one and multiple employee stores.


- Working in establishments selling/guarding expensive items, medications, highly valuable items or alcohol/tobacco (Beswick et al, 2003; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2002; Mayhew, 2000; McGeer, 2004; Unison, 1997, 2003). Indeed, Smith (2006) reported on a real life example of an armed robbery on an off-licence shop and noted the risk of high demand goods in licensed retail premises.

- Dealing with customers/shoplifters under the influence of drugs or alcohol or that have mental health problems (Beswick et al, 2003; European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2002; McGeer, 2004; Press et al, 2001; USDAW, 2005a).

- Refusing to sell restricted goods to customers (e.g. drinkers or smokers) who are under age or are without identification or refusing to sell alcohol after licensing hours (Association of Convenience Stores, 2005a; McGeer, 2004; USDAW, 2003b; USDAW, 2005b).

Indeed, in a study of over 500 independent retailers it was found that local stores are being targeted for violent crime, related to the sale of alcohol by people under the influence of alcohol. Alcohol was a factor in 72% of the reported incidents. Alcohol was cited as being “often” the reason for a violent crime in 34% of incidents and “sometimes” in 38% of cases (Association of Convenience Stores, 2004a).

However, Norstrom and Skog (2005) reported that during a trial of Saturday opening of alcohol retail shops, there was a significant increase in alcohol sales of 3.7% but no change in assault indicators. Therefore, increased accessibility of alcohol may increase consumption but did not increase alcohol-related harm (therefore more alcohol may not necessarily increase violence).

- Delivery of goods or services (OSHA, 1998).

- Opening and closing are particularly risky times. Key holders can feel particularly vulnerable (USDAW, 2005a).

- Poorly managed organisations and working under pressure due to excessive workloads, inadequate stocks or staff shortages. This may slow employee performance and lead to delays, queues and customer impatience and hostility (Boyd, 2002; European Agency

- Dealing with angry customers in disputes/complaints, e.g. over goods, services and refunds, allegations of short changing or cash mistakes or non-authorisation of card purchases (Beswick et al, 2003; Press et al, 2001; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003b; Walsh, 2006).

MAYBO (2005a) reported that 13.2 million Britons experience major ‘tantrums’ during shopping trips. Their survey found that long queues at tills are the greatest cause of retail rage; almost a third of Britons admitted this made them lose control. Bored sales staff and crowds of other shoppers took second and third position. Other reasons included rude sales assistants, out of stock items and poor car parks. In addition, a survey of 800 workers by recruitment website Retail Choice found that almost all of them had regularly suffered at the hands of rude shoppers with almost two out of three saying they had been shouted and sworn at. These results are interesting as they show that violence may come from ‘normal shoppers’ and not just as the result of crime.

**Other**

- Previous experience of robbery, assaults or threats (Amandus et al, 1997; OSHA, 1998). Amandus et al (1997) reported that 47% of robberies were in stores robbed before. However, they also reported a lower probability of employee injury with stores robbed multiple times.

- Lack of security measures such as cameras or security personnel meaning that there is low risk of detection and minimum protection (Janicak, 1999; Mayhew, 2000; OSHA, 1998).

- Perception by offenders that violence is ‘easier to get away with’ (e.g. retail compared to banks etc) (Janicak, 1999).

- Intervening during theft by staff attempting to prevent it or confronting those who are trying to steal (Press et al, 2001; USDAW, 2003b; Walsh, 2006).

- Troublemakers deliberately trying to cause conflict, staff asking known troublemakers to leave or young people congregating outside shops (McGeer, 2004; Press et al, 2001; USDAW, 2003b; Walsh, 2006).

- Evidence of a weapon (from American studies by Amandus et al, 1997; Hendricks et al, 1999). Amandus et al (1997) reported that 63% of robberies involved a firearm. However, they also reported a lower probability of employee injury with firearm use (compared with no weapon or blunt instrument).

Standing and Nicolini (1997) separated out risk factors into invariant ones (i.e. cannot be changed) and manipulable ones (i.e. that may be able to be altered). For example:

- Invariant/constrained risk factors:
  - Organisational purpose
  - Location
  - Size
\begin{itemize}
  \item Cash handling
  \item Client base
  \item Characteristics of employees
\end{itemize}

\textit{Manipulable risk factors:}
\begin{itemize}
  \item Management style and culture
  \item Staffing levels
  \item Recruitment and selection procedures
  \item Working process and cash handling procedures
  \item Risk assessment routines
  \item Staff expectations and awareness
  \item Organisational awareness and proactivity
  \item Degree of organisational isolation
\end{itemize}

3.1.1 \textbf{Licensed Premises}

The literature suggested some risks specific to licensed premises.

Norstrom (1998) reported that assaults were significantly related to the consumption of beer and spirits in pubs and homicide was related to the consumption of spirits in private contexts. Therefore, this data suggests a link between alcohol consumption and violence.

Various references reported factors that influence levels of violence related to alcohol or interacting factors that contribute to excessive drinking and possible violence (e.g. Cabinet Office, 2003; Cusens and Shepherd, 2005; ICAP, 2002; Marsh and Fox, 1992; Richardson et al, 2003; The Portman Group website). For example:
\begin{itemize}
  \item Individual characteristics such as lower age (16-29 years), single males, impulsive and aggressive personality, less stable family life/background, unskilled, social class of customer etc.
  \item Attitudes and motivations, e.g. desire to push limits and difficulty judging limits, drinking linked to freedom, relieving stress or anger, using alcohol as an excuse, beliefs that aggression is expected if drinking etc.
  \item Macho subculture of drinking and social and peer group norms, e.g. friends encourage extreme behaviour, drunkenness as an accepted excuse for violence, group overconfidence, standing up for friends/self, social tension/prejudice.
  \item Management factors, e.g. management skill and style, time manager is in post, manager experience.
  \item Risk taking and dis-inhibiting effects of alcohol.
\end{itemize}
Binge drinking effects such as cognitive impairment or hyper emotional effects of alcohol, e.g. overconfidence, impulsivity, aggression in response to aversive stimuli, lack of awareness and control, blurred judgement.

Permissive environment of some licensed premises, e.g. encouragement of abuse, swearing, sexual activity in patrons, door staff behaviour etc.

Drinking environment and external characteristics, e.g. licensing laws, ‘trouble spots’, crowded venues, inadequate access to bar, stale air and smoke, loud noise, irresponsible venue policies, pool tables, heavy drinking culture, low price and availability, advertising and low price promotion, beverage type and brands, lack of late night transport, poor town centre layouts, lack of late night venues.

Pub locations and design (e.g. council estates or urban centres).

Marsh and Fox (1992) reported some specific statistics on conflicts and incidents in licensed premises. They noted that conflicts and violent incidents might arise due to the manager’s obligation to control behaviour. The following refer to perceived reasons for violent incidents in Marsh and Fox’s study.

- Refusal to serve 32%.
- Attempts to eject 30%.
- Fight intervention 19%.
- Prevention of theft 10%.
- Revenge attacks 5%.
- Other disputes 4%.

Violent incidents that are experienced in licensed premises involve the following situations (Marsh and Fox, 1992). However, the proportions of these factors vary greatly from pub to pub.

- Provoked by individuals 32%.
- Arising from the pool table 20%.
- Involving women 18%.
- Involving rival groups 5%.
- Involving weapons 22%.
- Involving injuries 30%.

Beale et al (1998) also reported some statistics on licensed premises risks:

- Misbehaviour by customers (33%), in regard to closing (11%).
- Arguments between customers (23%), involving staff and customers (10%).
- Barred customers entering premises (9%).
After staff involvement, injury to staff (38%) and damage to property (31%).

Monaghan (2002) reported risky work practices specifically for door supervisors:
- Refusing entry.
- Keeping doorway and stairways clear.
- Removing ‘resistant people’ and preventing such customers from regaining entry.
- Ensuring a steady flow of customers through the entrance.
- Refusal to take drinks outside.
- Searching for weapons and drugs.
- Asking customers to drink up and leave.

Finally, an Australian study (Stockwell et al, 1992) found that nightclubs, taverns and hotels (pubs) emerged as “high risk” license types in comparison with clubs and restaurants, suggesting that there is a higher probability that customers of nightclubs, taverns and hotels (pubs) will be involved in incidents of alcohol-related harm. This makes intuitive sense in that nightclub, taverns and hotels (pubs) provide continuous entertainment and little food, potentially increasing the risk of violence, while clubs are restricted to members so have little crowding, and restaurants serve food. The type of clientele attracted to high-risk establishments may also influence the increase in alcohol-related offences. Therefore, license type may be an important risk factor and targeting of such high-risk premises may be a useful prevention method. Also, Stockwell et al noted that high-risk license types could be made priorities for the introduction of responsible server training, community policing and stricter enforcement of liquor licensing legislation.

3.1.2 Special Groups at Risk

There are a variety of groups of workers who may be at specific risk of violence, such as young workers/teenagers, temporary workers or women. These will each be discussed briefly below. It should be noted that the literature on ‘at risk’ groups tends not to be based on a UK sample and is not particularly sizeable.

Young Workers

Janicak (1999) analysed US data from the Bureau of Labour Statistics Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries. Results indicated that workers aged 19 and under experienced a significantly greater proportion of fatalities due to violence in retail: 2.5 times greater than expected when compared to non-retail industries, over 2 times greater than workers of this age in other industries and over 1.5 times greater than expected in this age group.

Runyan et al (2005) conducted a telephone interview/questionnaire study of teenage workers in retail in five US states and found that teenagers worked in contexts that may have a higher risk of work-related violence:
- Working at night - Teenagers working after 7pm on at least one school night ranged from 32% - 82%. Up to 34% worked after 10pm.
- Working alone – As many as 52% of teenagers worked alone during the day and more than one fifth worked alone at night (higher for males).
- No supervision – 26% to 36% of teenagers worked without a supervisor present.
- Many reported not having been trained to deal with angry customers, robbery and sexual harassment (fewer than half had training in handling robberies).

However, despite these risks, few teenagers felt in danger and few expressed concerns for their safety. Nevertheless, the authors discussed whether it may be appropriate to consider restrictions on work for teenagers to minimise their exposure to dangerous work situations. For example, limit employment in high-risk settings (late night retail), locations (high crime area), conditions (working alone) and times when most violence occurs (after dark, particularly on weekends).

**Temporary workers**

Mayhew and Quinlan (2002) surveyed 304 young temporary workers in an Australian fast food chain using Fordist work systems (mass production, standardised products/routines/technology etc.). They found that:

- Casual workers faced an elevated risk of low-level violence (48.4% verbally abused / 7.6% threatened / 1% assaulted on-the-job in the last year). Levels of violence were higher than in other occupations, such as building or manufacture, but lower than hospitality (bar/hotel) workers.
- The majority of young casual workers believed they received less training than they actually did, but they still had occupational health and safety (OHS) knowledge. It was hypothesized that they did not recognise on-the-job training or that OHS training is integrated into all on-the-job training.
- The risk of occupational violence linked to robberies was high in some locations and challenged the company control measures – temporary employment magnified the difficulty of managing violence. It was suggested that the tightly controlled Fordist system did not mitigate the risks of violence in temporary workers.

The authors also suggest that temporary workers are at risk because:

- Precarious employment is associated with more intense output pressure.
- Precarious employment is linked to various forms of disorganisation, e.g. inadequate training and experience, disruption to communication flows, de-emphasis on OHS and difficulty involving them in OHS programmes etc.
- Precarious employment has a tendency to undermine OHS regulatory regimes because they are on site for shorter periods of time, work variable shifts and are unfamiliar with company systems.

**Females**

Fisher and Gunnison (2001) found that in some jobs females are more at risk (1992-1996 violence towards women was up 17%). Also, more robberies were committed against females employed in retail than men. Explanations could be that there is simply a lack of crime prevention and security measures in place or that there is larger exposure of females to unfamiliar people. Also, Janicak (1999) reported that while general homicide rates were 3.1 to 5.7 times higher for men than women, women in retail establishments have the highest homicide rates.
Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises

Small shops are not usually a risky environment in and by themselves, their risks are likely to be strongly related to other shops nearby and general offending levels in the area (Hibberd and Shapland, 1993). However, they may have some characteristics which could classify them as being a special group at risk.

Risk Factors and Statistics

In a US study Mayhew (2002) reported that SME risk factors for work-related violence include:

- Significant levels of face-to-face contact with customers.
- Location in high crime areas.
- Minimal worker protection as few workers on site.
- Limited observation from passers-by.
- Ready access to roads for robber getaway.
- Number of possible exits from site.
- ‘Hot products’ – high market value and readily resold.
- Exchange of money and evening trade. (These factors could also be applicable to larger organisations).

The small businesses reported to be most at risk were hotel/motel businesses (75%), pharmacies (62%), newsagents/post offices (57%), non-food retail shops (56%) and general stores/supermarkets (55%). Mayhew (2000) also noted that the process of risk identification, risk assessment and risk control are less apparent in small businesses.

However, the level of risk that SMEs have is not necessarily clear. For example, Shury et al (2005) reported that the smallest retailers with one or two employees were least likely to experience violent crime or assaults/threats regardless of their location or what they sell, despite the apparent vulnerability due to lack of presence of other staff. Larger retailers with at least 50 employees were more likely than others to have suffered crime, robbery and assaults/threats due to increased number of potential targets in the larger establishments.

The BRC (2005b) reported the following statistics for SMEs:

- The number of incidents of verbal abuse per 1000 employees fell from 731 in 2003 to 435 in 2004 and per 100 outlets there was a slight decrease from 446 (2003) to 400 (2004).
- The number of incidents of threats of violence per 1000 employees fell from 215 in 2003 to 52 in 2004. SME retailers experienced 48 incidents per 100 outlets in 2004.
- The number of incidents of physical violence per 1000 employees fell from 23 in 2003 to 4 in 2004. SME retailers experienced 4 incidents per 100 outlets in 2004.
- On average, SME retailers experience 3369 incidents of theft per 100 outlets each year and since 2000 the level of incidents have increased by over 100%.
Press et al (2001) reported some statistics from their survey of Sheffield independent small retailers. They found that verbal abuse was the most common incident occurring (93%). However, this problem is not one that is often reported as a crime, and police involvement is low unless it develops into a more serious incident. Violence against staff was found to be 29% but violent crimes seemed to be more of a problem in the city centre.

Hibberd and Shapland (1993) interviewed small shop owners in the London and Midlands area and reported statistics on the incidence of crime and violence.

- **Robbery.** The frequency of experiencing at least one incident in the last 12 months where violence was used during robbery/attempted robbery was 26% in London and 17% in the Midlands. The majority used weapons and took place in the afternoon/early evening.

- **Till snatches** were less common but they were still reported (13% in the Midlands and 9% in London in the last 12 months).

- **Assaults.** Direct physical violence against shopkeepers was relatively rare (4% in both London and the Midlands in the last 12 months) but this did not include shopkeepers assaulted in the course of robbery or apprehending a shoplifter. Most of these incidents arose out of disputes and arguments.

- **Argumentativeness.** General violence or argumentativeness was a frequent occurrence for a substantial number of shopkeepers (26% London, 36% Midlands). The threat of violence was also in shopkeepers' minds (11% in both London and the Midlands in the last 12 months). Such risks came from asking someone to leave who is acting suspiciously, disputes about prices/returned goods or other forms of complaint and children or teenagers causing trouble.

- **Verbal abuse.** Abuse from people who were drunk or disturbed was a common feature of working in a small shop (22% in London and 47% in the Midlands in the last 12 months). Shops serving alcohol tended to suffer most from this type of incident that tended to begin as a dispute over prices or refusal of credit. General verbal abuse arose from arguments or disputes between the shopkeeper and customer. Also, a consistent theme in the survey was that serious trouble could be avoided by overlooking insults and minor harassment.

- **Shoplifting and violence** occurred either through ‘ flaunted shoplifting’ (29% Midlands, 36% London) or ‘apprehended shoplifting’ (21% Midlands, 17% London).

**Barriers to Reaching SMEs**

A variety of references reported some form of barriers to reaching SMEs with regards to violence prevention information and interventions (e.g. Hibberd and Shapland, 1993; HSE, 1995; Mayhew, 2002; Press et al, 2001; Shapland, 1995; Standing and Nicolini, 1997). Examples of such barriers include:

- **Lack of time/resources** reduces their willingness or ability to attend training or meetings about co-operative activities or to invest in crime prevention measures.

- **Small shops** often have few employees, all of whom are not always present at the same time, high turnover and long working hours. These factors can make it more difficult to deliver advice and training to this group or to get all staff together to discuss risks and possible solutions.
- The cost of physical security and design may be prohibitive in small shops (however, simple measures such as effective concealment of tills or procedures to ensure only minimum amounts of cash in tills are affordable).

- Mailed information may not be trusted unless it is sent by an intermediary. Also, any mail shot or initiative would need to be repeated or delivered by local people (e.g. community police officers or LA H&S inspectors).

- Preference for face-to-face contact.

- Can tend to listen to peers more than government officials.

- Small retailers do not always read leaflets and they can dislike reading detailed guidelines.

- Absorb industry specific information better.

- The paucity of advice reaching small shopkeepers (except maybe some from the police) may lead to isolation of such shopkeepers.

- SMEs may not have access to specialist information, knowledge and advice and can lack IT skills to access Internet based information.

- SMEs often have a fatalistic attitude to the problem of work-related violence and crime.

- Some small retailers often do not think they can affect their own environments.

- Small retailers rarely keep statistics and records to know when there are problems.

- Small retailers may not think that health and safety regulations apply to them or that they need to engage risk management. They also tend to think that HSE information does not apply to them. Some SMEs may not have the skills and tools in-house to carry out risk analyses.

- Police are not necessarily aware of the extent of the problem in small shops since robberies in small shops can be classified together with other robberies (from muggings to extortion between children). As a result, no particular crime prevention effort has been made.
Small retailers may know who is responsible for crime and are reluctant to challenge them for fear of recriminations.

Risks: summary

- Poyner and Warne’s model suggests a framework for understanding work-related violence. Aspects of the perpetrator, employee and the interaction between the two can impact on the outcome.

- Specific risk factors for both the retail and licensed sectors include aspects of the environment, population (both staff and customers) and organisation’s operation. They include factors such as:
  - Poor visibility from outside shop to inside
  - Inexperienced or younger staff
  - Cash handling
  - Selling/guarding valuable items

- Some risks can be changed, others cannot.

- Some risks are specific to licensed premises, such as:
  - Risk taking or dis-inhibiting effects of alcohol
  - General drinking environment, e.g. crowded venues, inadequate access to bar etc

- Young workers, temporary workers, females and SMEs may be particularly at risk compared to other workers.

3.2 RISK ASSESSMENT

“Violence is a health and safety risk and should be managed within the health and safety framework” (Walsh, 2006), yet many fail to recognise that violence must be managed with the same rigour as other hazards. Risk assessment lies at the heart of violence management but it has been suggested that many employers struggle or make no attempt to assess the risk of violence. The purpose of risk assessment is to identify the extent and nature of risks, factors contributing to risk and changes necessary to eliminate or control risk. In order to help employers who may avoid risk assessment because they do not understand it, Unison (1997, 2003) defined some key terms:

- Hazard – anything that can cause harm to people, including verbal and physical abuse.

- Risk – the chance, great or small, that someone will be harmed by the hazard.

Standing and Nicolini (1997) defined violence in terms of Type 1 and Type 2 violent incidents:

- Type 1 incidents include violence where the person has no legitimate link to the organisation. Preventive strategies for this type of violence are more concerned with the manipulable aspects of the context and organisation and less with manipulable aspects of the assailant or employee. There is more use of ‘target hardening’ measures such as environmental and security controls.
- Type 2 incidents include violence where the person is the receiver of organisational services. Preventive strategies could influence key aspects of the context and to some extent characteristics of the assailant. Training staff in protective strategies should complement security measures.

A tool that may be used to help employers meet their legal duty of assessing risks was discussed at a Northumbria Coalition Against Crime workshop in February 2006. The D.O.V.E system (Designing Out Violence – Explained) is a computer programme that involves a process of risk assessment based on staff and management surveys. The programme analyses key responses to questions and selects appropriate recommendations to reduce risks and create a secure working environment. It focuses resources on physical security, management policies and training and helps employers to deal with violence as a management issue. Successful trials have been done on this programme and feedback was positive.

A wide variety of literature discusses the concept of risk assessment and the stages it involves, e.g. identifying the problem, identifying preventive measures, implementing measures and monitoring measures (AABC website, 2006c; GMB, no date; Home Office, 2006; HSE, 1995, 1997, 2002, 2003; International Labour Office, 2003; Mayhew, 2000; OSHA, 1998; Poyner and Warne, 1988; Shapland, 1995; Swanton and Webber, 1990). Some details from these references are outlined below.

Poyner and Warne (1988) and Unison (1997, 2003) discuss a practical method of tackling violence to staff, with all steps being essential for effective problem solving:

**Recognising the Problem**

- Need to recognise the problem and check if it is not an isolated occurrence.
- List jobs where staff are in direct personal contact with the public.
- If violence is suspected, there should be a sounding of all staff levels to preliminary investigate the matter but not raise undue concern or expectation.
- Find out about the range of incidents in which staff feel threatened, in the words of the employees, possibly using the unions or health and safety representative for this.
- If there is a problem, initiate a formal system of reporting incidents. If there is no problem, identify aspects of practice that are responsible for the lack of violence.

**Recording Incidents**

- Records for serious incidents are usually kept by organisations but are often seen as individual cases, retained by the legal department or on individual files. This information can be difficult to retrieve.
- Records of violence are often kept with accident records, which may have a different emphasis and retrieval system.
- Purpose-designed violence reporting systems are needed and communicated (based on accident record, special proforma or written report). Information on all aspects of the risk framework posited by Poyner and Warne could be covered.
**Classifying Violent Incidents**

- If data show repeated incidents, then prevention should be attempted. If they are isolated or dissimilar incidents, there is no case for prevention. Incidents can be classified according to the framework posited by Poyner and Warne (figure 1 above).

**Searching for Preventive Measures**

Examine each aspect of the risks framework posited by Poyner and Warne (figure 1 above) to assess scope for intervention. For example:

**Assailant**, for example:

- There is unlikely to be much scope to change assailant behaviour, however employers could put up notices about violence policies to inform the public of the behaviour that is expected of them (e.g. poster of the regulations regarding sale of drink to juveniles).
- Attempts to modify assailant characteristics, e.g. banning alcohol in football crowds, can be made.

**Employee**, for example:

- Deployment of vulnerable staff to less risky work.
- Increasing staff confidence by organisational policies and information given to staff.
- Training to ensure that staff are more competent in dealing with work-related violence.
- Select people with specific characteristics/experiences.

**Interaction**, for example:

- Redesign work so that face-to-face contact is not necessary or cash is no longer involved in transactions.

**Work Environment**, for example:

- Change width or height of pub bar counter.
- Design setting to control people/crowd movement.
- Improving environmental quality to influence behaviour, e.g. privacy, noise.

**Outcome**, for example:

- Reduce severity by intervening using protective clothing.
- Warning system to reduce seriousness of assault, e.g. discreet emergency buttons, alarms or cash dye.
- **But**: the value of skilful handling of aggression should be paramount.

**Designing a Preventive Strategy**

- Deciding which measures to use involves consideration of both cost and effectiveness.
Several measures combined may be most effective.

Consider acceptability of measures or resistance to measures.

Some solutions may provoke aggression, e.g. screens.

Ease of implementation – a mix of short and long term measures may be useful.

Local law enforcement agencies, security management companies, insurance auditors or loss prevention specialists may be able to provide advice on prevention.

**Implementing Measures**

- This is dependent on design of the strategy and the determination of staff and managers. It is useful if measures are implemented as part of existing processes, e.g. pub used the refurbishment programme to include staff safety.

**Monitoring Effect of Measures**

- Monitoring allows effective measures to be sustained and less effective measures to be replaced or modified. Information is needed on whether measures are used or not.

**Managing Process**

- It is important that management (or security/safety department) facilitate and commit to discussions about work-related violence and take responsibility. Management and staff committees should be set up to oversee the process, develop reporting procedures and discuss solutions. Involving a senior management representative is helpful, as is the involvement of other departments to implement solutions, e.g. personnel/training or engineering.


1. **Identify hazards**
   
   Establish the extent of the problem and what are the most significant causes of violence – checking lists of risk factors (see risks section of this review for lists of violence risk factors), speaking and listening to staff or their representatives, monitoring sickness absence and turnover and reviewing injury and illness records, police records and anonymous surveys etc. Focus on significant hazards that could result in serious harm or affect several people. Wishful thinking (“it won’t happen to us”) should be avoided. Good risk assessment depends on good communication with workers exposed to the risk. Union H&S representatives can be a useful channel for such communication.

2. **Decide who is exposed to the hazards**

   Think about particular factors that may be problems for particular groups – e.g. fear of violence may be more likely for those who are in contact with the public. Also, do not forget groups such as young workers, trainees and lone workers who may be at particular risk.

3. **Evaluate risks and decide on preventative and protective measures**

   Consider how likely it is that each hazard will cause harm and assess whether risk is high, medium or low. The aim is to reduce risks by doing all that is reasonably practicable. In
consultation with staff, decide on and implement measures. The best solutions are those that eliminate the risk or reduce it to as low as possible – e.g. fear of violence may just need simple improvements in physical security or work organisation that need not be costly.

4. Keep a record of the assessment

If five or more people are employed, a record of significant assessment findings is vital to check what is happening at the workplace against the assessment and to show that all aspects are being addressed. Communicate the findings to employees. Employers who have fewer than five employees do not need to write anything down, although it is useful to keep a record of the risk assessment. The written record is useful to show H&S inspectors or in the event of a civil liability action.

Other documents can be referred to if they already list hazards and precautions, e.g. H&S manual or policy and procedures, company rules etc.

USDAW (2003) and Unison (1997, 2003) suggested that a written record of the risk assessment should include:

- Brief description of the risks/hazards and risks specific to that premise.
- Details of the groups of workers exposed to the risks.
- Brief details of preventive measures in place to prevent or reduce risks as well as additional measures needed and who is responsible for implementing them.
- Date when the risk assessment was last reviewed and will be reviewed again.

5. Review and revisit the assessment

Reviewing/revising the assessment is vital if there are any significant (not trivial) changes to the job/situation, though generally reviewing the assessment periodically is useful to monitor whether the precautions are still working effectively and to learn lessons about the risks and prevention in place.

OSHA (1998) suggested that maintaining records is needed to enable employers to monitor and evaluate if prevention measures are working. Such records can include:

- Records of employee injuries.
- Records describing incidents (Mayhew, 2000, includes an incident investigation schedule).
- Written hazard analyses.
- Recommendations of police etc.
- Records of actions taken to deter violence.
- Notes of safety meetings and training.

OSHA (1998) further emphasises that employees are an important source of information with experience and insight of the workplace and should therefore be involved in violence prevention including:
- Participating in surveys and offering suggestions on safety.
- Participating in developing and devising procedures to minimise violence risk.
- Assisting in the security analysis of the workplace.
- Participating in performing routine security inspections.
- Participating in training.
- Participating in the evaluation of control measures.
- Sharing on the job experiences to help other employees recognise and respond to violence.

Finally, some of the literature provides more detail about the exact aspects that need to be considered when assessing risks. There are a variety of checklists to assist in this process and some examples of them are detailed below.

OSH Service, New Zealand (1995) suggested that risk assessment should consider:

- Type of business.
- Type of merchandise stored/sold.
- Hours open.
- Numbers of staff working and their hours.
- Sitting and location of workplace.
- Physical characteristics.
- Incidence of crime in the area.
- Past robbery history.

Furthermore, addressing risks should include consideration of the following areas:

- Protecting premises.
- Security of cash/drugs/valuables.
- Key control.
- Opening and closing routines.
- Access to premises.
- Training and supervision of staff.
- Using and maintaining security equipment.
- Action during robbery and helping staff afterwards.
- Liaising with police/media etc.
Similarly, ODPM (2004) noted that during risk assessment the following information needs to be gathered and analysed, and the following types of questions asked:

- What crimes are taking place and how often?
- How are crimes being committed?
- Where are crimes being committed?
- When are crimes committed (time of day, day of week, time of year etc)?
- Why are crimes committed (what are the motives for offending)?
- Is the site in, or close to, a known hot spot or honey pot?
- Does the area have characteristics such as unemployment, drug abuse etc that may make people more likely to offend or be victims?
- Does the existing layout of the built environment make crime and disorder more or less likely?

The Home Office (2005) also provided tips on carrying out a ‘business security survey’, including questions and considerations of risks and potential measures. They suggested working to the ‘onion peeling principle’, which involves starting at the outside and working inwards, thereby considering preparation – environment – perimeter – shell – interior – people – procedures (further details on these layers can be found in the ‘combination of measures’ section at the end of this review). In each of the layers mentioned above there is a need to think about how to:

- Increase the effort for the criminal.
- Increase the risks of the criminal being caught.
- Reduce the rewards of crime.
- Reduce the provocation to crime/remove excuses.

In addition, the Home Office Scientific Development Branch developed a ‘Safer Hospitals and Safer Schools Toolkit’ aimed at crime reduction in schools and hospitals, as well as other public buildings (this can be found on the Home Office Crime Reduction Website, www.crimereduction.gov.uk/toolkits). The toolkit contains easy to follow examples and templates to help identify and address crime issues and assess why crimes and incidents occur in their site or building. It provides information on how to tackle these problems through design or management of premises. The guide provides a step-by-step approach on how to:

1. Gather crime data.
2. Identify vulnerabilities by ‘walking the site’.
3. Model surveillance: identify areas that are overseen or well used and areas that are hidden from view.
4. Assess which risks are most immediate.

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5. Develop long and short-term strategies to address the problems.

6. Implement the strategies.

Finally, Westminster Licensing Policy Appendix 7 (2005) listed the following considerations/questions in relation to assessing the risks for drinking in outdoor areas of licensed premises:

- Ensure glass is not taken outside the premises.
- Are staffing levels adequate to monitor customers and outside drinking?
- Is the queue supervised outside the venue?
- Is crime prevention literature displayed outside?
- What crime prevention initiatives are in place for outside?
- Does the venue allow outside drinking?
- How are customers supervised outside?
- How are risks assessed regarding passing pedestrians and traffic?
- How are numbers of persons outside controlled (capacity)?

It is important to be specific when assessing risk, otherwise there is a danger of imposing ‘one size fits all’ solutions with the likelihood of them not working. Indeed, the BBPA (2003) noted, “In every case a risk assessment should be carried out for each individual property and type of operation.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk Assessment: summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Risk assessment lies at the heart of violence management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance on carrying out a risk assessment is available from a number of sources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checklists and toolkits from the field of crime prevention also provide employers with useful tools to help them to assess risks and start to devise effective control strategies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 CONTROL MEASURES IN RETAIL AND LICENSED PREMISES

One overarching measure that is advocated by the literature is the need to raise awareness of the unacceptability of violence to staff. Indeed, the Scottish Executive (2004) suggested that there should be a public awareness campaign on the unacceptability of assaults and this should be refreshed annually.

There is also a wealth of information on specific measures that can be taken to address violence in retail and licensed premises. This information comes from Government sources, unions, trade associations, academic journals, the trade press and violence-related organisations. Despite this wealth of information, Robson and Teague (2005) noted that many businesses do not invest in crime prevention until they have suffered a crime (i.e. reactive response) because crime prevention is not a high enough priority when cash and resources are required for other aspects of the business.

Robson and Teague’s (2005) report for the Federation of Small Businesses provided some statistics on the use of selected violence prevention measures for retail and licensed premises. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crime Prevention Measure</th>
<th>Hotel and Restaurants category (%)</th>
<th>Retail, wholesale and motor trade category (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hired security firm</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Installed/upgraded security alarm</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Installed extra security systems</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Installed CCTV</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought advice from police</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significantly increased insurance cover</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set up/joined a Business Watch scheme</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arranged for transport to take staff to/from work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moved/considered moving to another area</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Statistics on the use of various crime prevention measures from Robson and Teague (2005).

Such statistics appear to show that security systems/CCTV are the most popular prevention measures. Further details on these and various other measures are discussed in the following sections, shedding light on the wide variety of control measures that can be used to prevent and manage the risk of violence and those that are considered to be more or less effective.
4.1 POLICIES/PROCEDURES

The Home Office (2006) cited that organisations must ensure that there are clear policies and procedures on issues in the workplace that are understood by all staff, and policies on violence are no exception. AABC (2006b) noted that ‘all’ staff must include new and part-time employees. Unison (1997, 2003) and USDAW (2002a) noted that it is in the employer’s interests to develop policies to prevent violence and abuse because health and safety law requires it. The Safety and Health Practitioner (2003a) and Health and Safety at Work (2003) reported that staff fare much better when employers take the threat of violence seriously.

This section of the review presents the generic and overarching aspects of a policy in work-related violence. Specific control measures that a policy could well refer to are described in later sections. A variety of references discussed the areas that a good policy on violence should cover (e.g. AABC Website, 2006c; HSE, 1995; International Labour Office, 2003; MAYBO, July 2004; Standing and Nicolini, 1997; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003a, 2003b; USDAW, 2002a, 2002b; USDAW, 1999). These include:

- Purpose, scope and definitions of work-related violence, including the recognition that violence is a health and safety issue.
- Have clear objectives.
- Indicate commitment from top management and support for actions targeted at creating an environment free from violence.
- Employer statement that no violence is tolerated, that violence is unacceptable and that it does not show failure.
- Guarantee a blame free approach.
- Involvement of other agencies and networking with other retailers, police, LAs etc. Policies should be jointly developed and agreed with unions. Dialogue between employers, workers and other agencies is a key element in the successful implementation of anti-violence policies.
- Who it affects and ensure it applies to everyone.
- Responsibilities for implementing a policy and what senior management, regional management, local management, staff and union reps have responsibility for (policies are only effective if everyone is involved)
- The importance of risk assessment including methods for assessing risks.
- The importance of reporting systems including reporting and recording procedures.
- Tackle the underlying causes of conflict and violence, e.g. refund policy.
- Arrangements for safe working methods - measures to prevent, control and eliminate violence including risk reduction through procedures, environmental design, physical security, improved service etc and training. Training should include management and employees and should refer to the importance of training for staff to effectively implement the policy.
- Measures relating to the intervention and management of violent incidents, including action to be taken if a violent incident occurs, so staff know what to do and support staff
involved in incidents, how to deal with it and what support is available (e.g. counselling).

- Arrangements for consultation, monitoring and review of the policy, as well as effective communication of the policy to staff. Union H&S representatives provide a reliable channel for communication with workers. Consultation with employees is vital as they are likely to have invaluable experience of the job and are more likely to commit to the violence policy if they have been involved.

**Management Commitment**

Management commitment and having clear roles and responsibilities are also discussed as an important aspect of policy development. For example, OSHA (1998) reported that management should demonstrate its commitment to violence prevention through:

- Creating and disseminating a policy.
- Taking all violent and threatening incidents seriously and investigating them.
- Outlining a plan for maintaining security.
- Assigning responsibility and authority for the plan to individuals or teams.
- Holding managers and employees accountable for their performance.
- Taking appropriate action to ensure staff follow controls.
- Instituting procedures for prompt reporting of violent incidents and ensuring that employees who do report are not punished.
- Encouraging employees to suggest ways to reduce risks of violence.
- Working with other parties such as police and safety agencies to reduce risks.

USDAW (1999) reported that to be successful there needs to be clear commitment from senior management to violence prevention and a policy helps make that commitment clear. Furthermore, Hayter (1994) noted that management have to give the impression that safety of staff is a major concern. For management to establish order and commitment in this area Hayter suggested the following:

- Establish clear and consistent standards.
- Combine firmness with fairness, such as having the same rule for everyone and dealing with trouble decisively.
- Create a sociable, friendly atmosphere where aggressive behaviour will seem out of place and less likely. Get to know customers and make them feel welcome. However, balance friendliness with professional detachment.
- Ensure staff understand roles and responsibilities in preventing trouble.

**Roles and Responsibilities**

In terms of roles and responsibilities, the International Labour Office (2003) considered the responsibilities different groups of people should have. For example:
- Government – assume leadership in developing and applying preventive interventions through research, guidelines, legislation, finance, collaboration.

- Employers – have a duty to implement the policy and promote practices that eliminate violence. They should follow risk management procedures and ensure a risk assessment is carried out, measures are taken and training is developed all in consultation with workers.

- Workers – take care to prevent violence including co-operating with employers in risk assessment, policy development and attending appropriate skills training, adhere to preventive measures and report violence.

Findorff et al (2005) conducted a brief evaluation study concerning a violence policy. They evaluated knowledge of and use of a violence prevention policy in an organisation. Results suggested that there was some awareness of the policy but that it was often not acted upon. For example,

- There was some awareness of the violence policy: 61% of the sample were familiar with policy and 55% had received the policy brochure.

- There were low levels of reporting. For physical and non-physical violence, many did not report it to the supervisor (43% physical / 61% non-physical) or HR (97% physical / 89% non-physical). Also, 32% of employees experiencing physical violence and 8% of employees experiencing non-physical violence said violence is seen as ‘part of the job’.

- Most employees did not use organisational resources, e.g. employee health services/EAP, following violence. There were reasons suggested for not using these services such as confidentiality concerns, lost work time, supervisor repercussions if assistance is sought and services not seen as needed.

Therefore, it was considered that the policy had not been effective due to low levels of reporting and employees not using the post-incident services and support. However, in response to the study findings the EAP manager formed a violence prevention committee to request more data, disseminate results and produce newsletters to promote policies.

**Retail Premises**

As well as general violence policies, it has been suggested that management should adopt policies regarding various retail work practices to eliminate violence risks. For example clear and consistent policies for refund claims, alleged short changing etc, as well as staffing levels to avoid queues (USDAW, 2003b).

USDAW (2002b) reported that 57% of members were not satisfied that the employer was doing all they could to protect staff from violence, even if local managers were trying, e.g. decisions on spending on guards, CCTV, improved lighting etc are out of the control of the local store manager. Support of local managers made a massive difference to staff fear and confidence. Therefore, there is a clear need for policies and procedures to be in place and managers to be trained in their use.

Examples of specific policies relevant to the retail sector include:

- Policy that allows workers to leave their checkout if they are being verbally abused on the till – works because checkout staff know they will be supported by their manager.
A manager spoke in private to a customer that was harassing a cashier telling them not to go to that cashier again—works because it sends a clear message to staff that they do not need to take harassment and that management supports it.

**Licensed Premises**

An Australian study (ICAP, 2002) concluded that violence could be reduced by changes to management within licensed premises. With this in mind they suggested that key areas/policies might include:

- Alcohol supply policy
- Crowd control policy
- Service efficiency policy
- Inter-community relationships

Various other references describe specific policies that may be relevant to licensed premises. For example:

- The Brisbane Safety Action Plan advocated tougher license conditions on premises trading after 1am, including the display of policies relating to withholding alcohol (Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).
- Use of entry policies, particularly during specific events such as football matches. For example, some pubs and clubs in one city wanted to keep football fans off their premises and so operated a policy of only allowing mixed groups and couples into the premises. Single men and groups of men were not permitted (however, occasionally customers would become antagonistic and insulting) (Monaghan, 2002).
- Produce a clear security policy and ensure staff are aware of it (BBPA, 2003).

**Policies/Procedures: summary**

- An organisation wide policy on the prevention and management of work-related violence should be implemented.
- Management commitment to the policy should be made clear.
- The wider government, employers and employees all have roles and responsibilities in the prevention and management of work-related violence.
- Policies about risks specific to licensed premises, such as their alcohol supply policy or crowd control policy etc, should be implemented.

**4.2 LEGAL OPTIONS**

The relationship between controlling the risk of violence to staff with legal options for addressing violent and criminal behaviour may be an important link to consider. Indeed, Anderson (2002) noted that having the violence team under the legal department at one large
company helped the violence prevention programme to flourish as the legal department could provide good advice and could lend ‘clout’ to the programme. There are a variety of legal options considered below and where the information is specific to licensed or retail premises this is noted within each section (e.g. Luke et al (2002) suggested that a national code of practice for clubs, already in existence voluntarily, should be made mandatory).

**Industry-wide Regulations**

Nelson et al (1997) reported information that suggested a positive effect of having regulations in a US context. Their study concerned a US regulation requiring employers to implement robbery/crime training. Despite low awareness of the crime protection regulation (4.4%), results suggested that regulatory efforts to protect high-risk employees (e.g. groceries, petrol stations, hotels, restaurants, pubs etc) were associated with employers’ robbery and crime prevention activities (i.e. training). Employers that were covered by the regulation and those more aware of the regulation (e.g. retail) were more likely to have crime prevention training programmes. Also, employers that had an OSHA (occupational safety and health administration) contact such as a consultation or inspection, were part of a chain or had been robbed in the last 5 years were more likely to have a prevention programme. Also, employers open between 11pm and 6am and located in areas isolated from other businesses were less likely to have a programme, suggesting where resources could be targeted. It was noted that continued efforts are needed to promote awareness of the regulation and its requirements to implement crime prevention, as well as where to target efforts.

**The Licensing Act 2003**

The majority of information surrounding regulations found during this review concerned licensed premises and the Licensing Act. The Westminster Licensing Policy (2005) reported that a licensed premise is that which sells/supplies alcohol, provides regulated entertainment and serves late night refreshment after 11pm. The Licensing Act (2003) came into force in 2005 and was designed to promote public safety and prevent crime and included the ending of permitted hours and the introduction of choosing opening hours; the tightening of under-18 sales; and changes to children’s access to licensed premises. However, there has been much debate about these new laws regarding opening hours.

Marsh and Fox, writing back in 1992, noted that the recommendations regarding opening hours were to:

- Avoid peaks of people and disorder (e.g. between 11-12pm or 2-3am).
- Avoid increased probability of conflict / ’showing off’.
- Ensure police are not overwhelmed.
- Avoid overstretched transport facilities and food outlets.
- Avoid rushed drinking at ‘last orders’.

They also noted that there are conditions to changing or extending opening hours. The question of extending licensing hours attracted and continues to attract debate with the media, with suggestions that the new Act will lead to 24 hour drinking.

A BBC News article (2005) reported that some individuals were expressing concern that longer opening hours will lead to an increase in violent crime. In contrast, the government and the British Institute of Innkeeping (2002) believe that introducing flexible licensing and stopping
drinkers heading home at the same time will reduce flashpoints of trouble at 11pm. Police evidence suggested that problems stem from the rush of people on transport, in cafes etc that can lead to violence flare-ups. Staggered closing means people leaving gradually in smaller groups, which is better for crowding and may mean less binge drinking just before closing. However, 9 out of 10 applications for changes to their opening times only applied for an extra 1 or 2 hours suggesting that closing may not be that staggered.

There is some evidence within the literature relating to whether such flexible opening hours may be effective or not. For example, the BII (2002) reported evidence from the Isle of Man who recently introduced such a system and saw very positive reductions in disorder. Also, mainland Europe’s licensing hours are more relaxed and they have less incidents of violence. For example, changes to ‘free closing’ in Holland led to a marked reduction in drink crimes and found no increases in drinking. Also, staggered closing in Scotland has been found to be favourable; Marsh and Fox (1992).

Cusens and Shepherd (2005) reported that licensing changes such as longer trading hours in New Zealand and Australia were associated with increased alcohol consumption but low-level disruption and violence. However, also in Australia, after controlling for the general trend in assaults in Perth hotels (pubs), Chikritzhs and Stockwell (2002) found a significant increase in monthly assault rates for pubs with late trading following the introduction of extended trading permits (increased assault rates by 54.5% compared to only 18.75% increase for hotels without an extended trading permit). This relationship was largely accounted for by higher volumes of high alcohol content beer, wine and spirits purchased by late trading pubs, greater numbers of patrons and increased intoxication. It was concluded that late trading was associated with increased violence and increased alcohol consumption, therefore, systematic planning and evaluation of late licenses is required. However, some confounding variables that may have affected the finding included:

- Increased patronage for some pubs may have led to greater levels of crowding which may contribute to increased levels of violence.

- Patrons leaving pubs at extended trading closing times may have found it difficult to access public transport as the availability of buses, trains and taxis is reduced in the early morning hours.

- Since some pubs opted for extended trading and others did not, this self-selection process may have brought with it other features specific to those pubs, e.g. pubs within a city or with a more aggressive management style were more likely to have applied for extended trading. Or it may be that when opening hours are extended, other features of the pub are also changed, e.g. new approach to entertainment, drinks promotions, different clientele etc.

- The overall increase in assaults reported to police might have been due to changes in policing practices, e.g. zero tolerance policing policy or police/licensee accords etc.

**Byelaws**

Some of the literature referred to the introduction of byelaws. This legal option has been discussed more in relation to licensed premises.
Case Studies:

- Stroud had a byelaw passed in 2000 to make street drinking illegal, which has been reported to have had a major impact. Troublesome venues have been closed and a ‘Behave or be Banned’ policy exists in licensed premises (ODPM, 2004).

- Argyll and Bute Council and Coventry Council brought into force a byelaw prohibiting the consumption of alcohol in designated areas and outside licensed premises. These were seen as a great success; Argyll and Bute was judged by police as significantly reducing the level of drink-related disorder and Coventry had public support and reduced anti-social behaviour, drunkenness and verbal abuse (The Portman Group, 1998).

Further evaluative information was provided by The Portman Group (1998). They reported that in 1988, 7 LAs tested the effectiveness of a byelaw making it an offence to drink alcohol in designated areas after being warned not to do so by the police. The evaluation concluded that the byelaw should be made more widely available, which it was in October 1990. By 1997, 42 LAs had introduced the byelaw and a survey concluded that the byelaw had a positive effect, especially in relation to rowdy and anti-social behaviour (however, it had no effect on underage drinking or criminal behaviour). Factors considered to be linked to the success of this byelaw were how long the byelaw was in place and whether it was part of a wider initiative.

Finally, the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005) announced a package of support in November 2005 to ensure that enforcement authorities make the most of the new tougher powers to deal with alcohol-related problems. The package includes a ‘How To’ guide, a government guidance website (www.together.gov.uk/alcohol) and a telephone line for LAs to get advice. The ‘How To’ Guide for Individual Drinkers Interventions included ‘Designated Public Places Orders’ (DPPOs). These allow LAs to prohibit drinking in named areas and restrict the consumption of alcohol in public places. They can also confiscate alcohol and weapons from people drinking in the street/in public places. For example, Brighton and Hove police community support officers confiscated alcohol around 25 times per week in a recent campaign and Greater Manchester Police maintained a no drinking byelaw in the City Centre Safe strategy and used advertising and evening foot patrols and found a fall in serious assaults by 12.6% in the first three years.

Bans

Some of the literature referred to the need for greater use of various banning options such as exclusion orders, restraining orders and trespass notices in order to ban troublemakers from various premises, for example, Anderson (2002); Cabinet Office (2004); USDAW (2003b) and USDAW (2004b). USDAW (2003b) suggested that these sorts of options might be more effective than prosecutions as banning options may deter offenders more due to the more severe penalties they may get if they re-offend in participating premises.

USDAW (2004b) reported a range of banning options that the government have introduced to place restrictions on people who commit anti-social behaviour but these may only be effective if there is liaison with, and enforcement by, police and LAs.

- Ban on visiting a certain area, e.g. shopping centre.
- Ban on visiting particular premises, e.g., certain shops.
- Curfew banning a person from going out of their home after a certain time.
- Ban on associating with certain individuals who have caused trouble.
- Ban preventing offenders from contacting or intimidating victims or witnesses.

However, USDAW (2003b) noted that while managers should remember their right to order someone off the premises and ban them from entry, they would need training, advice and support for such action.

**Case Study:** Action Against Business Crime (2006) reported an example of a specific measure related to exclusion notices in retail premises. Dartford Town Against Crime introduced a ‘red card’ scheme, whereby a red card was handed out to people breaking exclusion notices. It read: ‘You are subject of an exclusion notice issued by Dartford Town Against Crime. I require you to leave these premises immediately. If you refuse, I will call the police.’ *This system allows employees to stand up to banned individuals without the confrontation associated with verbally notifying someone of the situation.*

The Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005) has suggested a Violent Crime Reduction Bill which will introduce police powers to exclude individuals responsible for alcohol-related disorder from entering licensed premises by imposing ‘Drinking Banning Orders’ for up to two years and to exclude such individuals from a specific area for up to 48 hours.

**ASBOs**

Another specific banning option that was mentioned regularly within the literature reviewed, and therefore is discussed as a separate measure here, was Anti Social Behaviour Orders (ASBOs). ASBOs enable police and LAs to target problem areas and disperse groups and target particular troublemakers with a view to banning them from certain premises. The ASBO prohibits the individual from contacting, interfering with or threatening any employee from certain premises. USDAW (2003b) noted that LAs and police should have an ASBO co-ordinator who can apply to the courts for an ASBO to ban someone from premises or an area for 2 or more years. USDAW also reported that they are proving a powerful legal tool in dealing with organised and persistent offenders.

This option was mentioned by a variety of references, for example, Action Against Business Crime (2006); Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005); MAYBO (2005b); Nelson (2004); USDAW (2003b) and USDAW (2004b). Some references reported specific examples of where the use of ASBOs have been successful. While such examples are all specific to retail premises, it is suggested that such a measure could apply to any industry.
Case Studies:

- Safer Hastings Partnership showed a successful use of an ASBO when they successfully banned an individual from Hastings and St Leonards for abusive language. The individual was a prolific violent shop thief and was prohibited from entering the town or any stores and from harassing staff anywhere (Action Against Business Crime, 2006).
- A youngster in Leeds was given a 3-year ASBO keeping him away from the shopping area of Leeds city centre, markets and the bus station and restricted him from associating with members of his gang (USDAW, 2004b).
- An ASBO was successfully used to ban a man for 10 years who verbally abused retail staff in North East England (MAYBO, 2005b).

However, there is, of course, some debate about whether ASBOs and other types of banning order simply move troublemakers to operate in other areas, rather than tackling the problem behaviour ‘at source’.

Fines/FPNs

A variety of references referred to the option of issuing fines or fixed penalty notices (FPNs) as a way to tackle anti-social behaviour, violence and disorder. This kind of measure may ensure that the police can be a real, practical and immediate deterrent. References include BBC News Article (2005); BRC (2005b); British Institute of Innkeeping (2001); Cabinet Office (2004); Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005) and Robson and Teague (2005).

However, this option appears to be more relevant to licensed premises and alcohol-related disorder within towns and cities. The Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005), in their package of support for enforcement authorities dealing with alcohol-related problems, included in their ‘How To’ Guide for Individual Drinkers Interventions information on targeting troublesome individuals early in the evening with high profile foot patrols and fixed penalty notices (FPNs). This has been found to be effective with FPNs being used successfully and efficiently in Hull so that offenders are processed in 10 minutes. However, Robson and Teague (2005) noted that while the police can now issue penalty notices for theft, they cannot necessarily issue them for violence. In addition, the Federation of Small Businesses are concerned that penalty notices decriminalise crimes in the eyes of offenders and downgrades crimes such as theft to antisocial behaviour. They also noted that fines set at a lower level that the value of goods stolen is not an effective deterrent.

Sentencing

Robson and Teague (2005) reported research by Axa which found that businesses thought that better sentencing would better deter criminals (e.g. 46% wanted longer sentences, 32% wanted tougher financial penalties, 29% wanted more sentences awarded and 23% wanted community service sentences lengthened). Indeed, many SMEs feel that the lack of tough penalties for criminals undermines any crime prevention measures in place and sets a low risk threshold for criminals. Also, it has been suggested that sentencing guidelines belittle business crime and are more lenient to such offenders, which puts a message out to criminals that crime against businesses is acceptable.

Nelson (2004) also discussed sentencing specifically in relation to travel agents. He noted that the government have increased legal powers in that magistrates sentencing power will increase dramatically. Verbal and physical attacks will be categorised as ‘aggravating’, which will increase the severity of the penalty (maximum sentence 6 months in prison and £1000 fine).
Police Enforcement

Greater protection from the police using improved police powers and enforcement appears to be a welcome option. The majority of literature discussing this appears to be focused on licensed premises. For example, some of the literature refers to increased use of police powers to close disorderly and disruptive pubs for at least 24 hours (supported by over 88% of BII members), as well as strict enforcement of street drinking bans (British Institute of Innkeeping, 2001; British Beer and Pub Association, 2004). Also, the Home Office (1995) and Homel et al (1992) suggested that regularly violent venues should have their licenses cancelled or the police should at least warn the licensee that they would be prepared to object to the renewal of their licence or apply to the licensing justices for its revocation.

Case Study:
While completing this review there was a real life example of more police enforcement when an ‘outdoor booze ban’ to deal with alcohol-related violence was reported in a local newspaper. Police and community safety officers joined forces to enforce alcohol-controlled zones in trouble spots where some staff had been assaulted. Police will stop drinking on the streets, confisicate alcohol, issue fixed penalty fines and impose acceptable behaviour contracts and ASBOs.

A couple of references from Australia reported some different measures surrounding legal enforcement by the police (e.g. Australian Liquor Licensing Act, 1998; Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005). The Brisbane Safety Action Plan suggested providing additional liquor license compliance/enforcement officers to ensure licensees are meeting their obligations or consider licensees paying more for late night permits to pay for police officers/license officers/transport etc. Also, it was suggested that more proactive action would be beneficial whereby the police systematically identify and gather intelligence on ‘hot spots’ and target those specifically. More generally, stronger legislation and enforcement of Acts were thought to be needed, as long as police are trained in the provisions of the Act and are confident and encouraged to pursue prosecutions. It was suggested that it should become an offence to serve alcohol to a drunken person and police should be empowered to move in on individuals disturbing the peace. In addition, a person’s character should be taken into consideration before granting a liquor license or employment (e.g. it has been found that some licensees had criminal records). The Licensing Authority should have the power to prohibit employment. Some of these suggestions may well be relevant to the UK context.

Finally, the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005) ‘How To’ Guide for Problem Licensed Premises Interventions includes:

- Build evidence base from various sources (police, councils, CCTV, citizen complaints, A&E records etc) to identify premises and inform licence reviews.
- Where there is evidence, review licenses and put conditions in place to reduce disorder. For example, a ‘Winding Down’ terminal hour was imposed whereby there was no alcohol sales permitted in a restaurant to avoid excessive noise, this may help with violence too; keeping channels open between LAs, police and licensees such as incorporating participation in a radio link scheme in pub and nightclub licence conditions; limiting opening hours.
- Target enforcement efforts at premises who serve underage/drunk people. The Violent Crime Reduction Bill will introduce police powers to ban alcohol sales in licensed premises for up to 48 hours for selling alcohol to under-18s.
• Use test purchasing operations (e.g. Liverpool trading standards particularly advocates underage test purchasing).

• Monitor if conditions placed on premises are adhered to and if breached consider new police closure powers or revoke the license (e.g. Nottinghamshire police applied for revocation of a license for a large city centre club that generated more incidents than any other premises).

• Deploy enhanced 24-hour emergency closure powers (e.g. when disorder around a football match is expected). However, if new closure powers are used, there is a need for visible posters to communicate this to others.

• Utilise increased fines and penalties for allowing disorderly and drunk conduct, for breach of licence conditions, or for selling alcohol to children.

Legal Options: summary

- The variety of legal options available to help manage violence include:
  - Byelaws
  - Bans
  - ASBOs
  - Fines/FPNs
  - Sentencing
  - Police Enforcement

- The Licensing Act 2003 imposes conditions on licensees regarding the prevention of violence.

- There has been some debate around whether extended licensing hours will increase violent behaviour: the literature suggests staggered closing hours may not lead to an increase, although it is not equivocal.

- The legal options available to tackle work-related violence require the involvement of the LAs, police and other stakeholders.

4.3 PARTNERSHIPS

A variety of references discussed the need for the creation of local, regional and national partnerships and liaison with a variety of stakeholders, such as the police, LAs, other businesses in reducing crime and violence (e.g. BBPA, 2003; Cabinet Office, 2003; HSE, 1995; International Labour Office, 2003; Nelson et al, 2001; The Portman Group, 1998; USDAW, 2003b). Indeed, the Crime and Disorder Act (1998) places responsibility on the police, LAs and other agencies to respond to community safety and crime issues through the creation of partnerships.

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that a multi-agency working party should be formed as the first step of the partnership development process and should comprise all interested parties such as the police, ACPO, LAs, Crown Prosecution Service, crime prevention panels, representatives of retailers and other city centre businesses (e.g. pubs, restaurants, post offices), town centre managers, community groups, media and car parking operators. The Portman Group (1998) noted the benefits of such partnerships, including sharing and dissemination of
information, pooling of funding and expertise and greater likelihood of identifying and understanding critical issues.

“You’ve got to have a good working relationship with all your partners … it can’t be done by the police alone, can’t be done by the local authority alone, it needs good partnership working” (Home Office, 2004).

**Partnership Members**

**Police**

A variety of references referred to the need for partnerships with the police including increased visible police presence outside premises to deter crime and violence, intelligence sharing, increased links with police through CCTV and radio, text or pager links or help with enforcement strategies such as exclusion orders, ASBOs or byelaws. References include Beswick et al (2003); BRC (2005b); Cabinet Office (2003); Engineer et al (2003); Home Office (2006); HSE (2002); ICAP (2002); Lins and Erickson (1998); Luke et al (2002); Poyner and Warne (1988); Richardson et al (2003); Shapland (1995); USDAW (2003b); USDAW (2004b); Westminster Licensing Policy (2005).

Some examples were given of the sort of partnership that could exist between local businesses and the police. With regards to retail premises:

- USDAW (2003b) reported that simply encouraging local officers to call in to have a cup of tea and chat to staff could develop good relationships with the local police/crime prevention officers. They noted that this has had some deterrent value and persuades workers that their concerns are taken seriously.

- Lins and Erickson (1998) reported a similar idea whereby Southland Corporation of Dallas provided satellite offices (Police Community Network Centres, PCNC) for local police where officers can make phone calls, complete paperwork and meet with local residents and business owners. These ranged from podium workstations to desks inside 7-11 stores or separate offices with signs identifying it as a PCNC. Officers have indicated that such community centres allow them more time to address prevention and causes of crime in neighbourhoods and store employees and customers report feeling safer with an increased police presence in the neighbourhood.

- Lins and Erickson (1998) also cited another example of partnership between the police and local shops in the US. In order to address problems with youths, police were given 7-11 coupons to give to young people who they observed committing random acts of kindness or community service. This provided a friendly way for police and youngsters to interact and 7-11 coupons may discourage them from attacking 7-11 stores.

- USDAW (2004b) also noted that another way that businesses can work with police is by the police visiting premises to give crime prevention advice to staff and to encourage them to keep a record of incidents and to report them to the police.

- ‘Operation Avert’ with Northumbria Police is designed to support employees working in retail and repeatedly subjected to threats and violence and encourages staff to report instances of threats, intimidation or assault. Community beat managers work with the retail community to inform store staff that the operation is running and to encourage them to report. Also, police officers responding to theft incidents will encourage staff to report incidents of threats or assaults and will take positive action in investigating such incidents (NCAC, 2006).
USDAW (2003b) reported that local businesses worked successfully with the police in the Birmingham Retail Crime Operation using measures such as radio/phone links to alert other stores when an offender is around; joint exclusion orders so offenders are banned from all premises; information sharing such as photo galleries of known offenders or links to police or town CCTV control rooms to alert others of trouble.

Press et al (2001) reported that the police could give retailers information on security issues and local crime problems/suspects. For example, Nottingham C division police force provided an information pack for retailers which included all Home Office guidelines for retailers, information about training courses, CCTV in the area etc. In contrast however, in Sheffield no information was available from South Yorkshire Police.

An example from USDAW (2002b) showed that following a gang of youths hanging around outside a local off-licence abusing staff it was agreed that the police would do more frequent patrols and issue ASBOs and matters have since improved.

With regards to licensed premises:

- The Brisbane Safety Action Plan suggested that improved co-ordination and communication with the police might allow the allocation of additional police officers to certain ‘hot spots’. Deploying police to identified peak areas could lead to increased visibility of police, creating a safer area (Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).

- Nelson et al (2001) reported a similar idea but based on geographical analysis of violent crime in Cardiff and Worcester centres and pub/club leisure zones. They noted that such geographical information is essential for the targeting of scarce police resources to prevent crime and disorder at specific ‘hot-spot’ locations and at particular times of the day and night. However, they also reported mixed evidence of increased policing. It was suggested that a lower level of violence in a particular area in Cardiff was due to the high police presence but in Worcester a month of targeted/high visibility policing was found to have little effect.

- Marsh and Fox (1992) reported that new licensees should be invited to meet the local police for support and pub companies should encourage managers to communicate with and welcome police visits, e.g. PubWatch successes have been best where there were positive attitudes and support between managers and the police.

- Also, there should be increased deployment of police officers in proactive roles where regular, informal visits to premises should be made during evening hours. For example, Oxford police in 1988/1989 emphasised their preventative role and this partly accounted for a reduction in arrests (Marsh and Fox, 1992).

Local Authorities

Much of the literature mentioned the need to work with local councils in crime and disorder reduction partnerships (e.g. Home Office, 2006; The Portman Group, 1998; USDAW, 2002b; USDAW, 2004b). Ways that businesses can work with LAs in partnership is to:

- Liaise with LAs regarding exclusion orders and excluding persistent offenders (Home Office, 2006; USDAW, 2002b).

- Team up with others on the ‘TOGETHER’ action line to discuss solutions to problems with anti-social behaviour (www.together.gov.uk; Home Office, 2006).
- Improve communication between shops through Safer Shopping Partnerships which have been reported to be very effective in cutting crime (USDAW, 2002b).
- Drive initiatives forward with unions and employers and effectively enforce health and safety, although it is recognised that resources are needed to do this effectively (USDAW, 2002b; USDAW, 2003b).
- Develop community safety strategies, often co-ordinated by a town centre manager (The Portman Group, 1998).
- Consider crime and disorder in planning applications (Cabinet Office, 2003).
- Consider Drug and Alcohol Action Teams (DAATs) in crime and disorder reduction partnerships (Cabinet Office, 2003).

**Unions**

USDAW (2005a) noted that liaison with trade union H&S representatives might have a beneficial effect on violence. Where the union is recognised, USDAW can use the legal powers of USDAW safety representatives to raise violence with employers, check policies and negotiate for improvements for safer systems of work. With enforcement officer support, H&S representatives can help to ensure high compliance with legislation. Indeed, USDAW noted that independent research has shown that workplaces with active trade union H&S representatives are much safer than non-union workplaces. USDAW (2004c) also noted that unions (along with other retailers, the police and LAs) may help to draft petitions for parliament to try and get them to protect shop workers more by promoting and resourcing safer shopping partnerships and to introduce retail crime as a key performance indicator for police. USDAW reported that they can only succeed if all stakeholders engage with them to make their ‘Freedom from Fear’ campaign work (Safety and Health Practitioner, 2003a).

**Community**

The Portman Group website suggested that community safety strategies are important.

For example, Berkley (1997) noted that the long-term consequences of partnership working will depend on relationships between premises and its neighbours and the community. Owners should make friends in the community, have open communications with community leaders and promote relations with neighbours by picking up litter, policing the vicinity (this was discussed more in relation to licensed premises). Indeed, ICAP (2002) cited the need for the community intervention program ‘Accords’ whereby there are partnerships with those most affected by violence related to licensed premises, e.g. individuals living close to licensed venues.

Finally, in their study examining the effectiveness of a ‘crime prevention through environmental design’ intervention in reducing criminal activity in California, Casteel et al (2004) noted that one valuable lesson learned was the importance of continuity of the person interacting with the store.

**Other businesses**

A variety of references discussed the need for liaison and partnership with other businesses in the area in order to:

- Connect adjacent stores and involve as wide a spread of different organisations as possible in partnership arrangements.
• Share good practice in anti-crime and anti-violence measures or to share information, photos or evidence on persistent offenders.

• Warn each other of violent customers perhaps by all jointly investing in a radio system to alert each other and the police.

• Encourage improvements in security.

• Ensure support in enforcing legislation such as not serving underage people.

• Support each other in tackling recurring similar problems.

• Enforce a ban from all stores.

• Set up a retail crime partnership to help with resources and information etc.


RACS (Retailers Against Crime Scotland) is one example of a system whereby organisations share intelligence on professional and travelling offenders. Based at the Scottish Business Crime Centre, information on crime and offenders is collated, analysed and disseminated to member stores and shopping malls throughout Scotland via regular newsletters and other updates.

The Home Office (2004) noted that engaging with businesses is crucial but it can be hard to get co-operation between businesses as they often have a distrust of public bodies and an unwillingness to share information with competitors. They suggested that involving a familiar local agency could make it easier to involve businesses. However, in doing this it is important for project staff to familiarise themselves with local areas and shop staff, and involve local people such as councillors or community forums in order to keep businesses updated and to manage their expectations. Also, businesses will need on-going support, possibly by using a ‘champion’ or ‘business owner’ amongst the retailers who can drive the project forward after any initial initiative has finished. This is also a good way to foster ownership and facilitate sustainability among businesses.

Advantages of using such established local groups to facilitate partnerships include:

• Savings on limited professional resources,

• Increasing business investment and commitment,

• Useful network for publicising and gaining support,

• Useful forums for engaging with businesses, especially hard to reach businesses and communities.

However, disadvantages of using such established local groups include:

• Possibility of not representing the views or concerns of all businesses,

• Involving those who are not already members may require persistence,

• Project may be unduly influenced by the priorities of the existing group.
SMEs

Press et al (2001) reported that crime reduction partnerships are used more by chain retailers than independent retailers. Furthermore, some police and trade associations have little involvement with independent small retailers and the involvement of SMEs in partnerships is often poor. In a survey of Sheffield independent small retailers, it was interesting to note that although HSE issue guidelines on violent crime against staff, no respondents had come across this. Also, more advice and feedback from the police was desired and only half of the respondents were aware of radio link crime reduction partnerships. Robson and Teague (2005) also reported that many small businesses receive no crime prevention advice or are unaware of its availability or how to access it. They also found low awareness of Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships (CDRPs).

The main reasons for not getting involved were lack of knowledge about the schemes and how they could help, costs involved and lack of relevance to their particular shop. Robson and Teague (2005) noted that SMEs involvement is often low due to them not having the time or resources to commit, and membership competing with other security measures for money. They suggested that there could be a subsidy for first year membership for SMEs and fees could be on a sliding scale so that they are proportionate to business size. Also, to increase awareness of partnerships, Robson and Teague (2005) suggested there needs to be more active engagement with small businesses, such as government-funded initiatives like the SRDA (Small Retailers in Deprived Areas), but without a focus on retailers at the expense of other sectors.

Due to this lack of involvement with more formal organisations such as the police, trade associations or official partnerships, informal networking between independent retailers is a vital source of information on crime (Press et al, 2001). Indeed, Mayhew (2002) noted that local community organisations play a key role as intermediaries between SMEs in violence prevention and they may hold more sway over SMEs. They were felt to be a good alternative information deliverer to help ease the burden on government and trade associations. This was especially significant in smaller rural regions or for those SMEs not in a trade association.

Hibberd and Shapland (1993) also supported the notion that SMEs are more likely to be involved in informal co-operative schemes. From their research:

- There were very few formal co-operative schemes. The only formal schemes reported included a pharmacist involved in a ring-round scheme to warn and support other shopkeepers in the area and an anti theft group (however, few shopkeepers knew of this scheme and were unable to attend meetings at 6pm when small shops are busy).

- More small shopkeepers said that they operated an informal scheme or had informal arrangements with other local shops offering back up and support, e.g. panic buttons linked with other shops.

- Shopkeepers are often the most active ‘watchers’ but police or formal schemes don’t seem to tap into this.

However, Hibberd and Shapland (1993) also noted some negative factors that may prevent the participation of small shops in co-operative activities. For example,

- Co-operation in small shops may be affected by competition, trust, cost and mutuality. Some shops feel that they will lose their competitive advantage if they either say they might have a crime problem or they link with others to do something about it.
In such informal schemes there may be a need for a confident individual to take the lead and this may not be forthcoming.

Some shops are isolated geographically and so would not benefit from co-operation schemes. It may be that there is a need for geographical co-operation schemes looking at the crime of the whole area and fostering contact between shops, houses and industrial estates. Indeed, Robson and Teague (2005) noted that partnerships must move away from being retail focused and include the wider business community in order to avoid displacement of crime to areas outside of town/city centres where SMEs are often located.

**Hospitals**

Young and Douglass (2003) and Warburton and Shepherd (2004) reported that the Crime and Disorder Act (1998) requires that the NHS collaborate with the police and LAs because of the extent to which assaults that lead to treatment are not reported to the police. Therefore, receptionists now use the assault patient questionnaire (APQ). Disclosure of A&E data to local authorities, police and media drew substantial attention and crime prevention resources to the locations of violence. As a result a police task force was funded and electronic transfer of data informs and prompts violence prevention initiatives (for licensees and transport services). This task force informed by A&E data could also be used to oppose licence applications, to assess premises safety and to motivate managers to make improvements to security, layout, staffing etc. It was concluded that sharing of such unique information about violence derived from A&E patients was a powerful and effective means of targeting police and other local resource to bring about violence reduction.

Furthermore, the Cabinet Office (2003) and Cusens and Shepherd (2005) suggested that while healthcare workers attend to patients that have been involved in alcohol-related violence they could take advantage of that ‘teachable moment’. That is, when someone involved in violence attends hospital for trauma care 5-10 days after injury, when patients are normally sober (e.g. to have stitches removed etc), use that ‘teachable moment’ to give information that may discourage antisocial behaviour. Evidence suggested that this achieves long-term reductions. Indeed, Cusens and Shepherd (2005) reported that a randomised controlled trial study found that a brief motivational interviewing intervention combined with wound care (i.e. while they are attending hospital) was effective in reducing alcohol misuse in males injured while intoxicated.

**Designers**

Press et al (2001) reported that local design partnerships with design expertise in universities might help local retailers (or other premises) incorporate store design features into their crime prevention measures. Information is needed for designers though to help them understand design in crime prevention.

**Incidence**

In a study of over 500 independent retailers only 13% said they have had any contact with their local Crime Reduction Partnership compared to 35% the year before. Also, only 10% of local stores said they were involved in any local community scheme (Association of Convenience Stores, 2004a).

Shury et al (2005) reported some incidence data for partnerships/co-operative activity:
Only 23% of retailers had contact with police regarding crime prevention and 20% of retailers thought that police were not seen in the area. However, one example showed that problems of youths hanging around lessened considerably after a policeman started to visit at school times to prevent children gathering.

Very few businesses were involved in crime and disorder partnerships (4%) and only 5% of retailers were involved in a retail crime partnership.

Encouragingly, a slight majority of retailers (52%) were participating in some form of co-operative activity. The most common activities were:

- Co-operation in banning offenders or using exclusion notices (24%).
- Ring round schemes (20%).
- Meetings between local businesses and the police (19%).
- Business watch schemes (17%).

Co-operative activity was often spurred by victimisation (35%) although it was reported that there was more reluctance to tell others about assaults and threats than property crime (just 30% informed other businesses and only 12% informed a local partnership)! However it is in businesses interest to report crime to partnerships so they can include them in their crime priorities.

They also reported some incidence data for advice/information:

- The most common source of advice on crime prevention was the police (43%) and businesses were more likely to act on police advice. However more proactive advice by police is needed.
- Only a small minority of businesses received advice from LAs (13%) and they were less likely to act on this anyway.
- 9% received advice from a business watch scheme but again acted less on this.
- Only 3% of retailers received information from crime and disorder partnerships.

Such incidence statistics suggests that crime and disorder partnerships are not being used to their full potential and sources and use of advice and information do not seem to be fully acted upon either. An ongoing fostering of a positive and proactive relationship between police and local businesses needs to be encouraged.

Action against Business Crime (2006c) listed key performance indicators that could be used to assess the effectiveness of business crime reduction partnerships. For example:

- Number of ASBOs imposed as a result of partnership information sharing.
- Number of persistent offenders currently known.
- Number of current exclusion notices and breaches.
- Number of warning letters to offenders and breaches.
- Level of violence, threats and abuse against staff.
- Number of offenders deterred or arrested.
- Number of current partnership members.

**Retail Premises**

The British Retail Consortium (2004a) and USDAW (2003b) reported that over 250 retail crime partnerships have been developed in retail and shopping centres, combining CCTV, radio links, photograph and information sharing and exclusion notices to identify retail thieves, share information and track their movements. BRC believe this is the most effective means of managing the behaviour of known offenders. Indeed, USDAW (2003b) reported that such partnerships have been successful in reducing violent crime.

A Business Information Crime System (BICS) has been installed in over 60 partnerships and is a bespoke database to record business crime to ensure that retailers have the latest intelligence locally and nationally. The BRC also sponsors the Safer Shopping Award (or now the Safer Business Award (SBA) as reported by AABC 2006c), which is a trusted quality national standard that recognises high standards of management and operation in retail crime partnerships. On achieving the award, retail partners can gain maximum publicity through a major media launch and use of the Safer Shopping Award logo on stationery and in prominent locations in the shop. 71 partnerships have achieved the award with many more applying for accreditation (BRC, 2003; 2004a). AABC (2006c) reported recent examples of partnerships achieving this award, e.g. Burnley Business Initiative Against Crime, Southampton Business Against Crime and Slough Town Against Crime.

Some references also noted that ShopWatch is a scheme being used by many retailers (e.g. BRC, 2003, 2005b; Home Office, 2004; The Portman Group, 1998; USDAW, 2004b). ShopWatch schemes are locally driven initiatives set up to tackle crime and disorder problems in a particular community, involving a communications network between retail and police, and even other watch schemes such as pub/clubwatch, hotelwatch or cabwatch. Where it is well publicised, ShopWatch can be an effective deterrent and benefits include reduced risk of damage and assaults and increased trade if customers feel safe and secure. However, success of the watch depends on the commitment of all watch members (The Portman Group, 1998).

A variety of references reported examples of retail partnerships and their relative successes. Some are more directed to reducing overall crime, rather than focusing on the prevention of work-related violence to retail staff, but are relevant. It should also be noted that it could be difficult to attribute a reduction in crime and disorder solely to the work of partnership schemes.
## Case Studies

1. Following incidents of abuse and violence, **off-licenses in Truro in Cornwall** formed a partnership to tackle the problem. They drew up a list of the 25 most problematic street drinkers and each of them was banned from buying alcohol from any off-licence in Truro. Each store, including independent shops, chain stores and supermarkets, were issued with a folder containing details and photographs of the banned individuals. Truro police backed this scheme by issuing letters to each of the individuals and attending incidents if they arose. The Association of Convenience Stores said that this shows the benefit of partnership working and other retailers should be talking to their local police and local authority to address such street drinking and violence problems (Association of Convenience Stores, 2005b).

2. **Town Centre Management** (a public/private partnership to promote the interests of local businesses and the town centre). Following the introduction of town centre management, shop theft in Gravesend declined by 19% between 1999/00 and 2001/02 and in Stroud theft fell by a quarter and burglary halved. Also, Newcastle city centre had a city centre manager and overall crime has fallen by 25% over the last 3 years (48% robbery) (ODPM, 2004).

3. **Oxford City Centre Initiative**: the Oxford city centre manager and police attempted to reduce access to strong alcohol and in April 1997, Sainsburys removed 18 lines from their shelves, Co-op followed a few months later and three off-licenses in November 1997. There was a sharp fall in alcohol-related incidents and drunk and disorderly and aggressive behaviour over the relevant period (The Portman Group, 1998).

4. **Taunton Town Centre Partnership**: the Taunton town centre manager made a voluntary agreement with off-licenses to not supply high alcohol/low value products to street people known to have a drinking problem. The police supported this with a closed radio link to enable them to respond quickly during confrontations, although there have been few call-outs. This voluntary scheme made a significant impact with fewer alcoholics congregating in the town and no problems from those that do (The Portman Group, 1998).

5. A pilot ShopWatch initiative in Camden, North London trained high-street shop staff as special constables who then patrol the shopping area. Unfortunately this has not yet been evaluated but it has put in place arrangements for retailers to take ownership of the environment (Home Office, 2004). However, BRC (2005b) also noted ShopWatch schemes that included training and deploying retail staff as special constables in the immediate retail environment and reported that it showed positive results in crime reduction and increased staff morale.

6. **Dover Partnership Against Crime** (retailers and pubs/clubs). Features of this partnership included police officers tuning into a shared ShopWatch radio to improve response and information, a partnership co-ordinator sharing intelligence and photographs of offenders with members and an exclusion notice scheme barring offenders from entering any members’ premises. It was reported that this scheme worked well making it increasingly difficult for offenders to operate in Dover. The scheme has helped businesses to reduce stock losses and the incident of violent, threatening or intimidating behaviour has declined (BRC, 2003; USDAW, 2004b).

7. **Leicester Against Crime City Watch** (retailers and licensed). Features of this partnership included intelligence reports and photographs disseminated to members, 100 offenders excluded from member premises, 3 remote covert surveillance cameras and 1 overt camera loaned to members, use of the Business Information Crime System (BICS) etc. Many stores reported reductions in stock losses and violence to staff and people arrested said criminal activity was not worth it in Leicester as the chances of getting caught were high (BRC, 2003).

8. **Northampton Crime and Disorder Strategy**. Features of this partnership included a retail initiative, PubWatch and forecourt watch, extensive CCTV system and radio link, automatic number plate recognition and facial recognition. In the first year of operation, it saved stores £250,000 and excluded 80 persistent offenders from entering member stores (BRC, 2003).
9. **Wigan Town Centre 24 hour Partnership (retailers and licensed).** Features of this partnership included PubWatch and ClubWatch, a comprehensive database to record incidents, exclusion notices, a late night bus service, ‘cracking crime’ newsletters, target offenders database, training packages, increased street lighting, CCTV etc. Results were better than anticipated with serious crime falling by 74% (BRC, 2003).

10. **Standing and Nicolini (1997) reported on “Counter Action” that could provide a model for small and medium sized retail enterprises.** This was a joint initiative between Threshers, the Police and the BRC to combat robbery in off-licences and independent retail outlets. It began as a target hardening approach aimed at getting retailers to redesign shelving, install CCTV and train staff in prevention measures but it was limited by the finances of individual retailers. More recent activities have included the development of a video for small businesses which Crime Prevention Officers show to staff. In the first year following the launch of this initiative robberies fell by nearly 70% in retail outlets compared to a fall of only 38% in other commercial premises. However, this fall was not sustained. Such initiatives can have an immediate and noticeable effect but must be maintained at a high level to sustain the impact. Also, crime was not necessarily reduced but displaced elsewhere which indicates the importance of parallel initiatives.

11. **The Home Office (2004) reported some statistics from the Smaller Retailers in Deprived Areas (SRDA) initiative and found the following statistics relevant to small businesses:**

- Over 85% of the 100 small businesses surveyed had experienced a crime between January 2003 and January 2004.
- Preliminary survey results indicated that for some of the more serious crimes, the average number of incidents per victimised premises was lower for SRDA funded businesses, e.g. average number of incidents was 1.4 compared to an average of 1.7 among non SRDA businesses.
- One case study introduced a mix of interventions based on blocking the opportunity for offending and surveillance and in the year before the scheme there were 24 incidents and in the year after this fell to 9 incidents. Another project made environmental improvements and used CCTV and saw the total number of incidents fall from 102 in the year before to 45 post-implementation.

Other benefits included: increased reporting to police (from 47% to 53%), improvements in retail staff confidence, increased knowledge of security among businesses (over half of businesses said it had a ‘big or some impact’ on knowledge), improved perceptions regarding attractiveness of retail areas (73% of customers thought area was more attractive) and improved working links (30% SRDA attended meetings compared to 17% non-SRDA) especially if this was a prerequisite from the start such as in ShopWatch schemes.
**Licensed Premises**

Much of the information regarding partnerships in licensed premises focused on the existence of PubWatch or ClubWatch schemes. The basic principle of Pubwatch is that the licensees of the premises involved agree on a number of policies for action against individuals who cause or threaten damage, violence etc. Close cooperation with the local police, Local authority and other agencies is important to make the scheme work. The Portman Group (1998) reported the use of PubWatch or ClubWatch schemes (which are the same as ShopWatch schemes but in licensed premises; see the previous retail premises section for brief information on such ‘watch’ schemes). Traditional pubwatches use:

- A telephone ring round system (round robin or pyramid). However, this relies on the commitment of members, may take a while for messages to be relayed, or can restrict the structure/size of a watch.

- PubWatch schemes are now adopting electronic pagers or radios for speed and reliability as a single message can be relayed to all members and police simultaneously.

- PubWatch also uses window stickers and posters to publicise and advertise the fact that anti-social behaviour will lead to individuals being banned from all premises included in the watch.

- Increasing the profile of the PubWatch through press/radio is also common.

An example PubWatch scheme (from Roskrow, D. Publican, 16/11/92, cited in Hayter, 1994) reported that after starting PubWatch licensees in Basildon, Essex saw an all-round fall in pub-related violence and crime. Assaults were down 30%, offences involving damage were down 36% and burglaries were down 20%.

The Portman Group (1998) also discussed a wide variety of other possible partnership combinations within the licensed industry. For example, police and licensees (e.g. PubWatch and ClubWatch schemes); police, probation services and alcohol counselling services (e.g. arrest referral and diversion schemes); and LAs, police and licensing justices. Key agencies are:

- The police (initiators and support).

- Probation services (“inside” perspective and offer alcohol advice and education).

- LAs (involvement in crime prevention initiatives, inspection of licensed premises, granting of public entertainment licenses, responsibility for the environment and byelaws etc).

- Licensing boards (powers to put conditions on the granting of liquor licenses).

- Licensees (willingness to co-operate in local schemes).

- Counselling services (awareness, advice and support programmes).

- Pub owning companies (valuable experience and funding).

A variety of references reported examples of licensed industry partnerships and their relative successes. Many of these focus on the reduction of alcohol-related crime and disorder but may well be relevant to reducing the incidence of work-related violence.
Case Studies

1. Community Partnership, Surfers Paradise Safety Action Project, Australia. The major aim was the reduction of alcohol-related violence in a major international tourist area with approximately 20 nightclubs. The project set up a steering committee, three task groups and a monitoring committee and it was designed so that the local community (business people, residents, community groups, council representatives, taxi operators, police, security operatives and licensees etc) had ownership of the project and responsibility for developing solutions etc (Graham and Homel, 1997). Features of the project included:
   - Programmes of awareness, surveillance and compliance with Queensland Liquor Act.
   - Use of a risk assessment policy checklist – a tool to assess, amongst other things, how well management deal with provision of liquor and pricing, what responsible practices are being used and how venues promote entertainment as well as alcohol.
   - Working with licensees to promote responsible hospitality practices and co-ordinate required training.
   - Enhanced public transport systems to ensure safe and reliable routes out of the area.
   - Involving licensees directly by asking them to outline their perception of the problem of rising violence and identify significant factors (this had not happened previously).
   - Encouraging licensees to shift the context of licensed premises from being alcohol-oriented to being entertainment-oriented (achieved in part by the administration of the risk assessment policy checklist).
   - Code of Practice, developed by the licensees, focusing on issues such as security, safety inside and outside the venue, staff responsibilities, responsible use of alcohol, quality service and entertainment and honest and accurate advertising.
   - Management commitment to ensuring that all security staff were trained, registered and identifiable, and giving priority to well-being of patrons.
   - Monitoring committee applied ‘peer pressure’ to some licensees to persuade them to comply with the code of practice and collected evidentiary information that could be used in successful legal action against deviant licensees.

The project was assessed using interviews, observation, street incidents and criminal incidents. Results showed statistically significant and marked improvements on all aspects measured, except staff drinking policies and aspects of personnel style and recruitment. The number of incidents of physical violence inside venues dropped from 9.8 per 100 hours observation to 4.7 per 100 hours. Also, there was a significant reduction in binge drinking by men and rates of intoxication which was attributed to major improvements in management and serving practice, reduced use of gimmicks, lower use of drinks promotions and happy hours and a reduction in the unsolicited topping up of patron’s drinks. It was concluded that this community action process provided a useful model for implementing changes (Graham and Homel, 1997). However, discussing the same example, ICAP (2002) reported that while violence decreased significantly within the first year, this was not sustained after the intensive intervention period ceased. The main reason for this was licensee disregard in favour of commercial competition.

2. Community Partnership, Fremantle, Australia. This was a highly promoted programme that was seen as successful at the launch but evaluation two years later found little evidence of a reduction in assaults around bars, due to lack of committed personnel (ICAP, 2002).

3. Host Responsibility Programme, New Zealand. This required establishments to offer food service, stock low alcohol or alcohol free products, uphold strict age ID policies and provide transport options to drunk patrons and was supervised by an on-site host responsibility manager. There was a mass media campaign for awareness and the result of negligence was a revoked license. Evaluation found that loss of licence penalties was the main motivation to comply (ICAP, 2002).

4. Community Partnership, University of Washington, USA. This involved a task force of the police/fire/liquor board/university residence board/students etc using codes of conduct, education, contracts, register of planned events etc. Following implementation, harm involving alcohol dropped significantly (ICAP, 2002).
5. **Community Partnership, Florida State University, USA.** A hospitality resource panel was proven effective in regulating high-risk promotions and enforcing a safety checklist (ICAP, 2002).

6. **Lahti Community Partnership Project, Finland.** Alcohol education initiatives resulted in heavy drinkers reducing consumption and awareness of violence significantly increased (ICAP, 2002).

7. **Case studies of Manchester City Safe, Stroud PubWatch and Cardiff ‘Tackling Alcohol-related Street Crime’ (TASC).** All these initiatives used public information, visible and targeted policing, co-operation with others such as licensing, trading, street cleaners and improved late night transport provision. The result in Manchester City Safe was to reverse a rising trend of disorder (by 8.5% in the first year and by 12.3% in the second year). Also, the TASC project in Cardiff used visible targeted policing of problem areas to act as a strong deterrent and this led to a 41% reduction in violence (Cabinet Office, 2003).

8. A local newspaper described an example of a **PubWatch scheme in South Yorkshire.** It was being set up to make it easier for licensees and the police to work together to identify troublemakers. It created a direct link to police, enabling publicans and officers to agree on actions and interventions early. For example, one particular pub discussed a reduction in opening hours and the cancellation of a garage music night and it was agreed that this pub would employ extra bar staff for certain times to compensate for a lack of door staff and would install extra security cameras. This all led to no further incidents being experienced at the venue.

9. ‘**Best Bar None**’ awards scheme. This scheme raises standards of operation for the management of licensed premises and can be made a condition of the licence if there is evidence of problem behaviour. Premises gaining accreditation were shown to exhibit better customer care and lower levels of crime and disorder. Its key principles were intrusive, comprehensive but flexible accreditation using multi-agency inspection visits; visible wall plaques to create a ‘kite mark’ for safe premises and annual awards to recognise achievement and create community links (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2005).

10. The Portman Group (1998) cited examples of **PubWatches (Brixton, Guildford, Perth and York).** Features of such PubWatches included:

   • 24-hour telephone/pager combination system that pages other PubWatch members and police (York has a red (closure requests) and yellow (potential trouble) system with their pagers).
   • Attending meetings and social/fundraising events to discuss issues and help relationships between members and the police.
   • Newsletters and coverage in the local press.
   • CCTV and town link radio system.
   • Door staff training/registration.
   • CabWatch scheme.
   • Posters and stickers stating watch rules, as well as banned lists etc.
   • High profile public campaigns such as underage drinking or excessive consumption.

Brixton PubWatch was found to be very successful, turning Brixton pubs into ‘virtual crime free zones’. The Guildford and Perth PubWatch packages were thought to have been extremely successful in reducing alcohol-related crime and disorder and in York, 200 licensees participate in the PubWatch.
Partnerships: summary

- **Partnerships are increasingly being seen as an effective tool to manage violence and crime.**

- Partnership members can include the police, LAs (particularly in crime and disorder reduction partnerships), unions, the local community, other businesses, hospitals and designers.

- **Partnership schemes can be retail specific, licensed premises specific or more general to town and city centres.**

- Many case studies exist within the literature describing a variety of partnerships and their success. However, it should be noted that it can be difficult to accurately evaluate partnership schemes.

- Many partnership scheme examples focus on the reduction of alcohol-related crime and disorder but still may be relevant to reducing work-related violence against staff.
4.4 ENVIRONMENT

4.4.1 Security

Much of the literature made reference to various security measures. The majority of security options were relatively general and could apply to both retail and licensed premises. ‘Security’ is discussed more in relation to reducing general crime such as robbery/burglary, however, as violence may result from such crime it may have some application to reducing work-related violence. A variety of references cited the following security measures, for example, AABC (2006b); Amandus et al (1997); Association of Convenience Stores (2004); BBPA (2003); Hayter (1994); Hendricks et al (1999); Hibberd and Shapland (1993); Home Office (2006); International Labour Office (2003); Janicak (1999); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); Mayhew (2000); OSHA (1998); OSH Service, NZ (1995); Press et al (2001); Shapland (1995); Shury et al (2005); USDAW (2002b); USDAW (2003a) and Walsh (2006).


- Consider the materials used in door and windows and ensure they are well fitted, robust and secure. Where risk is high consider laminated glass. Window glazing should be a minimum of 7.5mm think laminated glass. Wood must be at least 100mm thick and if UPVC is used it must be reinforced with wood.

- Consider security screen material – if it is weak use toughened glass or use bullet resistant enclosures with windows.

- Consider multiple locking.

- Consider security chains.

- Consider window restraints (locks, bars, grilles, shutters) and internal beading/screw fixing for windows.

Protective door and window measures were reported by 9 out of 10 retailers in a survey by Shury et al (2005). Most common were bars, grilles or shatterproof glass (58%) whilst at least a third had shutters, door bars or window locks. Shapland (1995) and Hibberd and Shapland (1993) reported that grilles or shutters were used by 73% of shopkeepers and security door and window locks were used by 64-70% of shopkeepers. However, ODPM (2004) noted that some security measures can adversely affect the way a place looks and feels and can undermine the aim of the measure, e.g. grilles and barbed wire are often unattractive and increase the fear of crime by suggesting the area is unsafe.

- Security viewers should be installed in doors.

- Authorised touch pad lock to restrict storerooms and awareness of visitors in restricted areas should be considered.

- The door between the ‘safe haven’ and main area should have a 5 level mortice lock and a door viewer.

- Consider window location as low-level glazing is more vulnerable.
- Make doors and windows open outwards as this makes breaking in more difficult.
- Don’t leave keys in doors, on counters or in drawers, have a register for keys and keep spare keys in a secure cabinet. Do not leave safe or security keys on site overnight.
- Use dummy goods for display or security cabinets with locks/controlled access for high value goods.

Press et al (2001) reported that secure display cabinets are a key deterrent to shoplifters and toughened glass in cabinets can provide extra security. However, many stores felt that security measures were not being used to their full potential, e.g. secure product display units were not used as they reduced sales and were seen as not being customer friendly. Nevertheless, display cases comprising locked cabinets with merchandise in view at the top and actual products stored underneath may be an option – this was cheaper and as staff were needed to access the products it gave a feeling of customer service to the customer.

- Intruder alarms (prominent or remote and silent monitoring), security lighting and CCTV or still camera surveillance may all help, as long as they are operated properly.
- Consider a PA system for security announcements.
- Installation of door detectors with electronic sensors that emit a sound to alert employees when customers enter premises.
- Metal detectors on doors to detect weapons.
- Outside walls and doors must be maintained and walls and bushes must not create places for thieves to hide.
- Access to roof should be considered and minimised. Ladders and climbing aids should be locked away.
- Barbed wire fencing or anti-climb paint (15% of retailers had such measures as surveyed by Shury et al, 2005).
- Controlled access/entry procedures, e.g. coded security locks to restrict public access.

Measures preventing entry and measures on the outside of buildings such as doors, barriers, lighting and alarms were considered effective. However, Shury et al (2005) reported that few businesses felt that such measures had worked completely (only 10%) while about two thirds thought they prevented crime to a reasonable extent.

However, Shapland (1995) and Hibberd and Shapland (1993) made reference to the fact that such physical security measures are just ‘bolt on measures’ rather than measures that address the root cause of a crime problem, e.g. layout.

**Opening and Closing**

A few references considered security at specific times such as when opening and closing premises (e.g. AABC, 2006c; Association of Convenience Stores, 2004; BBPA, 2003; Hayter, 1994; OSHA, 1998; OSH Service, NZ, 1995; Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005; Safety and Health Practitioner, 2003a).
Extra security at opening and closing times might reduce the threat of attack and increase employee confidence. If possible, have more than one member of staff involved in the opening and closing of premises.

View the street and building before opening and look for signs of forced entry.

Do not enter if the situation looks suspicious.

Ensure surveillance outside after closing.

Have a code system to show others all is ok, e.g. raising the blinds.

Vary timings of high-risk activity such as locking up.

After hours visitors should be rejected if there is no appointment or they are not known. Visitors should not be admitted at all without suitable ID.

Keys should be strictly controlled or locked away. Have clear policies for key control and lock up procedures and ensure staff are aware of them.

On closure: lock all internal doors and windows, empty the till and leave it open, remove expensive items from view and lock away if possible, set the alarm and leave the building accompanied by a colleague.

Lock doors used for deliveries and disposal of rubbish when not in use and do not unlock delivery doors until the person has been identified.

Keep doors locked before business officially opens and after closing time.

Security Guards within Retail Premises

A few references also considered the use of security guards (on the door or patrolling the premises) as a way to prevent and minimise crime and violence (e.g. Amandus et al, 1997; Hibberd and Shapland, 1993; ODPM, 2004; OSH Service, NZ, 1995; PRCI, 2004; RoSPA Occupational Safety and Health Journal, 2002; The Portman Group, 1998; Shapland, 1995 and Shury et al, 2005). Such references were more relevant to retail premises (security guards in the context of licensed premises are discussed in a later section under ‘door supervisors’).

PRCI (2004) reported that uniformed security is a favourite measure of managers as they regard the high profile visibility as a major deterrent/reassurance. However, employing uniformed security does not guarantee crime free shops. They found that uniformed security is most commonly deployed due to the threat of violence but is often a ‘knee jerk reaction’ rather than a rational thought out solution. Nevertheless, findings on what makes a security officer effective include:

- 26.1% of managers felt the visibility of security guards meant they were effective.
- 20.1% of managers felt the situational awareness of security guards meant they were effective.
- 16.7% of managers felt that store specific knowledge of security guards meant they were effective.
- 13.3% of managers felt that being alert meant that security guards were effective.
15.9% of managers felt the deterrent value of security guards meant they were effective. However, problems with security officer deployment are:

- Retailers limit contract security officers contribution to store security so that external contractors do not learn about internal confidential security problems.
- Lack of clarity on officers’ role and differences in expectations, e.g. managers tasking officers with shelf filling rather than security.
- More support and feedback for security officers is needed from store managers.
- Also, GMB (no date) noted that employers must take measures to protect security staff from violence as well, including for example issuing PPE (e.g. safety helmets) where the violence risk cannot be eliminated.

Finally, issues and questions that retailers/security companies need to consider regarding whether security guards are employed include:

- Good risk assessment is crucial to see why security are needed and their objectives.
- Specify how security will work with other people and other security technology to make the officers work more interesting and boost security commitment.
- The agreed role needs communicating and store managers need authority about what security officers should be doing.
- Ensure officers have key competencies and managers know these.
- Ensure key performance indicators are operational and standards exist for ‘how’ to prevent crime and violence.
- Ensure there is integration in retail teams and with external links as store managers were more positive about security officers when they were more closely involved with them.

ODPM (2004) reported that the presence of security staff could provide enough of a human deterrent. For example, a shopping centre in Sunderland enhanced security using security staff and all crime (including violent crime) declined between 1999/00 and 2001/02. However, the use of security guards may not be that prevalent: Shury et al (2005) reported that just 1% or 2% of businesses employed store detectives or had a system where security guards went to the premises if an alarm went off. Only 4% used security patrols during opening hours and only 2% had them after hours. In addition, Beswick et al (2003) reported a retail case study that suggested that formal security style uniforms might be less successful compared to smart or corporate uniforms.

Finally, the AABC provides detail on how guards could make customer arrests and how to do it in a safe and legal fashion (AABC, 2006a).
Security: summary

There were many references to security measures. Whilst these tended to be directed to the control of crime risk, they will also be relevant to controlling the risk of work-related violence.

- Security measures included:
  - Physical building, door and window security, e.g. locks, glass etc
  - Door detectors and metal detectors
  - Access to roof and premises

• Working practices in terms of opening and closing premises are described to minimise the risk of violence and crime.

• The role and employment of security guards, particularly within retail environments were also described – they can be effective but need a clearly defined role and need to be well integrated into the store.

• Security measures are perceived to be effective, although some caution that they can be ‘bolt-on’ measures, rather than tackling the root cause of violence, is needed and they can lead to the premises appearing dangerous and not welcoming to customers and staff.

4.4.2 Specific Products (e.g. alarms, tagging)

Alarms – security or personal alarms

Many businesses report having burglar alarms (e.g. Shapland (1995) and Hibberd and Shapland (1993) reported that burglar alarms were used by 54-60% of shopkeepers). Shury et al (2005) reported that 82% of retailers had an alarm with around half having an alarm system linked to the alarm company or police. 9% of retailers had a video system that recorded events while 7% had a system that allowed the alarm company to listen in. This may also allow the person monitoring the alarm to speak to robbers, which has been found by at least one chain to be a very effective deterrent. Indeed, alarms were one measure that was most likely to be felt to be effective.

A variety of references mentioned the use of alarms, be it security alarms or personal alarms/panic buttons. Beswick et al (2003) even reported the simple use of 999 speed dial on telephones that connect direct to the police during trouble. However, there was little detail in much of the literature. Examples of such references include AABC (2006b); Hayter (1994); Home Office (2006); HSE (1995, 1997, 2002); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); OSHA (1998); Safety and Health Practitioner (2003a); Walsh (2006); Westminster Licensing Policy Appendix 7 (2005).

Some literature, however, did give further details about the use of alarms including issues surrounding whether they are effective and how to ensure effectiveness.

Various references mentioned some useful considerations. For example:

- Alarms should be carefully planned so they match the organisation’s needs.

- Alarm buttons should be located discreetly at the counter and should be within easy reach so that they can be operated unobtrusively.
- Alarms should be linked remotely to a panel in the staff/management area or security office or even linked to the police. Security alarms should be registered with the police and manned 24 hours.

- Alarms must be well maintained and regularly tested.

- Ensure that there is a policy for the use of panic buttons and alarms.

- Alarms should be supported by clear activation and response procedures that employees understand. There should be a quick response and staff must be fully trained in the use of alarms.

- Only activate alarm if it is safe and this may be when the robber has left to ensure that it does not agitate robbers.

- Ensure employees are encouraged to use the alarm if they are uncomfortable and know it is not a sign of failure. (Beswick et al, 2003; Hayter, 1994; Home Office, 2006; London Borough of Tower Hamlets, 2006; OSHA, 1998; Swanton and Webber, 1990; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003b).

However, some literature referred to factors that limit the usefulness of alarms, particularly personal attack alarms. For example:

- Personal alarms do not prevent violence and they may give staff a false sense of security – they are no replacement for safe work practices (Unison, 1997, 2003).

- Personal alarms may not work when needed, may not be able to reach them in an incident and there may be no-one around to respond. Alarms that also spray chemicals may not work as the offender may get hold of them or the victim may be charged with assault (USDAW, 2003b).

- There may be concerns over the cost of alarms but it has been shown that panic buttons can be made cheaply with a doorbell, switch and battery (Beswick et al, 2003).

**Evaluation**

Finally, some literature reported some kind of evaluation, albeit lacking specificity to alarms solely or to violence as the outcome. Based on several studies, the Southland Corporation of Dallas implemented several crime prevention strategies over the past 20 years. These included alarms that reduced robberies by 70% and reduced the average monetary loss of each robbery to just $37. Also, an example of an effective alarm system was seen in 7-11 stores. Alarms in these stores included fixed and remote activator devices that used telephone lines to transmit signals to a remote monitoring station. A fixed button hardwired directly to the alarm panel was located near the primary till. Store employees were also encouraged to carry the remote alarm activators on belts or in pockets but only to activate if it was safe to do so. This activator device had two buttons that had to be pressed at the same time to activate the alarm, to reduce the chance of false alarms. The crime deterrence programme of measures in 7-11 stores including such alarms seemed to help reduce robberies and made employees feel safer (Lins and Erickson, 1998). However, this does not necessarily refer to a reduction in violence. Larkin (2002) made slightly more reference to violence when reporting that security alarms can reduce the risk of workplace homicides (50%). However, Casteel et al (2004) cited that the installation of security devices such as video cameras and alarms have not shown as high a level of robbery protection as some other measures.
Shapland (1995) / Hibberd and Shapland (1993) noted that it is difficult to assess the effectiveness of alarms but some evidence was reported. Laycock (1985) suggested that while alarms were effective in reducing burglary rates, there was some evidence of displacement to violent encounters instead, suggesting that this measure may not prevent violence. Dixons (1994) studied different alarm systems and found a 91% false alarm rate with conventional alarms and a 9% false alarm rate with audio verification systems (whereby the monitoring centre can listen to the vicinity of the alarm when it goes off). It was noted that alarms are only effective if they are the more modern systems (i.e. verification systems), if their use is properly targeted and if there is an effective response to activation.

**Tagging**

Tagging of products on sale is a measure that is more relevant to retail premises. A variety of references suggested that retail premises could use tagging as a way of deterring crime and theft (and therefore the potential violence that may occur as well). For example, AABC (2006b); Home Office (2006); Press et al (2001); Shapland (1995); Shury et al (2005); USDAW (2003b).

The Retail Action Group (1994b, cited in Shapland, 1995) described various measures currently thought by retailers to be effective in preventing or minimising customer theft. These can be split into target removal and target hardening. For example:

- **Target removal** – dummy or disabled goods on display, holding expensive goods in cabinets.
- **Target hardening** – security conscious display stands (e.g. clothing rails where clothes cannot be slipped off quickly), improving security of cabinets or locking goods in place with chains or electronic systems, tagging goods to activate alarm if removed from shop.

In terms of target hardening, tagging is one measure that is often used by retailers. In an attempt to determine its effectiveness, Farrington et al (1993, cited in Shapland, 1995) compared electronic tagging, store redesign and uniformed guards as preventive devices against theft.

- Electronic tagging caused a significant decrease in shoplifting rates (31% to 7% or 17% to 1% depending on the shop) maintained for several weeks.
- Redesign of the store to increase visibility caused a significant decrease in shoplifting immediately after it was introduced (37% to 15% or 24% to 5%) but this did not persist.
- There was no significant effect of introducing the uniformed guard.
- Therefore, tagging did seem more effective than store redesign and uniformed guards but tagging does have disadvantages such as cost, willingness of staff to respond to alarm activation or professional thieves learning to foil or remove tags.

Geason and Wilson (1992, cited in Shapland, 1995) also reported an evaluation of marking small frequently stolen items and placing warning signs that these are specially monitored and found reductions in losses by half or two thirds (however, this does not necessarily show a reduction in violence).

As mentioned above, tagging may have certain disadvantages or factors that limit its effectiveness. Other references that discussed this include:
The Home Office (2006), who noted that there needs to be signs explaining that tagging is used on certain small/high value goods.

Shury et al (2005) remarked that tagging or marking of stock and equipment was common amongst retailers (two thirds of retailers) but thought that it was not a substitute for vigilance by staff.

USDAW (2003b) pointed out that if tagging is used, staff must know what to do when the alarm sounds.

Finally, Press et al (2001) reported that tagging may be a useful visual deterrent but there are problems that limit their effectiveness, such as different technologies, time and expense involved in their use and their vulnerability to determined thieves.

Case Study:

‘Mosquito’

This device may be relevant and potentially useful to both retail and licensed premises, but its use so far has been limited to retail premises.

A newspaper article by Parkin (2006) reported on a new electronic device called the ‘Mosquito’. It is an electronic device that emits a high pitched buzzing noise that can only be heard by people aged under 25 and is so uncomfortable to youngsters ears (but does not do any lasting damage to ears) that gangs of youths are forced to disperse. The device is being trialled by police in Rotherham and if successful could be used across South Yorkshire to tackle anti-social behaviour. This sort of device may prevent crime that results from gangs of youths and may reduce staff feeling threatened by youths loitering outside shops. The ‘Mosquito’ was first used by a shopkeeper in South Wales who said it proved effective in dealing with gangs of youngsters.

Case Study:

Biometric identification system

Nightclubs in The Netherlands are pioneering a biometric identification system used to reduce the number of troublemakers accessing the premises. Clubber’s fingerprints and face templates will be stored on a smart membership card that can then be verified each time they visit the club. Troublemakers would be blacklisted on the system and be warned or refused entrance. This system is only being piloted at the moment with pilot clubs using 3 to 4 biometric kiosks at each entrance. However, costs are high so it is important to ensure that the system works and user acceptance is crucial for it to work (Lambrechts, 2000).
Specific Products: summary

- Security alarms are used by many businesses. A variety of types exist such as audible alarms, silent alarms and audio monitoring systems (where the monitoring centre can listen to the vicinity of an activated alarm). There is little evaluation of the effectiveness of alarms, particularly with regard to work-related violence. Staff must know when and how to activate alarms and how to respond.
- Tagging of goods within retail premises is used. There was some evidence to suggest it was an effective deterrent against theft but how tagging can impact on work-related violence was not particularly assessed. Tagging was felt not to be a substitute for other crime and violence prevention measures. Staff need to know how to respond to tagging alarms.
- Mosquito, a device that emits a high-pitched sound to deter youngsters, is starting to be used, as are biometric identification systems.

4.4.3 CCTV

Need


However, various conditions were mentioned in some of the above references in relation to the effective use of CCTV. For example,

- Ensure that employees know how to use the system.
- Provide good training to officers responsible for monitoring CCTV images.
- Permanently display a sign stating that monitoring of the site is continuous.
- Ensure CCTV is well-sited and is operational before, during and after opening/licensing hours.

Further details on conditions or requirements for effective CCTV use are also discussed in the subsection on the next page.
Case Studies:
Lins and Erickson (1998) provided two examples of the use of CCTV cameras.

- A 1991 study by the National Association of Convenience Stores found that robberies decreased in convenience stores that used high-resolution, colour CCTV systems in which a high-resolution colour monitor was placed in the front of the store so that customers and criminals could see they were being recorded. Therefore, each 7-11 store is now equipped with one fixed colour CCTV camera located near the front of the shop with a clear view of the front door and primary cash till, as well as events occurring outside the front door. The cameras are wired to a high-resolution colour monitor mounted in clear view of the customers and a black and white monitor in the back room, as well as a time lapse VCR that switches to real time when an employee activates an alarm. This system has been used as evidence in a criminal investigation after pictures encouraged the criminals to turn themselves in.

- The Southland of Dallas are also experimenting with interactive CCTV surveillance whereby a central security station can monitor real time images from a remote site and talk directly to anyone in or around the 7-11 store. Stores using this system typically have 3-5 interior and exterior cameras and one or more intercoms. It is important to ensure that contractor companies provide good training to officers responsible for monitoring CCTV images so that they do not say the wrong thing over the intercom, inflame an already tense situation and endanger the employee. This technology has been tested but no conclusions on its usefulness have been drawn yet.

Legalities

Despite such encouraging examples it is important to remember the legalities surrounding CCTV. For example, Nannery (2001) reported that while CCTV is useful and widely used there is a need for legal safeguards to ensure it is not abused. Nannery reports that Britain does have a regulatory framework to prevent the abuse of CCTV and to ensure it is used properly for law enforcement. The Association of Convenience Stores (2004) noted that there are restrictions on video surveillance under the Data Protection Act 1998. For example,

- The use of cameras must be made clear to all staff and customers.
- All cameras and microphones must be clearly visible to staff and customers.
- Video and audio information must not be disclosed to third parties.

Mechanisms of how CCTV works

Some literature discussed how CCTV could reduce work-related violence and crime.

For example, some references suggested that CCTV has a deterrent effect due to increased rates of offender apprehension at being identified and prosecuted (Home Office, 2004; OSHA, 1998; Press et al, 2001; USDAW, 2003b). The Safety and Health Practitioner (2003a) noted that CCTV might reduce threat of attack and increase employee confidence. Edwards and Tilley (no date); Gill and Hemming (2004); and Tilley (1993, cited in Gill and Spriggs, 2005) listed various ways in which CCTV is thought to work:

- Facilitates effective deployment of security guards/police so they catch offenders ‘in the act’.
Police can use CCTV monitors to more effectively pinpoint trouble spots/times.

- Deterring potential offenders who fear increased risk of apprehension and increased likelihood that they will be caught.

- Obtaining evidence to find and convict offenders.

- Allowing offenders on the move to be tracked and caught.

- More natural surveillance is encouraged which may deter offenders.

- Highlighting attention to crime and general/specific publicity of CCTV may deter offenders.

- Reassuring town centre users that they are safer.

- May encourage potential victims to be more conscious and take precautions.

- CCTV may give third parties more confidence to challenge offenders.

However reasons why CCTV may not always operate positively were also reported. For example, CCTV may have less impact on crimes that can be done quickly, officials and public vigilance may decrease as they begin to rely on CCTV and CCTV may reduce natural surveillance as fewer people use the area due to being watched (Tilley, 1993, cited in Gill and Spriggs, 2005).

Some of the literature referred to the need for a combination of measures to include CCTV. ODPM (2004) noted that CCTV has a positive impact especially when implemented as part of a wider package. For example, CCTV is most effective when combined with good lighting and is supported by management, continuous monitoring and adequate response. A couple of references reported that CCTV should be linked with a radio link (e.g. Edwards and Tilley, no date; Gill and Hemming, 2004). ‘Radio Link’ involves a small two-way communications radio carried by retailers and local police that enables them to keep in touch with each other, share information about shoplifters and maintain direct contact with the police if help is needed. A radio link system can be placed in the CCTV control room for communication with operators as well. Reported products of radio link are that it can enhance the potential effectiveness of CCTV and can create good co-operation and team spirit among multi-agency groups. Gill and Hemming (2004) reported that the retail radio link in Lewisham was a valuable aid to directing CCTV cameras to incidents of theft etc and allowed reaction to events by police and CCTV operators. However, while these links are important, it was recognised that radio link systems will only work if members participate fully.

**CCTV Requirements/Effectiveness Factors**

**Installation/Implementation**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) and BBPA (2003) reported that when considering whether to use CCTV and before installing the system, it is best to identify the problems first by collecting views and hard evidence about robbery, drunkenness, violent attacks, disorderly behaviour, loitering etc from the police, retailers, owners, managers and staff, the council, the public and local residents and customers, and identify the best solutions to the problem, rather than suggesting CCTV without thinking. Edwards and Tilley (no date) also reported that the timing of installation of CCTV must be right, considering for example urgency of problems, availability of funds and prices now and in the future, technology developments, availability of
transmission lines, acceptability of CCTV and enthusiasm of parties involved. ACPO (2005) noted that once installed regular maintenance should be conducted with services at least annually.

**Objectives of CCTV systems**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) and Gill and Spriggs (2005) reported that there must be a clear statement of the objectives of a CCTV scheme and its purposes in order to consider if it is the best measure and to ensure achievement of the goals of the CCTV system. It was felt that there is sometimes too much faith in the efficacy of CCTV. Also, BBPA (2003) noted that CCTV will not be effective unless used alongside a clear policy and supplied by a competent and reputable supplier.

**Management**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) and Gill and Spriggs (2005) cited that good practice for CCTV is to ensure that schemes are properly managed with access to technical expertise, engagement of end users and a suitable project manager in order to meet the scheme objectives. A named official should be assigned responsibility for the CCTV system (including communicating with the control room, liaising with police, arranging viewings of recordings, ensuring security of tapes, advising on operational use, monitoring and evaluation, maintenance and operator training). In most cases CCTV systems will involve a partnership and the roles of various parties must be clear. Gill and Spriggs (2005) noted some negative points about some CCTV schemes. For example, many schemes rely too heavily on technical consultants whose work is not scrutinised, e.g. some consultants positioned cameras too close to buildings, lights or foliage. In their research, only five schemes had a manager with previous CCTV experience to enable them to question technical consultants.

Also, some schemes did not engage with end users such as the police so the police were reluctant to give intelligence.

**Signage**

Edwards and Tilley (no date), the Home Office (2004) and ODPM (2004) noted that people, including offenders, staff and customers, should be aware of the presence of CCTV by the use of signs. Using signs to publicise that CCTV is in operation can increase its impact and deterrent value and is necessary to comply with data protection and individual rights to information. Gill et al (2005) reported that signage must be in the immediate vicinity of the CCTV, be clearly visible and legible to the public, A4 or A3 in size, stating ‘CCTV is in operation’ and identify a responsible person and contact number. Edwards and Tilley (no date) also noted that duty holders should use non-threatening signs, e.g. ‘smile, you're on 24 hour CCTV’. However, Hibberd and Shapland (1993) reported that notices were only used by a minority of shopkeepers in this survey, but this was conducted over 10 years ago.

**Lighting**

Lighting was considered by a few references as an important factor for CCTV effectiveness. For example, BBPA (2003) noted normal/special weather conditions and changing light levels, whether existing or enhanced, should be considered.

Gill and Spriggs (2005) and Gill and Hemming (2004) both discussed how the quality of CCTV may be worse at night. Some cameras are unable to cope with or adapt to artificial lighting/neon lighting/low lighting/ street lighting or lighting that is too close in the hours of darkness, which can lead to strobing or glare and affects the ability to monitor images and the
quality of recorded images. Also, such lighting effects can obscure detail on images and when cameras are moved quickly a ‘trail’ is produced. Such inappropriate levels and type of lighting, especially at night, may lead to CCTV not being effective and not being able to be used as evidence. Therefore, CCTV managers must assess lighting. Indeed, Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that equipment specifications will vary by the location where the system is to operate, e.g. outdoors/indoors or in daylight/at night and if usage is during darkness hours there is a need to consider:

- what it is you are trying to identify (number plate, person, movement etc),
- what type of light there is currently and its likely effect on picture quality, and
- whether extra lighting is required.

Edwards and Tilley (no date) also noted that CCTV is more receptive to some colour combinations. Amount of light is measured in Lux and there will be minimum Lux levels required for CCTV use (e.g. 500 Lux for a well lit shop, 2 Lux minimum security risk lighting etc).

**Control room and operators**

Gill and Hemming (2004) reported that control room management, operation and procedures are important, although their comments may be more relevant to larger companies/premises and town centres. Control room facilities should be good including, for example, microwave transmission, tape store and equipment rooms, systems allowing camera control and image selection and code of practice manual.

Edwards and Tilley (no date) also noted that the location of a control room must be within a secure building, such as a local police station. Multiple locations are bad as communication is impeded.

**Communication**

Gill and Spriggs (2005) reported that communication is important but sometimes lacking. For example, they found that the monitoring schedule was an issue in that six CCTV systems in their evaluation which were staffed for less than 24 hours a day when 24 hour coverage was needed. Control rooms rely on intelligence and communication from the public/police about incidents and they found that in practice communication was low (again, their comments may be directed at larger premises/town centres). They noted that retail/pub radio communication accounted for significant numbers of observed incidents but only 26% of incidents were prompted by these methods (14% prompted by Retail radio and 8% by Pub radio). However, the presence of a radio (one or two way) was beneficial enabling operators to locate incidents as quickly as police and improve real time recording. Outward communication from the control room can also be assisted by the ability to patch images through to monitors in police control and dispatch (CAD) rooms but this is not always successful as they found that operators only passed on one fifth of incidents. Gill and Hemming’s (2004) study was more positive about communication and noted that it is one of the biggest factors determining whether CCTV could succeed. Good communication from and to the control room is important and they found that by the end of their evaluation the control room had acquired a police radio enabling two-way communication between police officers and CCTV operators. Also, Lewisham recognised that intelligence-led monitoring increases effectiveness so they provided help points linked to the control room that the public could use to report incidents. CCTV operators were also able to interact with the police CAD room and alert police by switching CAD monitors to observe incidents. Before this, operators were frustrated as they could not inform the police of anything
but communication has now greatly improved. Edwards and Tilley (no date) also noted that it is invaluable to have a facility for transmitting pictures and camera control to the police, a slave monitor for police to view incidents and a telephone link between the CCTV operator and police.

Operators

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that it is important to vet and recruit staff who are alert, intelligent, committed and will not misuse the CCTV system. Periodic spot checks should be made to ensure the system is being operated properly. However, BBPA (2003) noted the need to consider who will make the observation and whether observation will be in public view or not. Indeed, in smaller retail or licensed premises that may not be part of a larger CCTV system, the consideration of who will observe and act on observations is important.

Training will be needed to enable operators to identify suspicious behaviour and make sound judgements. Indeed, Gill and Spriggs (2005) noted that the skills and knowledge of operators determines how well live incidents are identified and whether images are of good quality. Gill and Hemming (2004) cited professional training that is important for operators, e.g. they suggest Tavcom BTEC CRO 1 and CRO 2 courses provide an exceptional basic qualification, complemented by in-house training on camera location and specific operational requirements. They also noted that manager training such as attendance at CCTV user groups is also important. However, Gill and Spriggs (2005) reported that training is often lacking and code of practice guidelines may not be read.

In terms of the attention span of operators, Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that there is no solid evidence about the typical attention span of a person operating a CCTV system, nor how many screens an individual can manage (opinion is divided between a single operator monitoring 20 pictures for 6 hours or more and an operator concentrating for no more than 20 minutes). Therefore, no secure guidance can be given on this issue at the moment. However, Gill and Hemming (2004) noted that while there was some concern over the ability to remain focused over a 12-hour shift, managers had not detected any reduction in concentration or effectiveness. Also, Gill and Hemming (2004) cited that a ratio of about 40 cameras per operator was found and was generally recognised as appropriate for the effective monitoring of town/city systems. Nevertheless, people are fallible and ‘minds wander’ so there may come a point where operators see images but do not react to them.

Partnerships

Gill and Spriggs (2005) and Gill and Hemming (2004) discussed the importance of partnerships for CCTV to be effective. There is a general acceptance that CCTV within town and city centres depends for its effectiveness on good working partnerships between the control room, police, local businesses, street wardens, community safety teams, shopping centre security and other stakeholders. There was much practical evidence that CCTV benefits from good partnerships and examples were given in Gill et al’s reports of times where partnership working was effective.

Examples of partnership working included:

- Police issuing photographs of known offenders to CCTV operators.
- A police officer seconded to work in the control room to create an immediate partnership bond between the police and CCTV room and allow operators’ observations to be directed with more purpose. This evaluation showed that this system has worked successfully in other areas and was shown to improve the ability of the control room to
influence operations when a police officer attended Friday pm and Saturday am. They also found that police generally have reasonable contact with control rooms anyway (40% of officers made contact with the control room, 62% of which was for monitoring cameras/tracking suspects. Also 78% had been directed to incidents by operators).

- CCTV operatives and wardens working together has meant that CCTV strengthens the warden’s role. Because of CCTV wardens do not have to stand around observing a situation for long periods as they can pass it to CCTV operators, and operators are glad for guidance on what to observe.

- CCTV was most effective in conjunction with partnership measures such as retail/pub radio.

However, while such partnerships are needed for an effective town/city wide CCTV system, there were some more negative points reported. For example, lack of feedback from police can mean that successes may not be reported to the CCTV room and a poor relationship between police and operators such as operators being reprimanded for calling police means that operators will stop alerting police to incidents. Also, poor partnerships may mean that opportunities for training of operators may be missed. CCTV is more effective if police show interest, provide intelligence, act on operators’ findings, provide presence in the control room and make good use of images.

**Location**

A variety of references provided some suggestions for the location of CCTV, relevant to both retail and licensed premises (e.g. BBPA, 2003; London Borough of Tower Hamlets, 2006; Press et al, 2001; Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005; Safety and Health Practitioner, 2001; Westminster Licensing Policy Appendix 7 and 8, 2005). For example, some references asserted that:

- All entry and exit points from inside and outside must be monitored by a high-resolution camera that records every person entering in any light conditions to a minimum standard of frontal identification, but still located in a discreet position.

- Further monitoring may also be necessary, e.g. cash offices or storerooms, immediate outdoor areas such as gardens or car parks, the counter area, separate rooms where visibility from counters or bars is hindered, toilet areas etc. In this way cameras will cover the whole premises.

- Nightclubs and pubs must have dance floors, fire exits and areas where security searches are carried out monitored in all light conditions.

- Constant recording is recommended for all cameras and ‘real time’ recording is required.

- CCTV satellite cameras should be positioned at regular intervals along shop aisles and should be able to rotate 360 degrees to cover a large radius of floor space.

- There were indications that CCTV is more effective in sites with limited and controlled access points, such as entrances and exits to an area. CCTV works in small, enclosed areas (Gill and Spriggs, 2005).
The Home Office (2004) reported that stakeholders should ensure that cameras are installed in correct locations and at the right angle and height, but did not provide any guidance on what the right location, angle or height is.

Also, Gill and Spriggs (2005) reported that location is not always considered, e.g. only 7 projects in their study had a procedure for deciding positioning. Consulting with knowledgeable parties is important for decisions on position, e.g. they found that police intelligence and existing operators were invaluable in positioning decisions. If positioning is inappropriate operators can only partially monitor and operators commonly complained of such flaws reducing effectiveness. Indeed, ACPO (no date) reported that monitors must be correctly positioned to allow adequate viewing by operators.

Nelson et al (2001) reported evidence from Cardiff and Worcester showing primary clusters of violent crime and disorder at night in the pub/club leisure zones, subsidiary afternoon clusters near licensed premises and a late night confluence flashpoint in pedestrian activity moving between public houses and fast food establishments. Such geographical evidence may have implications for deciding on the location of CCTV, as it will provide knowledge of the key locations for CCTV. This kind of evidence may also be useful for finding out which locations inside premises need CCTV more.

**Redeployable CCTV**

Gill et al (2005) discussed redeployable/mobile CCTV (RCCTV) that can be used in secondary shopping centres and outside pubs/clubs. Key transferable lessons for the implementation of redeployable (mobile) CCTV are below and are really quite similar to the information discussed above for standard CCTV systems.

- Establish a clear rationale for purchase (visible deterrent, reassure public etc).
- Ensure RCCTV is appropriate for use and fits in with other measures.
- Identify funding to cover capital and running costs.
- Ensure realistic timescales and be aware of possible technical problems.
- Communicate with other departments, e.g. after sales maintenance, and ensure they accept that their assistance may be required and negotiate contracts.
- Test RCCTV prior to purchase and get supplier references/user advice.
- Identify a ‘gatekeeper’ who is responsible for control and access of the system, e.g. council or police, and ensure clear procedures for use are made.
- Have clear operational requirements and legal protocols.
- Consider if more staff are needed and trained on technical operation, protocols and legislation (this is particularly important because RCCTV is more affected by user error than static systems).
- Ensure images obtained are correctly managed to comply with legislation and to ensure their use as evidence.
Coverage and Density

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that opinion is divided on the need for 24 hour, 365 days CCTV coverage as at quieter times such provision may not be justified in terms of costs. Where active operation is not continuous, there should be arrangements for periodic and random times when the system is actively used to ensure no inactivity pattern is discovered. Also, it was suggested that timing of staffing could be randomised to minimise the confidence with which offenders could commit crimes knowing that CCTV is not active.

Gill and Spriggs (2005) report that a larger area of CCTV coverage tended to reduce crime more. Camera coverage is also linked to camera positioning and needs to take account of the nature of the area being monitored and objectives of the CCTV system, e.g. extensive and interlinking coverage is necessary in urban areas where the objective is to track offenders.

Gill and Spriggs (2005) also discussed the issue of camera density. They found that increased camera density (number of cameras per unit area) was related to effect size only where the number of cameras in an area had not reached saturation. Therefore, increased camera numbers may not necessarily produce a greater reduction in crime. In addition, numbers of cameras are not as important as their being strategically placed to view as much of the intended target area as possible. Public awareness of CCTV increased as the number of cameras per unit area increased but this did not lead to feelings of security as people worried about being a victim. There is no written Home Office guidance regarding a sensible level of cameras.

Edwards and Tilley (no date) also reported that having a multitude of cameras is not the simple answer to effective CCTV siting; rather placement (e.g. overt and placed prominently) and monitoring are essential. They argue that a dozen high-resolution, state-of-the-art cameras and monitors with a well organised and operated control room manned by high quality operators is more effective than forty cameras with fuzzy pictures and ineffective operators. They also stress that CCTV should not be used covertly.

Cameras and mounting

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that colour cameras have lower resolution and sensitivity than monochrome but have other advantages such as it being easier and more natural to view the images. Camera technology is improving so the ability of colour cameras to deal with low light levels or mixed/artificial light sources is getting better, but colour accuracy is not guaranteed. There may be a need therefore to decide if 24-hour colour accuracy is vital. They also noted that CCTV users should ensure they use the minimum equipment necessary as well as essential accessories, e.g. pan, tilt and zoom (PTZ). Infrared should be a last resort as improving lighting is preferable.

Gill and Spriggs (2005) reported that the type of camera (static or pan, tilt and zoom, PTZ) and the way it is mounted (box or dome) influenced whether a system was useful for live monitoring, for providing good quality evidence, for deterring offenders or reassuring the public. The effect of static versus PTZ cameras on crime levels was inconclusive. Static cameras are better for producing good quality evidence as they point in one direction and have a fixed focal length but they are unlikely to be monitored live (only 17 incidents were spotted in Gill and Spriggs study). There is often a too high camera to monitor ratio so fewer cameras are displayed which reduces the ability of an operator to spot an incident. Designers prefer PTZ cameras as operators can control their field of vision and they are therefore more interesting to operate. Also, they are seen to move so are better for live monitoring (over 100 incidents were spotted during Gill and Spriggs study) and at reassuring the public. However, to ensure adequate coverage requires many overlapping PTZ cameras which is costly and features such as ‘auto tour’ can be frustrating if it moves on and only records part of an incident.
Gill et al (2005) discussed issues surrounding the mounting of cameras such as lamppost height and width. For example, it is important to check that manufacturer brackets fit around the lamppost. Also, while tall lampposts may sway in high winds and affect image quality, short lampposts have their own disadvantages such as making it difficult to identify a line of sight or rendering them susceptible to vandalism. Indeed, they mentioned that anti-vandalism measures such as anti-climbing rings with spikes should be considered to protect cameras. Finally, Gill et al note that a cherry picker should be used to mount CCTV cameras.

There is further detail on cameras in Gill et al (2005) in their study of redeployable / mobile CCTV. For example, advantages and disadvantages of cameras (shoebox vs dome camera, p. 11 and technical problems with cameras p.15).

**Monitors**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that monitors must be of good quality with image quality being particularly important, e.g. they must be set up correctly for colour balance and a satisfactory level of contrast and brightness. Also, Westminster Licensing Policy (2005) Appendix 8 recommended that there should be no split screen or rolling CCTV monitors on view to the public as this identifies monitored areas.

**Power Supply**

Cameras can be plugged into a mains supply or a battery can be mounted with or placed near to the camera. Using mains supply from lampposts is the most reliable way to power cameras but battery power is more suitable to rapid deployment of redeployable CCTV (Gill et al, 2005). There is further detail on power supply and the advantages and disadvantages of these two types of power supply in Gill et al (2005, p. 14).

**Transmission**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that there are various means of transmitting images:

- Slow scan is a signal passed down a telephone line but it produces a jerky image and is inflexible in that cameras cannot be controlled.
- Coaxial cable transmission connects cameras to the control room and conducts both video and control signals. Communication is limited by distance as the signal deteriorates at distances much over 600m or 2km with powerful amplification.
- Twisted pair cable transmission involves two sets of cables with one carrying the video signal and the other the control signal. These allow for signalling over greater distances, up to 10km, and can be relatively low-cost but a transmitter and receiver are needed for every video signal source.
- With microwave transmission, a dish sends picture signal and camera controlling signals which allow pan, tilt or zooming. Microwave equipment can be easily re-sited if needed and the units are individual so if sabotaged only one picture will be affected. They can also transmit over considerable distances. However, they need a clear line of sight and in adverse weather they may lose some picture quality.
- Infra-red links have been found to be useful for short links but they need a clear line of sight and are more affected by weather conditions.
- Fibre optic cable is a relatively permanent fixture and is therefore not practical to re-site. Sabotage will also affect all units and possibly the whole system. However, they have high quality optical transparency, transmission losses are extremely low and there is virtually no electrical interference. Also, transmission is possible over distances of more than 50km and cables are capable of carrying a large number of signals simultaneously. Fibre optics can also be cheaper to install.

There is further detail on transmission in Gill et al (2005) in their study of redeployable / mobile CCTV. For example, advantages and disadvantages of transmission (radio vs GSM, p.12) and technical problems with radio/GSM transmission (p.15).

**Receivers/Recording**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that specialist video recorders are needed due to the heavy usage. Recordings will normally be in time-lapse mode to enable a single videotape to be used for up to 24 hours. The operator will switch to real time recording for maximum image and to record a continuous, live event. Date and time must be shown on the image for investigation and evidential purposes although there must be checks that the time and date displayed on screen is correct. Gill and Hemming (2004) reported that if the recording of images is on SVHS recorders they should be running in 12-hour mode with no more than 8 cameras on each VCR giving an image refresh rate of just over one second. This reflects ‘best practice’.

Gill and Spriggs (2005) discussed digital recording systems and concluded that digital systems have faster searching and maintain image quality. However, they also noted that they have a finite storage capacity (31 days) and there may be lack of knowledge of digital technology. Indeed, they noted that control room staff using new digital technology lacked confidence that they obtain the full advantages they should get from faster searching and recording capabilities.

There is further detail on receivers in Gill et al (2005) in their study of redeployable/mobile CCTV. For example, advantages and disadvantages of receivers (portable briefcase, stand-alone PC, or existing CCTV control room, p.13) and technical problems with receivers (p.15).

ACPO (2005) discussed the requirements for playback and export of CCTV images. Playback software should have variable speed control, frame by frame, forward and reverse, display single and multiple cameras, permit effective searching, e.g. by time and date and allow printing or saving of pictures. Playback should be possible without closing down the CCTV system. The time and date of each picture should be legible and it should be possible to replay exported files immediately.

With regards to export of images, a trained operator should be able to replay and export recordings and a simple manual should be available. The operator should know the retention period of a system and the export time for various amounts of data. The amount of video needed will depend on the nature of the investigation but if large amounts of data are needed it is essential that the systems can export quickly. Also, operators should be able to quickly export video and stills to a removable storage medium. Export should include any software or system settings needed to view pictures and retain picture integrity and pictures should be exported in the native file format. Also, export and recording should be possible at the same time.

Finally, security was mentioned in that all recording equipment must be stored in a secure area and in a lockable cabinet. Also, access should be restricted to authorised staff and there should be a written record of access and a logbook for recording the times when officers monitoring the
screens come on and off duty (Edwards and Tilley, no date; Westminster Licensing Policy, 2005).

**Tape Management**

A few references discussed the need for adequate CCTV tape management. For example, ACPO (2005); ACPO (no date); Edwards and Tilley (no date); Gill et al (2005); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); Westminster Licensing Policy (2005).

- Recorded videotapes/still pictures need to be kept in a secure place and access to the control room should be very carefully regulated and controlled to prevent improper use and tampering of tapes. It is important that tapes are securely stored because images used as evidence resulting in a conviction are required by law to be kept for the duration of the sentence, which could be more than 20 years.

- Recordings/still pictures should have the time and date superimposed on the image and should be locked away, with a clear record of location maintained. A full paper trail must be in place so tape usage, storage arrangements and incidents need to be documented.

- There should also be a record of who accesses the system. Electronic access controls, e.g. passwords, should not prevent authorised access to the system. Physical methods of access control such as in a locked room are just as effective if documented properly.

- There should be arrangements for ‘cleaning’ tapes before repeated use (e.g. recording heads must be kept clean). Tapes should be ‘de-gaussed’ (magnetically cleaned) of all previous images before they can be re-used for recording to ensure that the court accepts the evidence obtained on that tape.

- There should be arrangements to monitor how many times each tape has been used, with a maximum number of recordings specified (it is unwise to set this figure above 12 as the image degrades each time a tape is used).

- There should be sufficient storage capacity for 31 days good quality picture. If the system is VCR, ensure there are 31 tapes and tapes should normally be recycled every 31 days. Tapes must be good quality and changed daily and a register of tapes should be maintained. If the system is digital, ensure there is a time date stamp.

- Visually check tapes by playing them on different machines.

- The system should be capable of securing relevant pictures for review or export later and to protect such pictures.

- Neither tapes not still pictures should be released to the press other than by a police officer. Still pictures should be destroyed unless there are reasons for retention. Guidelines as to who can take hard copies should be provided.

**Images**

The Home Office (2004) noted that the CCTV system must produce images of a suitable format and quality. A few references discussed the requirements for CCTV images to ensure that they are effective and can be used as evidence. For example, ACPO (2005); ACPO (no date); BBPA (2003).
There should be a clear idea what stakeholders want to see and where, and they must select a system that will do it.

Images must be clear with people/facial details and vehicles identifiable, true colour, a clear view of a suspect’s body language and actions etc, and the ability to follow the progress of a target.

View the recorded pictures, not live pictures, to assess system performance.

It should not be expected that enhancement features such as zoom will provide extra detail.

Correctly set and maintain the system clock so that there are exact time records.

Picture quality should not be reduced to fit available storage capacity

A working copy of the evidence must be made, a guideline being to copy 15 minutes either side of the evidential area required

Also, ACPO (no date) reported that there are four levels of observation to consider:

- Monitor (can observe number, direction and speed of people – not less than 5% of screen),
- Detection (can ascertain whether or not a person is visible – not less than 10% of screen),
- Recognition (can say with high degree of certainty whether a person is the same as one seen before – not less than 50% of screen),
- Identification (picture quality and detail should be sufficient to enable the identity of a subject to be established beyond reasonable doubt – not less than 120% of screen).

In deciding whether CCTV evidence is accepted, Gill et al (2005, p. 20) referred to guidelines regarding image height, known as the ‘Rotakin Standard’, for images.

**Publicity**

Gill and Hemming (2004) discussed issues surrounding publicity of CCTV. Some stakeholders were concerned that the successes attributable to CCTV were not publicised enough and that such publicity would enhance its effectiveness. Indeed, Edwards and Tilley (no date) noted that success due to cameras should be published in the press or on TV, e.g. 3 arrests last week.

They suggest more could be done through publicity to make the public more aware of which areas were covered by cameras so that they can ensure they remain in protected areas if being followed. Publicity may also show the public that CCTV cameras are actually monitored and may make the public feel more reassured by the presumption that there will be a response to the camera observations rather than by the mere presence of the cameras.

Furthermore, police officers who had experienced the benefit of CCTV images in interviews with suspects and trials of offenders (i.e. CCTV had been publicised to them more) were inclined to rate the value of cameras higher than their colleagues who had not. This also matches the difference in views between offenders with experience of being caught by CCTV who rate it as effective and those who have not who are less inclined to see CCTV as a deterrent.
**Evaluation**

Edwards and Tilley (no date) reported that continuous monitoring and evaluation of a CCTV system is essential and businesses must be able to adapt the system if it will make it more effective. Such evaluation should consider:

- the impact on detection and apprehension of offenders,
- whether recorded evidence is adequate,
- data on arrest patterns before and after CCTV installation,
- the extent of CCTV used as evidence and in identifying offenders.

In the early stages of CCTV three-monthly monitoring reports are advisable with annual reports thereafter. Information on effectiveness will be more apparent in the second year of operation. Careful records of monitoring should be kept, including dates.

Gill and Spriggs (2005) evaluated 13 town/city CCTV projects which may not be fully applicable to retail or licensed premises but lessons may apply. They concluded that CCTV on its own is not conclusively very effective on crime levels and did not necessarily reduce crime or the fear of crime (six showed a relatively substantial reduction but only two showed a statistically significant reduction).

Feelings of safety did increase and eight systems led to a reduction in people reporting being a victim. However, these findings were not significant and worry about crime actually increased, use of target areas did not increase and respondents were less likely to think people reported more incidents or that police responded more quickly following CCTV installation. There were also some increases in crime. CCTV seemed to be more appealing in theory than practice; indeed, the level of support for CCTV remained high at over 70%. However, these findings could be affected by confounding factors. For example, CCTV could have increased recorded crime resulting from an increase in reporting or displacement of crime into other areas, (although this was infrequent). Also, as other measures such as improved security or fencing were introduced at the same time as CCTV being installed it may be unclear which measure is having the effect.

Furthermore, CCTV seemed to be more effective in acquisitive crimes. Impulsive crimes, e.g. alcohol-related, were less likely to be reduced and violence against the person (VAP) rose in 7 out of 11 schemes. Indeed, Welsh and Farrington (2002) found that CCTV had no effect on crimes of violence. Larkin (2002) cited “ ... many widely used measures such as video surveillance and observation mirrors have no preventive effect”. “There’s a tendency to assume that if these interventions prevent robberies, then they’ll prevent violence, but our data don’t support that”.

However, this could be indicative of a general upward trend in reporting of violent crime or an increase in reporting through control rooms paying more attention to pubs/clubs or the presence of a police on Friday/Saturday nights to respond more rapidly. Also, police recording violence as public order incidents rather than VAP may hide the extent of violence.

Gill and Hemming (2004) also evaluated a more general town/city CCTV scheme in Lewisham and also found mixed results.

- Few claimed that CCTV had reduced crime and disorder. The majority claimed that it reduced fear of crime but were doubtful whether this had actually reassured the public
and translated into increased use of town centres or increased business activity. It was suggested that more CCTV may induce more fear of crime.

- Nevertheless, incident analysis showed that an impressive proportion of reports originating in the CCTV control room resulted in a police response and police were impressed with the operators’ ability to interpret images. Also, it was noted that CCTV has a bigger role in policing than originally understood and it works well with police and radio links.

- CCTV was better at spotting certain offences, e.g. disorder, and less good at detecting others, e.g. shoplifting, that attract less attention. But operators have shown their value by locating incidents they are made aware of and the most common type of offence in which footage was viewed was assault. However, a comment from a community safety team suggested they felt little confidence that CCTV was good at protecting people from violence, although any reductions in violence due to CCTV may go unnoticed because the number of crimes of violence recorded may actually increase as CCTV brings incidents to police attention and identifies perpetrators.

Furthermore, Gill and Hemming (2004) reported some statistics on CCTV for 2002/2003. For example:

- CCTV detected 12.7% of assault or robbery incidents (70.5% detected by police and 7.5% by radio link) and located 32.8% in response to police request.
- CCTV detected 29.8% of public order / drunkenness incidents and located 36.2%.
- CCTV detected 9.2% of theft/shoplifting and located 16%.

Gill and Hemming noted that such statistics seem to show that more incidents are located by CCTV than detected, so is CCTV effective? However, CCTV located about half of police detected assault, which given the quick nature of assault, is credible. Also, of 39 assaults detected by CCTV, police made arrests on 14. This is clearly a major contribution of CCTV.

Shury et al (2005) also reported mixed opinion on the effectiveness of CCTV with some businesses considering it to be a valuable deterrent whilst others only felt it had limited efficacy. There was concern as to whether the pictures taken by CCTV were of evidential quality and compatible with police systems, e.g. several businesses reported poor images and one business was told the police would not act on CCTV footage because it was digital rather then VCR. Despite this, businesses reported wanting to have CCTV but that cost was a major barrier.

In addition, Press et al (2001) reported some major questions over the use of CCTV. They questioned whether premises use security measures to their full potential. Also, they noted that while the use of cameras has increased, there are also questions over whether they have a displacement effect and how effective and value for money it is. For example, when CCTV is installed there has to be someone to monitor it and there has to be instant reaction if a crime is committed for the system to be effective. Therefore, there potentially needs to be two guards to monitor and react to CCTV which is costly. In this way, despite the visual deterrence, CCTV may not be economical for smaller stores.

Cost Effectiveness

It is important to consider the cost effectiveness of CCTV. A retail case study on violence to lone workers reported that CCTV was a successful measure but a negative aspect was the fact that it is costly to install (Beswick et al, 2003). Shapland (1995) also reported that CCTV is
very expensive and there is a need to assess if it will pay back installation costs etc. However, it was noted by Beswick et al (2003) that some measures such as CCTV can be cost effective because they can be used for more than one purpose, e.g. doubling as a crime/theft and violence prevention measure. Also, Cusens and Shepherd (2005) reported that targeted closed-circuit television surveillance could be cost effective because, although there is little evidence that CCTV acts as a deterrent to violent behaviour, by facilitating rapid police response to street violence it may limit or prevent injury.

In terms of cost, the Home Office (2004) noted that where initiatives cannot afford to fund internal CCTV systems for all premises involved, one option used in one project was to purchase mobile CCTV kits installed on a temporary basis in stores suffering more problems. After a few months the cameras are moved to another store. The idea is that it will give retailers experience of using CCTV and encourage them to buy their own system – in fact the report noted that several retailers did do.

**Combination**

Some of the literature referred to the effectiveness of CCTV in relation to other measures. The Portman Group (1998) noted that CCTV alone can act as an effective deterrent but its usefulness in detecting and dealing with alcohol-related disorder is greatly enhanced if used in combination with other measures, such as PubWatch. For example, Ipswich and Burnley made significant investments in CCTV and found it to be very effective (e.g. crime reduced, fear of crime reduced, business confidence increased and increased usage of premises). Features of these CCTV examples included many cameras (45 in Burnley and 72 in Ipswich), a 24-hour control room and a direct telephone link to the police station facilitating instant responses. Burnley also had six ‘public help buttons’ around the town linked to the control room.

However, the large supermarket chain Tesco evaluated CCTV as part of a total security package but they found that it was difficult to quantify the effect of CCTV in minimising any violent incidents as any effects might not have been due to CCTV alone because the package involved other measures and the programme also raised staff awareness (Burrows, 1991a, cited in Shapland, 1995).

**Case Studies:**

Examples where CCTV has been used successfully in combination with other measures:

- Newcastle city centre had an upgraded CCTV system controlled by the police and staffed 24 hours, as well as a PubWatch and radio link and overall crime fell by 25% over the last 3 years (48% robbery) (ODPM, 2004).
- Gravesend had CCTV surveillance and radio contact between retailers and the police and shop theft fell by 19% (ODPM, 2004).
- Stroud had CCTV connected to a police radio system and theft fell by a quarter and burglary halved (ODPM, 2004).
- A shopping centre in Sunderland enhanced security using CCTV monitored by the police and all crime (including violent crime) experienced declined between 1999/00 and 2001/02 (ODPM, 2004).
CCTV: summary

- CCTV is increasingly being used as a violence and crime prevention measure.
- It is thought to work by being, amongst other hypotheses,
  - A deterrent to potential criminals in that they will be identified and prosecuted
  - Providing reassurance to workers and members of the public
  - Providing evidence for prosecution and conviction
- Negative aspects, such as a decrease in public vigilance due to an over reliance on CCTV were also mentioned.
- Effective CCTV systems conform to a number of requirements. (It was also found that much of the literature focussed on large scale CCTV systems, perhaps covering town or city centres.)
- A clear need for CCTV and clear objectives has been shown.
- There is nominated management for the running, upkeep and monitoring of the system.
- Signs about CCTV are displayed
- Redeployable (mobile) CCTV is also available
- Systems are chosen which are appropriate to lighting levels

- The literature concerning control rooms, with good communication and trained and adequate staffing was more relevant to and directed at larger premises or town/city centres.
- Staff who monitor CCTV need to be trained in observation, their responsibilities and in actions to take.
- Partnerships, particularly involving the police, were thought to make town and city centres initiatives more effective
- Location of CCTV cameras needs to be carefully considered, mobile CCTV is also available
- There are advantages and disadvantages to using different types of camera (static and pan, tilt and zoom) and mounting
- There is advice within the literature on coverage and density, mounting, monitoring, power supply, transmission and receivers, tape management
- There have been some evaluations of the effectiveness of CCTV systems.

It seems to be most effective, in terms of reducing crime, when combined with other measures such as a radio link or ‘Pub watch’ scheme.
Other evaluations suggest that it may not be effective in reducing violence, however there may be confounding factors affecting these results.
In general, CCTV is probably an area considered within this review where there has been the most evaluation, and a thorough systematic review of this evidence is beyond the scope of this review.
### 4.4.4 Environmental Design/Layout

The design or layout of the premises or the general environment of the premises can have a big impact on the prevention and management of work-related violence. The Portman Group (1998) suggested that premises make use of architectural liaison officers or crime prevention design advisors in the local police force. However, Press et al (2001) noted that advice on design is often only sought when undertaking a major refit, which does not happen often, and smaller shops often receive less advice and put less emphasis on store layout.

**Retail Premises**

Measures relevant to retail premises are discussed in the literature more in relation to reducing general crime such as robbery, however, as violence may result from such crime measures have some application to reducing violence. Examples of references discussing environmental measures in retail premises include Amandus et al (1997); Association of Convenience Stores (2004); GMB (no date); Hendricks et al (1999); Home Office (2004); Home Office (2006); HSE (1995, 1997, 1999, 2002); International Labour Office (2003); Mayhew (2000); Lins and Erickson (1998); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); ODPM (2004); Press et al (2001); Shapland (1995); Swanton and Webber (1990); USDAW (2002b) and USDAW (2003b). Measures discussed in these references include:

- **Improving the layout** of the store so that all corners are visible. If there are structures/pillars that obstruct the sight line or create concealed spaces, install mirrors or cameras. The Retail Action Group (1994b, cited in Shapland, 1995) cited that warning notices and signs and mirrors or CCTV to increase surveillance were currently thought by retailers to be effective in preventing or minimising customer theft.

- **Service counters/tills** should be positioned where staff can see customers entering and leaving the store and to allow a good visual line across the store. For example, located at the front or in the centre of stores or near an exit that is in full view of passers-by. Indeed, Mayhew (2000) reported that victimisation is higher if tills are located at the back where they cannot be seen and Amandus et al (1995) reported that cash tills at the back or side of stores was associated with increased robbery rates. However, Hibberd and Shapland (1993) noted that till location should not be too accessible.

- **Locate till equipment** behind a closed counter or into counter units to provide extra security and to minimise risk of theft. Also, checkout design should ensure that the cash drawer is sited away from customer reach, e.g. using plastic ‘draught proofing’ screens at the back of single checkouts, screens at the end of a row of tills or plastic covers over the cash drawer.

- **Counters** should be high enough to prevent climbing over, wide enough to prevent customers reaching staff and without gaps at the ends of counters to prevent people walking into staff areas. The service counter should be at least 110cm high and should give good visibility of the ‘shopfloor’. Any foot rails at counters should be removed. Also, designing counters with raised flooring can separate the public from staff more effectively and give better sight lines.

- **Avoid the presence of blind aisles** or too high aisle display units.

- **Consider the location of high cost products.** High value goods should be located in a clearly visible part of the store, away from the exit, on higher shelves or behind the counter out of sight or near the tills where staff can see them. Goods with an age
requirement could be placed out of reach of those customers. The Retail Action Group (1994b, cited in Shapland, 1995) cited that locating the most vulnerable products in the least vulnerable places is one measure currently thought by retailers to be effective in preventing or minimising customer theft.

- **Doors** into the staff area should be full height, one way, with laminated glass and entry doors from public to staff areas should be controlled by locks.

- **Flow management features and signposting.** At checkouts there should be competent routing of customers to guide customers through the store and discourage customers from entering ‘staff only’ areas. This also avoids wasting customer time, prevents customers being seen out of turn and ensures speedy service. Routing could include: signage, good customer flow, clear queuing lanes, one queue with call forward system to prevent queue jumping/switching, reception point for quick queries to avoid queuing too much, e.g. Post Office forms and staff rotation when demand is high so there are more staff serving.

- **Window sill height** should be sufficient to prevent people sitting on it.

- Ensure there is good **control of access**, e.g. elimination of concealed access to stores (unobserved back doorways etc, Hunter and Jeffery (1992, cited in Shapland, 1995)). Also, footpaths (e.g. behind shops) should be as straight as possible, overlooked by other buildings, have high levels of natural or artificial light, have access restricted using self closing and self locking gates.

- Eliminate or reduce the number of **escape routes** where possible. Fencing and landscaping have been effectively used to thwart easy egress and redirect pedestrian and vehicle traffic, e.g. a 7-11 company installed fences to block alleys that had been used by robbers to escape into crowded neighbourhoods and large thick bushes have been used to prevent people walking through pathways.

Some studies on the effectiveness of access/escape routes have been conducted. Casteel et al (2004) examined the effectiveness of a Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) intervention in reducing criminal activity in California. Nine liquor stores received individualised intervention plans that included limiting access and escape routes while 13 stores served as a comparison group. It was concluded that the programme reduced crime and injury in liquor stores (decreased robbery 82%, decreased shoplifting 87%), increased reports of incidents to police (increased 65%) and educated small business about the risks associated with retail violence and the countermeasures that can be taken (comparison stores experienced increased rates of crime and injury of between 16% and 90%). Furthermore, a crime deterrence programme of measures in 7-11 stores that included consideration of escape routes helped reduce robberies and made employees feel safer (Lins and Erickson, 1998). Indeed, Amandus et al (1995) reported that concealed access and escape routes were associated with increased robbery rates.

- Try and ensure **premises are located** in an area where the surrounding land use is commercial, especially in the evening, so that there is an increased level of activity and natural surveillance.

- Ensure **environment aesthetics** are visually engaging and pleasantly attractive. Well maintained, tidy and well-lit environments engender respect and are often less vulnerable to crime. Fortress like shops detract from a sense of community and premises that have extreme defensive security measures such as shutters, grilles, bars etc can fuel the fear of crime (Skogan, 1990, cited in Shapland, 1995).
As have control over infrastructure and the general environment around premises so they could take steps such as improvements to street lighting, attention to urban design and street furniture and operation of community CCTV schemes in order to deter criminals that are often the perpetrators of violence and abuse.

**Case Studies:**
ODPM (2004) provided examples of the effectiveness of maintaining/cleaning premises.

- Newcastle city centre implemented stone cleaning, windows and doors reinstated to their original form, unsightly shop front advertising removed, buildings repaired and continuing cleaning and maintenance, and saw overall crime fall by 25% over 3 years (48% reduction in robbery).
- Gravesend had daily street cleaning and saw shop theft fall by 19%.
- Stroud maintained cleanliness and saw theft fall by a quarter and burglary halve.

It was suggested that maintenance and cleanliness works by creating a less welcoming environment for crime. However, as with other evaluations, it is difficult to definitively say whether reductions in crime were a direct result of these particular measures.

**Licensed Premises**

The following references, amongst others, discussed environmental measures in licensed premises: BBPA (2003); Berkley (1997); Graham and Homel (1997); Hayter (1994); Homel et al (2004); Homel et al (1992); HSE (2002); ICAP (2002); Leather and Lawrence (1995); Luke et al (2002); Monaghan (2002); Poyner and Warne (1988); The Portman Group (1998) and Westminster Licensing Policy (2005). Measures discussed in these references include:

- There should be **sufficient bars** and **good bar access** to avoid extensive crowding and queuing.

- Large open rooms can lead to jostling, spilling of drinks and noise that can all trigger aggression and permit contagion of aggressive behaviour so smaller areas with unimpeded flow that leads to a less aggressive atmosphere could be used. Indeed, layouts promoting small group formations are preferred to layouts encouraging solitary drinkers or large groups. However, traditional two or three bar designs create problems for staff as they are less able to spot trouble developing and take early preventative action. **Optimal designs of bar areas** may include open plan divided in such a way that customers are visually separated but staff can monitor everyone, using devices such as solid partitions not obstructing staff view, trellis or mesh and differentiated light effects. Where blind spots are inevitable, carefully positioned mirrors can be useful or CCTV.

- **Flow patterns** should be maximised. Customers must be able to approach the bar and return to their seats with minimum physical contact with others and flows to amusement/vending machines and toilets should also be unobstructed. This reduces the potential for jostling and spilling drinks (sources of conflict).

- Keep **entrances to a minimum** (one is ideal) and have a separate staff entrance. Where door managers are used at entrances ensure that there is enough space available for them to avoid congestion in the doorway.
- **Bar counters** should be high and wide and the floor height on staff side should be raised (12 inches above the public area) to give serving staff more protection, to dissuade people from reaching across and to allow staff to more easily spot potential trouble. Also, keep the counter top as clear as possible.

- Bars should be fitted with a roller shutter that can be pulled down and locked quickly in cases of trouble and to prevent access outside serving times.

- In terms of suspending glasses above the bar, design is very important as poor design can enable customers to reach for glasses as weapons.

- Replace furniture with fixed and heavy items and secure outdoor furniture/provide secure storage for outdoor items. Avoid high barstools where customers leave possessions underneath and avoid furniture that can be used to hide objects in or under. Decide if storage for customers is required, e.g. hooks or shelves under bar front or tables.

- Consider maintenance of décor to help reduce aggressive behaviour. Unclean and shabby décor, inexpensive physical surroundings or concrete walls and bare floors, as well as security patrolling with handcuffs, may convey the message that any behaviour is acceptable and violence can often be experienced.

- Consider background music to help reduce aggressive behaviour. If the music is loud and the tempo is increased, energy levels are high and people can “go crazy” whereas if the tempo is slowed people tend to relax. The DJ must be involved in reading the crowd and controlling the energy levels and hopefully aggression levels. Good quality music is also important to avoid aggression.

- Ensure environments are not irritating (e.g. not smoky or noisy, not too warm or cold and not poorly ventilated) to avoid frustrating and provoking intoxicated people. **Ventilation / thermal / noise control** is an important measure and management need to monitor such systems and ensure they are working properly.

- Ensure that licensed premises and bars are attractive, nicely furnished, well maintained, clean and comfortable and roomy. **Comfortable environments** tend to promote enjoyment rather than irritation or raised expectations of violence, and they can give a message to the patron that the managers are responsible and do not anticipate physical violence and associated damage to furnishings and property. If there is discomfort, patrons may alleviate this by rapid drinking which may cause aggression.

Some research examined evidence for these environmental measures. Graham et al (1980, cited in Graham and Homel, 1997) found aggression significantly correlated with poorly maintained, unclean and unattractive bar environments. Also, aggression in bars was found to be associated with poor ventilation, heat, smoky air, high noise level and inconvenient bar access and inadequate seating (Graham et al, 1980, Geen, 1990, cited in Graham and Homel, 1997). MCM Research (1993, cited in Graham and Homel, 1997) found that aggression was most likely in ‘moderately uncomfortable’ bars rather than the most uncomfortable bars. However, it may be that there is not an effect of the environment per se, but just that certain bars attract more or less aggressive patrons.

- Ensure there is a **friendly, fair, positive atmosphere**.

- Bar observational studies have found that positive atmospheres (e.g. that is friendly rather than tense and hostile, that includes quiet laughter and small talk rather than
hostile talk, and where patron boredom is low) are associated with a lower risk of aggression (Graham and Homel, 1997).

- Ensure staff have easy **access to a phone** with dedicated emergency line.
- Provide **secure access** to and from private accommodation areas. Behind the bar there should be sufficient space for staff and access to the cellar, kitchen, staff toilets and living quarters – these areas should act as a ‘safe haven’.
- Ensure there are **safety features** such as secure handrails on steep stairs.
- Absence of **seating** and centrality of the dance floor are contexts for ‘effervescent sociality’ (potential violence). Adequate seating and more chairs with armrests was a key predictor for reduced aggression.
- A condition that can be imposed on licensed premises is the display of **warning signs** of prevention measures and restrictions on drinking areas.
- Provide “**chill out**” **facilities** (open spaces with a reasonable amount of available oxygen).
- Ensure there is an **analysis** of where the **crime hotspots** are, possibly based on the operation of an incident log.
- **Pool tables** should be appropriately sited in a position away from customer flows. Care must be taken to ensure that licensees and staff can monitor the behaviour of players and a notice board displaying rules should be provided. Quality fittings that are not easily damaged/vandalised etc should be used. The pub atmosphere derives in part from the **formal and informal ‘house rules’** stipulating appropriate behaviour, e.g. regarding turn taking and rules of play for pool or darts. Where such rules are clear, consistent and well established, the likelihood of peaceful dispute management is increased, especially as the possibility for misunderstanding is limited (Leather and Lawrence, 1995). Graham and Homel (1997, cited in Hauritz et al, 1998) also suggested that clear rules and limits in bars could be used to reduce rates of aggression.
- Have **operational procedures** to include regular staff checks of areas not visible from the bar, cash control etc.

BBPA (2003); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); and Westminster Licensing Policy Appendix 7 (2005) noted the consideration of **toilets** within licensed premises. For example:

- Toilet entrances should be clearly visible from the bar and away from main entrances to the pub or other at risk areas such as the kitchen entrance.
- Ensure toilets can be monitored easily.
- Shared toilet entrances with separate doors to each facility behind the first entrance are the most difficult to control – consider CCTV for entrances and lobby areas.
- Use adequate lighting to avoid dimly lit areas.
- Avoid areas within the toilets where goods can be hidden, e.g. suspended ceilings, and fittings should be flush to avoid tampering. Cisterns, pipe work, basins etc should be enclosed, secure and tamper proof.
- Provide separate staff and customer toilet facilities.

- Ensure staff checks of facilities are routine to guarantee cleanliness and security. Indeed, Homel et al (2004) found that the cleanliness of female toilets had improved in a venue that had reduced verbal abuse, threats and assaults. It is not clear but the clean environment may be linked.

- Ensure there is an alternative source of ventilation other than windows in the toilets.

Finally, ODPM (2004) discussed the ‘Evening Economy’. They suggested that an evening economy including an environment with a range of uses such as theatres, cinemas, restaurants, shops, parking, public transport etc (not just pubs and bars) could contribute to ensuring that a potentially violent drinking culture does not make town centres unsafe places to be.

### Case Study:

The Portman Group (1998) and the University of Salford/Sheffield Hallam University (2003) reported an example of a licensed premises that successfully improved its design and helped reduce its violent reputation. A pub, formerly called the Pear Tree in Greater Manchester closed in 1993 after a history of violence and drug dealing and re-opened under a new name with a total redesign and was transformed into a model community local pub.

The key design features included:

- An open plan layout meaning that every table could be seen from every point.
- A reduced number of access points to car park and lounges.
- Better lighting and use of CCTV, with signage to alert customers, put off offenders.
- Designing out of lobby areas so that toilet access doors were direct from the pub lounge. Also, locating toilets away from the main entrance stopped the ‘easy in, easy out’ path for offenders.
- Exterior shrubs and trees restricted to a height of four feet to prevent hiding places were added. Also, a beer garden and play area also helped to push custom up.
- Other measures included a ‘Secured by Design’ award from the police, training staff to watch out for trouble and management interaction with the customers making a point of going to tables and speaking to people.
A number of references discussed the positive impact that environmental design and layout can have on work-related violence and crime. The measures can be divided into those relevant to retail and those relevant to licensed premises.

Retail measures included:
- Good visibility
- Locating cash tills nearer entrances
- Counter design
- Good customer flow management
- Elimination of escape routes
- Well maintained premises

Some evaluation exists for the latter but it is not conclusive.

Measures for licensed premises included:
- Well designed bar areas, with a partitioned open plan design being optimal
- Easy customer flow to bar
- High and wide counters
- Heavy furniture
- Good toilet design
- Well maintained and pleasant décor
- Quality music and pleasant environment

Again, some evaluation studies exist regarding the pleasantness of bar environments, but again this is not conclusive due to methodologies used.

A case study is presented illustrating how environmental redesign of a pub reduced crime.

4.4.5 Visibility

Visibility was discussed more in relation to retail premises but may have some application to licensed premises. Also, references discussing visibility tended to be more related to reducing general crime such as robbery, however, as violence may result from such crime they may have some relevance to reducing violence. A variety of references suggested that increasing visibility is associated with a lower robbery risk. Various references discussed the need for adequate visibility into and out of premises and at areas such as premises entrances or car parks. Employees should be able to see their surroundings and persons outside the store should be able to see into the store. It was noted that ensuring staff can see and be seen and that they know where colleagues are is very important. Examples of such references include AABC (2006b); AABC Website (2006c); Amandus et al (1997); Casteel et al (2004); Hayter (1994); Hendricks et al (1999); Home Office (2006); HSE (1995, 2002); Lins and Erickson (1998); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); Mayhew (2000); OSHA (1998); Press et al (2001); Shapland (1995); University of Salford / Sheffield Hallam University (2003) and USDAW (2003b).

A variety of specific methods for increasing visibility of both people in the street and customers within premises were mentioned in the above references. For example:
- Avoidance of obstructions that limit visibility, e.g. avoid too many plants, shrubbery or trees that create hiding places for offenders and reduce visibility.
- Ensuring that windows are free from displays, advertisements and stored items.
- Ensuring window displays and shop fittings allow good visibility of the shop interior from the street to discourage shoplifting and robbery by increasing the risk of being observed (i.e. signs in windows should be low or high). Also, keeping shelf display areas low to allow visibility around the premises - product display unit heights should be set at a height of 1.2m but mid floor obstructions such as promotional displays should be avoided as they obstruct visibility and create a place for an offender to hide.
- Aimed at undermining the thief’s sense of anonymity and ability to escape, use wider aisles with longer sightlines, lower shelving units and cul-de-sacs in areas used as escape routes to prevent shoplifters from finding hiding places and reduce the number of CCTV blind spots.
- Installing convex mirrors or CCTV, especially to view obscure corners.
- Clear visibility of cashier/till areas from outside, e.g. located near entrance/exit or creating elevated till areas by installing a platform behind the counter to give cashiers greater height and improve sight lines.
- Clear lighting - brightly light stores and improve interior and exterior lighting.
- Use of barriers within the store to direct the flow of customer traffic to areas of greater visibility.
- Where doors lead from non-retail areas to retail areas, mirrored glass could be used to allow staff to stand behind and view the store unmonitored.

The BBPA (2003) also listed the following measures for licensed premises; although they conform to the major principles previously described:

- Maximise visibility to the outside from inside bar areas and site gardens, patios etc as close to the main building as possible for increased visibility.
- Ensure that entrances are easily visible from the bar and are well lit.
- Consider a facility for viewing outside, especially out of hours, e.g. spy-hole.
- Door managers should be visible from the bar and be able to communicate with internal staff easily.
- Raise the floor behind the bar to raise staff above customers and maximise staff visibility.
- Maximise viewing from the bar by not closing down space with glass racks.
- Avoid areas that are not clearly visible from the bar, e.g. alcoves, rooms. If there are alcoves have them at 90-degree angles to maximise visibility.
- If screens are used, incorporate transparent areas to improve visibility.
- Raise areas that are some distance from the bar to improve visibility.
• Incorporate mirrors into the design to improve visibility of awkward areas.

• To avoid tampering, ensure cash machines are clearly visible from the bar and ensure such cash or gaming machines do not block visibility.

A few references also reported the need for more natural surveillance. The natural surveillance principle is that a property is designed so that it is overlooked and watched by others going about their normal activities, e.g. residents or numerous workers in nearby premises (Amandus et al., 1997; Mayhew, 2000; ODPM, 2004; Shapland, 1995). These references mentioned measures such as:

• Locate premises near other shops or at least in an area where many passers-by and other activities are present, e.g. site near traffic lights, petrol stations, major intersections or fast food outlets. This may deter criminals and help reduce crime because of the potential witnesses and likelihood of identification (however too much activity risks anonymity).

• Increase number of customers in retail sites at peak times, e.g. offer free coffee.

• Increase activity, e.g. get neighbours to watch premises, have occupied flats above shops, introduce security patrols.

• Premises need to be overlooked by other buildings that are busy, windows and doors should face onto the street (the more, the better) and premises should have ‘active frontages’ rather than blank walls.

Case Studies:

- Newcastle city centre has seen booming visitor numbers, hence increased activity, in recent years and crime fell by 26% between 1999/00 and 2001/02.
- Stroud had increased activity in the town centre through markets, residential areas over shops etc and theft fell by a quarter and burglary halved, which has been previously mentioned in this review.

The effectiveness of increasing visibility has not really been assessed as a single measure but a couple of studies do report some positive results in terms of reduced robbery when visibility was part of the intervention. For example, Casteel et al (2004) examined the effectiveness of a Crime Prevention through Environmental Design intervention in reducing criminal activity in California (which has been previously mentioned in this review). Nine liquor stores received individualised intervention plans including ensuring good lightning and visibility into and outside of the business while 13 stores served as a comparison group. It was concluded that the programme reduced crime and injury in liquor stores (decreased robbery 82%, decreased shoplifting 87%), increased reports of incidents to police (increased 65%) and educated small business about the risks associated with retail violence and the countermeasures that can be taken (comparison stores experienced increased rates of crime and injury of between 16% and 90%). Also, Lins and Erickson (1998) reported the development of a crime deterrence programme of measures in 7-11 stores, including visibility, and found that the programme helped reduce robberies and made employees feel safer.
Visibility: summary

- The general principle of maintaining good visibility throughout both retail and licensed premises so that potential aggressors can be observed and customers feel safer is discussed by several references.
- Visibility is needed both within the premises, so that staff can observe the exterior of premises, and within the surrounding area: known as ‘natural surveillance’.
- There are no evaluations of ‘visibility’ as a specific measure, although it is considered among other measures by a number of references.

4.4.6 Lighting

There were a variety of references that discussed the need for good lighting inside and outside premises as a measure for managing and preventing robbery and theft which may in turn help to prevent violence. Some of this literature suggested that the mechanism whereby lighting works is by making the premises more attractive, ensuring staff and customers feel more secure and by increasing surveillance and detection; such mechanisms may deter criminals from committing crime and violence in the first place. Examples of literature citing adequate lighting include BBPA (2003); Beswick et al (2003); Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2005); GMB (no date); Home Office (2006); HSE (1995, 1997, 2002); ICAP (2002); OSHA (1998); Peek-Asa and Howard (1999); Press et al (2001); Shapland (1995).

References more specific to licensed premises included:

- Design features such as dimmed overhead lighting, flashing disco lights and strobes and smoke machines are contexts for ‘effervescent sociality’ (potential violence) so this risk needs to be managed (Monaghan, 2002).
- Consider what image different types of lighting will convey to customers. For example, coloured light can create moods: red is exciting, yellow is happy and blue is relaxing (Berkley, 1997).
- Adequate lighting improves visibility but ensure there is a balance between practicality and ambience and link lighting to music systems or burglar alarms (BBPA, 2003).
- Ensure lighting controls are labelled and ensure that light controls can operate the licensed area separately from the accommodation area and vice versa (BBPA, 2003).
- Extremes of lighting should be avoided: dazzling lights can create irritation while dingy lighting makes it difficult to monitor behaviour. Directional lighting, which creates pools of light interspersed with less brightly lit areas can help achieve the effect of divisions in layout. The licensee should be able to control light levels to cater for varying needs, e.g. bright to indicate closing time or dim to show last orders (The Portman Group, 1998).
A variety of references also specified the need for good lighting at building entrances/exits, in car parks and on outdoor routes, especially at night, in order to increase employee confidence and to reduce the threat of attack (e.g. Hayter, 1994; OSHA, 1998; Safety and Health Practitioner, 2003a; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003b). Indeed, Larkin (2002) reported that using bright exterior lighting could reduce the risk of workplace homicides (50%). However, Hayter (1994) noted that such outdoor lighting should not create shadows that in turn creates danger areas and hiding places and staff need to be encouraged to park in safe areas under lights. Shury et al (2005) found that 55% of retailers reported having security lighting but they also remarked that while security lighting was common amongst retailers they thought that it was not a substitute for vigilance by staff. Indeed, Press et al (2001) noted that exterior security lighting activated by someone approaching (passive sensors) may be useful but might actually help a robber if the area is not overlooked.

ODPM (2004) referred to the need for well designed public lighting (street lighting standards BS5489) to create well-lit spaces, to increase surveillance at night and to reduce fear of crime. There should also be higher lighting levels for vulnerable areas.

Press et al (2001) was able to report some further brief evaluative information. They noted that many stores have security measures but that they felt that they were not being used to their full potential, e.g. security lights were not used because they were smashed continually. In a survey of Sheffield independent small retailers, it was found that security lighting was found to be the least effective because it was always vandalised.

Finally, a couple of references discussed more exact details about what sort of lighting is required. Questions in the Betting Shop Security Audit from the London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006) implied that lighting should be ‘white’ to cover external doors and there should be constant internal background lighting. In addition, Lins and Erickson (1998) noted that robbers are deterred by brightly lit stores, parking areas and petrol islands. Based on a crime deterrence programme of measures in 7-11 stores that included lighting, various specific lighting requirements were discussed. For example:

- Exterior lighting included signs lit by T12 (1 ¼ inch diameter) 5000 kelvin fluorescent lamps that provide super bright white light.
- Petrol islands and parking had 250-400 watt super metal halide lamps that should be fixed to provide an even pattern of light.
- Metal halide lamps (rather than sodium vapour lights) provided better colour rendering index and visual acuity.
- 200 to 400 watt lamps were used in an attempt to eliminate dark shadowy areas.
- Store interiors were lit with T8 (one inch diameter) electronic ballast fluorescent lights, installed to provide an equal spread of light. These are used because they provide excellent colour rendering index and enable interior cameras to record good images.

Such lighting must have been effective to some extent because it was found that the programme helped reduce robberies by 70% and made employees feel safer.
**Lighting: summary**

*The general principle regarding lighting levels was to have sufficient lighting to:*

- Ensure good visibility
- Staff feel safe
- Increase the attractiveness of premises
- Deter criminals

*It is acknowledged that certain types of lighting can create ambience and mood in licensed premises but this should not compromise safety.*

*Good public street lighting is also important.*

*Few evaluations exist specific to lighting as a violence control measure.*

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### 4.4.7 Crowding

The majority of information regarding crowds that was found in the literature was focused on licensed premises. However, White (2003) conducted a general review of crowding and factors to consider which, while not referring to a link with violence per se, may still be useful to consider. For example:

- There is a need to take into account factors relating to the venue and time of day/week/year in the risk assessment as this will impact on the management that is required. For example, crowding in shops may increase at weekends or Christmas and crowding in pubs/nightclubs may increase at weekends or when football matches/music performers are on.
- However, people may be more tolerant of crowds at the above times and may not get so annoyed by it.
- An ‘ergonomic floor plan’ may be useful. This means that the floor space could be designed to ensure that people are able to move around the space easily and without obstruction.
- Individual goals, objectives and expectations are important in how people behave. As the number of people in an individual’s environment increases, conflicting goals might increase as resources become scarce and activities of one person interfere with another (e.g. getting to the bar or shop counter). If the individual feels lack of control because of the crowd and blocking of goals, they may experience stress, which may affect how they behave. Also, doing something that is contrary to people’s expectations (e.g. checking for proof of age) may cause ill feeling and may potentially lead to violence.
- Emotions of individual crowd members may affect crowd behaviour (e.g. whether people are calm, excited, frustrated or aggressive); pushing may occur when action becomes exciting which may lead to violence. Also, emotion can lead to behavioural contagion and affect the behaviour of the whole crowd.
- Personal space preferences might mediate reactions to crowding (and if the preferred distance is not kept, this may lead to violence).
- In analyses of St Paul’s riots, it was found that police treating the crowd as a homogenous mass can be important in the escalation of collective conflict behaviour. Crowds often show clear in and out-group behaviour and violence can become a means of preventing illegitimate action by the out-group, e.g. police/door supervisors.
The perceptions of one group could affect the behaviour of the other (e.g. door supervisors believing customers to be violent or troublemakers).

Loss of individual personality in crowds may cause a weakening of controls and inhibitions and lead to aversive behaviour.

Perceived accountability by crowd members is related to heightened self awareness so ensuring members are accountable for their actions may improve crowd behaviour (and any violent behaviour that may come from it).

Size of crowd may affect behaviour in that larger groups may be braver.

There should be competent and trained employees (e.g. door supervisors) in good numbers and locations (e.g. entrances/exits, passageways etc). Training can prevent complacency of staff and clarify roles and responsibilities for security. Employees should be alert to incidents and anticipate trouble.

Good, clear and concise communication is important between different people, e.g. police, door supervisors, staff, etc.

Information should be clear, unambiguous and visual to ensure information is understood and people are informed of expected actions (e.g. knowing the rules of the venue regarding drinks promotions or queuing to avoid trouble).

Good environmental design is required. For example, if designing a venue from scratch planning design, number and locations of entrances, exits, stairways, toilets etc is crucial to allow smooth crowd movements (e.g. located away from other activities to avoid crowd build up and cross/reverse flows, wide enough to ensure crowd flow is not impeded etc).

Effective stewarding by door supervisors can encourage orderly queuing and care should be taken to ensure queues do not block access or pedestrian flow.

Seating should be provided as standing pushes more people into the same space, which may lead to pushing, personal space violations, and violence.

Use of video screens and good sound quality (e.g. when performing music in pubs) is required to avoid people pushing to see/hear better. Also, providing entertainment throughout may help to avoid disturbances.

Licensed Premises

Other information that was found on crowds was specific to licensed premises.

Westminster Licensing Policy (2005) noted that the design and layout of premises, as well as arrival and departing areas, should be assessed for the likeliness of local overcrowding in parts of the premises. It also reported that a condition can be imposed on licensed premises requiring a certain ratio of tables and chairs to prevent crowding and crowding related violence. Indeed, BBPA (2003) noted that there should be a clear policy regarding seating and/or standing of customers to ensure adequate visibility and prevent crowding. Various other brief references simply referred to the need to reduce crowding in licensed premises or to employ crowd controllers and ensure timely and appropriate action to control crowd behaviour in order to reduce alcohol-related crime and violence (e.g. City of Holdfast Bay, US, Liquor Licensing
Some other literature gave a few more details, some of which backed up the general principles discussed in the list above. For example, Cusens and Shepherd (2005) suggested that reducing crowding in licensed premises by means of layout design could minimise contact between patrons and may therefore be effective at reducing violence (although this was just speculation).

In addition, Graham and Homel (1997) reported that aggression in bars has been found to be associated with crowding. Indeed, a study of nightclubs in Australia (Macintyre and Homel, forthcoming, cited in Graham and Homel, 1997) found that high aggression nightclubs had higher crowding levels than low aggression clubs. Graham and Homel (1997, cited in Hauritz et al, 1998 and James, 2002) reported that to reduce rates of aggression and harm there is a need for uncrowded environments to prevent irritation, especially if a crowded environment leads to pushing to get to the bar, poor flow design, personal space infringements etc, which can all lead to violence. Graham and Homel (1997) provided more details on these factors. Firstly, it was noted that crowding and inconvenient bar access might be dependent on perceived violations of ‘personal space’, which will vary from person to person, situation to situation and culture to culture. For example, crowding and personal space violation may be more accepted on the dance floor than when trying to buy a drink at the bar. Secondly, Macintyre and Homel (forthcoming, cited in Graham and Homel, 1997) suggested that intersecting traffic flows created by inappropriate design, poor location of toilets and bars and the use of the same door as both entrance and exit is a key feature that may contribute to higher crowding and aggression. They reported that traffic flow might be more important than number limits.

Finally, Berkley (1997) noted the responsibilities that staff have within licensed premises to ensure that over-crowding and poor customer flows are not sources of frustration and aggression. For example:

- Manage customer queues so people are not agitated and start pushing.
- The number of dancers should be managed by the DJ through music selection and by the door staff by admitting fewer people where dancing is likely to be high (e.g. when a popular dance band is booked).
- Good room flow should be built into the layout or security should clear walkways and maintain customer flow.
Crowding: summary

Crowding is thought to be linked to aggression for reasons such as infringement of individual’s personal space, weakening of controls over individual behaviour within a crowd and the way that emotions can be transferred throughout a crowd. References within the literature tended to be relevant to licensed premises. Control measures include

- Well trained employees e.g., door supervisors to control the crowd
- Seating
- Layout and design considerations, to facilitate smooth crowd movements
- Traffic flow

Little evaluation was found within the literature.
4.4.8 Transport

Another aspect of the environment where the literature focused more on licensed premises was transport. The Transport and General Workers Union have concerns about violence for its members working in pubs and has called for effective and safe means of returning home for staff (Safety and Health Practitioner, 2001). Regarding customers, various references referred to the provision of public transport in and out of entertainment districts as a way of reducing the potential for provocation by intoxicated individuals and preventing exposure to violent behaviour (e.g. Cusens and Shepherd, 2005; Engineer et al, 2003; Homel et al, 2004; Marsh and Fox, 1992; The Portman Group, 1998; Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005; Richardson et al, 2003).

Some references considered specific ways that licensed premises could improve the transport situation for staff and customers. For example:

- Licensed premises should consider the provision of special transport facilities (Marsh and Fox, 1992).
- The Brisbane Safety Action Plan considered licensees paying more for late night permits to pay for transport (Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).
- Late night relaxation of restrictions on private minicab companies (Marsh and Fox, 1992).
- Manage taxi and bus queues in the early hours using street wardens (e.g. in Liverpool, street crime wardens managing transport queues led to a reduction in serious violence; Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2005).

However, Homel et al (2004) noted that the availability of transport provided by venues themselves did not improve, which highlights the importance of involving local authorities and communities in such transport interventions. Also, Marsh and Fox (1992) noted that staff operating transport should be adequately trained in conflict management.

The Portman Group (1998) reported that regular, reliable transport services are especially important because they move people out of the town centre before groups of people, who have been drinking alcohol, can begin to congregate and cause trouble.

### Case Studies:

*The Portman Group (1998) reported a few examples of successful transport schemes.*

- **Oxford** introduced a 24-hour Oxford to London service in 1993, other 24-hour bus services around Oxford in 1996 and late night bus services until 3am on rural routes (with buses not fitted with screens or CCTV to avoid chances of confrontation).

- **Wolverhampton** designed a late night bus scheme whereby clubs provided trained door staff to travel on buses (this was so successful that the bus service routes and times were expanded).

- **In Leicester** a scheme was introduced that involved free provision of soft drinks to designated car drivers, an assisted advance booking service for taxis, female taxi drivers available on request, driver rescue package and a coach service at designated points for an all-in price including club admission and bus fare (each part of this initiative has been so successful that they have continued without further support).
Transport: summary

- Some literature calls for the provision of transport from late night venues for both staff and customers.
- Several case studies are provided which appear to demonstrate that provision of transport, in particular bus services and schemes operated in partnership with local authorities etc can be successful, although what measures were used to assess success is not clear.

4.4.9 Drunkenness and Drug Use

Dealing with drunken patrons and drug use is another issue obviously more specific to licensed premises. However, there is relatively little information on the violence prevention measures that can be used in these areas.

Nevertheless, Westminster LA have certain strategies such as an Alcohol Abuse Strategy and a revised Crime and Disorder Reduction Strategy that now includes violence and alcohol related crime, in order to address violence as a result of alcohol use and drunkenness. Westminster LA may therefore be a useful source of information on methods that could be used for controlling drunkenness (Westminster Licensing Policy, 2005).

In addition, some other references have suggested some measures for how to deal with drunken patrons. For example:

- Hayter (1994) suggested patron control using coloured wristbands and turning patrons away if they have not got one.
- Poyner and Warne (1988) suggested careful management of drinking up time using a gentle, calm approach, turning down lighting and reducing music volume.
- Richardson et al (2003), Engineer et al (2003), Richardson and Budd (2003) suggested cheap soft drinks, extended hours, quieter places that young adults can go after hours to wind down or a drinking card system restricting people to a certain number of drinks per club.
- Graham and Homel (1997) noted that a simple measure is special vigilance on the part of bar staff to spot potentially problematic situations and prevent escalation.
- Graham and Homel (1997) cited an old study (Ratcliffe and Nutter, 1979) that found that the majority of bar patrons endorsed stricter enforcement of refusal of service to intoxicated patrons. General public support for this was also apparent. However, bar owners have little incentive to adopt more responsible serving practices, as there is a general perception that adopting such practices might result in decreased profits.

Such measures are important especially as Homel et al (2004) reported that a key predictor for reduced aggression was fewer intoxicated patrons requiring management intervention. During the study they observed that the number of times staff used methods for dealing with intoxicated people had improved, with intervention by staff rising from 30.4% to 53.3%. Intervention
techniques for dealing with intoxicated patrons and drunkenness that showed statistically significant changes in use included delaying or denying service, offering alternatives and calling management.

With regards to dealing with drug use there is even less information. Nevertheless, Westminster Licensing Policy (2005) suggested that clear policies that prevent illegal drugs being brought into a premises could be a condition imposed on licensed premises. Indeed, Appendix 7 and Appendix 9 of this licensing policy specified that the premises should have a drugs and weapons search policy and notices warning patrons of it, information should be displayed for staff and patrons regarding drug awareness and spiking of drinks and adequate searches to prevent the use and supply of drugs should be agreed, e.g. procedures agreed with the police for searches, surrender and seizures of drugs and weapons. On a different note, the Brisbane Safety Action Plan suggested that, as violence is often fuelled by alcohol and drugs, police assisted drug detection dogs in nightclubs should be considered (Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).

**Drunkenness and drug use: summary**

- Dealing with patrons who are drunk or using drugs is an area that is not particularly well covered within the literature. Most references relate to licensed premises. Suggestions are made for the control of drunken patrons, for example:
  - Careful and calm management of drinking up time
  - Vigilance of staff
  - Breathalysers in pubs/clubs
- The only measure that appeared to have any evaluation attached was staff behaviour in dealing with intoxicated patrons.
- There was little information for dealing with drug-using individuals.

### 4.4.10 Food/Glassware/Entertainment

Again, food, glassware and entertainment considerations are measures that are specific to licensed premises.

**Food**

A variety of references mentioned that the provision of food in licensed premises may be a positive factor in reducing the risk of aggression and violence by buffering the effects of alcohol and reducing the level of intoxication and drunkenness (e.g. Berkley, 1997; Cusens and Shepherd, 2005; Graham and Homel, 1997; Homel et al, 1992; ICAP, 2002; Marsh and Fox, 1992; Poyner and Warne, 1988). Also, ICAP (2002) suggested that food might reduce aggression because it holds individual attention. In contrast, Graham and Homel (1997) suggest that the reduced risk of aggression may be explained by the fact that the types of bars serving food may have less aggressive patrons or may take on a different atmosphere.

Regarding provision of food outside pubs/clubs, Marsh and Fox (1992) suggested that LAs could give greater consideration to fast food merchandise and service, and if fast food is provided staff at such food outlets should be trained in prevention and control of disorder. However, this suggestion would need to be considered very carefully especially as Homel et al (1992) noted that snack bars such as hotdog stands may have the adverse effect of encouraging patrons to mill around outside venues, and thus increase the risk of aggression and violence.
Glassware

There were many references in the literature to drinking vessels in licensed premises and the potential danger that glassware can pose in aggressive and violent encounters. Indeed, The Portman Group (1998) reported that among 15-25 year olds almost half of facial injuries were sustained in assaults and 8% used glasses or bottles as weapons.

Toughened glass is one option that is discussed by a number of references. A document by the University of Salford/Sheffield Hallam University (2003) reported how such toughened glass is made. A specially formulated glass is slowly heated and then quickly cooled several times, which eliminates weak points and increases its impact resistance, making it harder to break. If it was broken it breaks into tiny blunt pieces that are useless as a weapon.

A variety of references suggested that in order to reduce the risk of injury during aggressive and violent interactions glassware (glasses or bottles) in licensed premises should be made of this toughened glass or plastic that does not form sharp edges if broken. For example, Engineer et al (2003); ICAP (2002); Graham and Homel (1997); Luke et al (2002); Poyner and Warne (1988); Richardson et al (2003); Richardson and Budd (2003); The Portman Group (1998); The Portman Group website (2006); Westminster Licensing Policy (2005). Poyner and Warne (1988) also noted that materials such as plastic should at least be used in problem pubs or areas with a number of assaults or at certain times such as Christmas time or during football match days. Furthermore, Westminster Licensing Policy (2005) suggested that a condition that could be imposed on licensed premises is a requirement not to pass glass bottles to customers. However, Graham and Homel (1997) noted that there are risks from all glassware so attention should be focused generally on avoiding the use of bar artefacts as weapons and preventing glass breakage.

The use of toughened glass tends to relate to reducing the risk of physical injury during an attack, rather than reducing the aggressive behaviour 'at source'.

Evidence for the use of different material for drinking vessels such as toughened glass or plastic has been shown by a few references. For example, the Cabinet Office (2003) reported that toughened glass showed a reduced accident risk in trials.

Coomaraswamy and Shepherd (2003) reported a randomised controlled trial (a robust study methodology) that demonstrated that increasing the impact resistance of glasses is associated with a decreased injury risk so any reduction in the chances of glass breakage through substitution, lamination or altering glass properties is important. Cusens and Shepherd (2005) also reported that a randomised field trial showed that increasing glass impact resistance (glass toughening) reduces injury risk. However, Coomaraswamy and Shepherd (2003) noted that while these measures are available, there is no data on which type of glass had been used as a weapon in violent incidents so it is unclear which glass impact resistance measures are effective.

Case Studies:

- ‘Toughened beer glass by a drinking glass supplier’. The MD of the glass supplier worked with local police and a newspaper in Manchester on a campaign to promote the use of toughened glass. The promotion made major in-roads with the new toughened drinking glasses being popular with bars and in February 2001, the Manchester newspaper reported that ‘glassing attacks were down to zero’ (University of Salford/ Sheffield Hallam University, 2003).

- Torbay Borough Council introduced more stringent licensing requirements for all premises so that all drinking glasses were made of toughened glass and bottles were not issued. Following this new condition, the number of glassing attacks dropped substantially (The Portman Group, 1998).
Other measures that were suggested in the literature that related to glassware included:

- Restrictions on taking glasses and bottles onto the street and increased efforts by pubs to enforce this, especially during football matches (British Beer and Pub Association, 2004).

- Use of bottle bins/banks to allow easier disposal of bottles for customers (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2005; Richardson et al, 2003; Engineer et al, 2003; Richardson and Budd, 2003). Indeed, Young and Douglass (2003) reported the “Crystal Clear” campaign which emphasises the safe use and disposal of bottles and glasses and is now also tackling the environmental and safety impacts of leaving glass in public places such as parks or beaches.

- Elimination of glass/discarded glass from inside and outside clubs (Luke et al, 2002).

- Operational procedures to include regular glass and bottle collections (BBPA, 2003; HSE, 2002; The Portman Group, 1998).

**Entertainment**

The provision of entertainment was also suggested as a way of reducing aggression and violence. For example, Graham and Homel (1997) reported that people who engaged in social activities and entertainment tended to drink more slowly (although they tend to stay in the bar longer, ultimately drinking more). Homel et al (1992) also believed that entertained crowds (e.g. using television, videos, game and card machines, dancing and quizzes) drink more slowly, seem to be less bothered by uncomfortable surroundings, are less bored and hence may be less hostile and aggressive. ICAP (2002), Poyner and Warne (1988) and Richardson and Budd (2003) also reported that the use of entertainment might be associated with a reduced risk of aggression through promoting a more friendly and social atmosphere, encouraging people to drink less and holding individual attention.

However, evidence for this measure was mixed and some research suggested that certain entertainment might have an adverse affect on levels of aggression and violence. For example, Graham and Homel (1997, cited in Hauritz et al, 1998 and James, 2002) suggested that to reduce violence premises could avoid the presence of gambling games that attract large groups of males (implying that this form of entertainment may have an adverse effect). Furthermore, Monaghan (2002) noted that a feature such as loud music is a context for ‘effervescent sociality’, which may lead to violence. Indeed, ICAP (2002) also reported that both aggressive music and betting induces aggression. However, with regard to bands, Homel et al (1992) noted that it is not high noise levels per se that stimulated aggression but rather poor performances. They thought that good bands created a positive atmosphere and held the patrons interest, thereby preventing aggressive diversions. Finally, Graham and Homel (1997) reported that aggression was more likely in bars where there was dancing and pool playing (but this may be an artefact of the kinds of bars that have dancing and pool playing). Nevertheless, rather than avoiding this kind of entertainment altogether, it was suggested that formal and informal rules could be used to structure bar environments to reduce the frequency and severity of aggression. Rules could include limits on betting, turn taking on pool tables, establishing appropriate behaviour and keeping observers of games out of disputes.
Food / Glassware / Entertainment: summary

- *These control measures are relevant to licensed premises.*
- *The provision of food appears to reduce the risk of violence although this is not conclusive.*
- *The provision of toughened glassware appears to reduce the risk of injury during aggressive interaction. Other measures such as restrictions on taking glass into streets and the use of bottle banks are also suggested.*
- Provision of entertainment was suggested as a way of reducing aggression, however this was not conclusive, and the quality, type and general context of the entertainment needs to be carefully considered.
- *One problem with evaluation of the above measures is that it is difficult to tell whether the implementation of food etc relates to a reduction in crime or whether the general type of clientele who go to these pubs/clubs are less likely to be aggressive.*

4.5 JOB

4.5.1 Cash Handling/Cash Transit

There are a variety of measures discussed in the literature that focus on cash handling, most of which are fairly general measures that overlap both retail and licensed premises. These measures are discussed within a large range of references such as AABC website (2006c); Amandus et al (1997); Association of Convenience Stores (2004); BBPA (2003); Hayter (1994); Hendricks et al (1999); Hibberd and Shapland (1993); Home Office (2006); HSE (1995, 1997, 1999, 2002); Lins and Erickson (1998); Mayhew (2000); OSHA (1998); OSH Service New Zealand (1995); Poyner and Warne (1988); Press et al (2001); Shapland (1995); UNISON (2003); USDAW (2003a, 2003b); Walsh (2006).

Cash handling measures can be relatively cheap and such measures cited by these references included:

- Ensure there is a good cash handling policy.
- Avoid concentrating large sums of cash in one location. Money should not be allowed to build up in the tills.
- Keep level of cash to absolute, workable minimum, therefore emptying tills at frequent intervals, not in front of customers and at irregular times. Keep a minimal amount of cash in each register (approximately $50/£27 or less) especially during evening and late night hours of operation.
- Avoid unnecessary displays of cash. Keep large denominations at the back of the till. In some businesses, transactions with large notes could be prohibited.
- Cash could be kept to a minimum by use of credit cards, EFTPOS/debit.

- Regularly “milk” tills to prevent too much cash being available. At the checkout or bar, take out high value notes regularly and store in a safe or a secure cash box. Staff should be trained to deposit larger notes immediately into drop safes or time release safes (but out of view of the customer). The cost of installation of time locking cash boxes can be outweighed by the decrease in losses.

- Provide an adequate safe with letterbox drop facility and time locks. Ensure there is regular transfer of excess cash to a safe. Keep the safe locked and change the safe combination at frequent intervals. Night safes may be useful as they can be used anytime, e.g. Sunday morning.

- Ensure there are two key holders for safes with keys not on the premises. After problems with keys being duplicated, newer devices have been introduced that can only be accessed by a pin number via a keypad.

- Use signage to clearly warn robbers of there being minimal cash on premises/limited cash in tills or that safes are used, e.g. ‘time delay safes’ or ‘no money left on premises’ and employees cannot open the safes.

- Ensure charity boxes are in clear view of staff and securely fastened.

- To reduce face-to-face contact when cash is exchanged use physical protection of cash areas such as protecting tills from the customer by security screens, or using cash dispensing machines.

- Never turn away from an open till draw.

- Leave the till empty and open overnight.

- If there is manual cash collection from the tills, two staff should be involved so one can act as lookout and a proper strong cash box should be used.

- As soon as customers leave and before cashing up, secure the premises and check everywhere including toilets/store room/domestic areas and other concealed areas, including car park, where criminals may be waiting.

- Site the bulk cash handling area as far as possible from entrances/exits or give cash handler clear vision of entrances/exits. Ideally the office should be separate from accommodation and away from access points and common areas. Ensure the office and storeroom are alarmed and consider passive sensors.

- Count cash away from and out of view of public areas and not in front of customers. The cash office should be located well inside the store with a suitable lock and ensure there are arrangements that allow staff to see outside without people seeing in, e.g. a small one-way window or spy-hole with the access area well lit. It is important to have doors that are not easily forced.

- When counting money in the office, carefully identify callers outside normal opening hours before letting them in.
During a robbery, co-operate but no more than requested and avoid turning away from attacker or making sudden movements. If asked to fill a cash bag put in small notes/coinage first and stuff it in so less goes in.

There are also a variety of measures that focus on cash in transit issues, again most of which overlap both retail and licensed premises. For example,

Cash Transport by Organisation (the following are not only apply to Small businesses)

- Vary banking routines so movements cannot be predicted. Vary the time of day that staff go to the bank and vary the route to the bank.
- Bank money regularly to keep cash to a minimum.
- Don’t carry cash in bags that are obviously bank bags. Use secure security bags or unmarked bags/container to carry cash and do not draw attention to it.
- Divide risk by using cash carrying waistcoat and security bag.
- Record serial numbers of bank notes.
- When leaving the premises or bank, check the area outside and any transport such as the car before leaving.
- Avoid unfrequented streets and alleyways; use a busy route.
- Walk in the centre of the pavement facing oncoming traffic.
- Establish vulnerable spots en route and maintain extra vigilance in those areas.
- Never bank alone. Make the journey when other people will be around. Take an escort with the person with cash as a witness should anything happen. Also, only choose physically fit people to do the banking.
- Rotate the task so it is not always the same person.
- When transporting large sums of money involvement of staff should be minimised and staff should be trained and made aware of precautions to take.
- Travel by vehicle rather than on foot or public transport. Take care with taxis as radio communication is open – always use a reputable firm. Drive passenger vehicles that have no distinguishing features (i.e. are covert), do not use the same car each time and ensure any vehicle used is maintained.
- Never bank in a work uniform. Reduce risk by dressing inconspicuously and blending in with the public.
- Forewarn banks of expected time of arrival and inform another member of staff the expected time of return.
- If attacked, surrender cash.
- Consider using a professional cash collection service.

Cash Transport by Security Firm
- Collection times should be varied.
- There should be a system to confirm the identity of the security staff. An ID card should be presented and checked.
- Tell staff that guards should be in the uniform of the security company.
- If staff are suspicious of the guard they should not directly confront the guard and the police and security company should be alerted as soon as possible.

**Retail Premises**

A security audit specific to betting shops from the London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006) implied cash measures such as installing a safe in a solid structure, covered by the alarmed area and security measures on gaming machines such as cash being emptied regularly would help to reduce the risk of crime and violence.

Based on several studies, 7-11 stores in the Southland Corporation of Dallas developed a crime deterrence programme of measures. They implemented several strategies and have reduced robberies by 70% and reduced the average monetary loss of each robbery to $37, as well as making employees feel safer (Lins and Erickson, 1998). One element of the crime deterrence programme was cash control that involved limiting money in tills (e.g. no more than $50 in till) and having signs to alert robbers.

**Case Study:**

Another element in the 7-11 stores crime deterrence programme of measures was a ‘cash control unit’ involving a drop safe and money dispenser to limit the amount of money a robber can steal. These units are like a safe in that they secure money but they don’t have a key lock and can dispense money. The locked drop chute enables large deposits of cash to be made which cannot be accessed by anyone except a manager and can only be accessed by an access card and pin number. The unit waits 10 minutes before releasing the lock and most robbers are anxious to get out and will not wait this long for the unit to open. The cash dispenser is stocked by the store manager and is accessed by the clerk entering a pin on the keyboard and requesting a preset amount of money in the requested currency denomination. The unit does not release any more money for a set period of time (normally 2 minutes). In newer versions the manager is responsible for setting the time delay. Such units may be useful in other retail premises (Lins and Erickson, 1998).

Shapland (1995) studied measures used by shopkeepers and found the following fairly positive results relating to cash handling measures:

- 80-84% of shopkeepers only keep a small amount of cash in the till.
- 52-63% of shopkeepers count up money out of sight of customers or close before counting up.
- 37-57% of shopkeepers vary the route to the bank.

Furthermore, Hibberd and Shapland (1993) conducted interviews with small shops in the London and Midlands area and considered that the slightly lower figures of till snatches found in London compared to the Midlands may be due to London shopkeepers being more watchful.
and careful not to leave the till open and unattended as well as their tills being more inaccessible or physically guarded. However, if tills are better guarded, till snatch crime may be displaced to robbery. Hibberd and Shapland also found that most shopkeepers took some simple precautions regarding cash:

- More than half said they close the shop or lock the door while counting cash.
- Almost all shopkeepers limited the amount of cash they kept in the till at any one time but some did this more informally (such as transferring cash to a box under the till etc). Only one shopkeeper had a safe.
- Most London shopkeepers but only a third of shopkeepers in the Midlands took obvious informal precautions when going to the bank, such as varying the routine, going by car, hiding money in inconspicuous bags or clothes and trying to be inconspicuous etc.

However, Amandus et al (1995) reanalysed cross sectional study data to determine the effect of confounding variables on the effectiveness of such cash measures and the reanalysis did not support the effectiveness of a cash limit policy (e.g. signs indicating a cash limit and a drop safe). There was also an inconsistency identified whereby one study found a decline in robberies as the amount of cash kept was reduced but the company having sold/closed high-risk stores may explain this. In addition, other local crime and environmental factors may confound results, e.g. location of store within 2 blocks of a major street, location near evening commercial activity or poor visibility from outside. While such inconsistent findings mean the effectiveness of this measure cannot be confirmed, limiting cash may be a prudent policy for deterring robbery until proven otherwise.

**Licensed Premises**

There was less information on cash handling measures that was specific to licensed premises. However, most of the general cash handling and cash in transit measures in the previous lists could apply to licensed premises. Some specific information included Poyner and Warne (1988) who noted that preventive measures should be directed at problem pubs or areas/times that experience a number of assaults, e.g. Christmas or football match days. In such premises, it was suggested that the bar should have a telephone and floor anchored safe with a cash chute for easy and secure disposal of cash. Also, the Westminster Licensing Policy (2005), Appendix 7 (Metropolitan Police Crime Prevention and Effective Management Checklist) asks whether tills are positioned so that staff face customers. BBPA (2003) noted that while it is more obvious for tills to be out of public reach, and front facing tills are easier to reach, tills facing the customers are preferable as they retain staff eye contact with customers and ensure more consistent control.
Cash handling / transit: summary

- Quite a number of references discussed measures that premises could take to reduce the risk of robbery and related violence. These included:
  - Not letting cash build up in tills
  - Use of secure storage or safes
  - Not counting cash in front of customers
  - Not leaving tills open
  - Emptying tills overnight
- Cash transport can be done by a specialised company, whereby precautions such as systems ensuring that staff can confirm the identity of guards are suggested.
- When cash is transported by the organisation, practices such as: varying banking routines and times; not carrying obvious money bags and avoiding quiet routes are suggested
- Some evaluations of cash handling practices suggest they can reduce crime such as till snatches, however, other authors note that confounding variables may have affected results and, therefore, the evidence for the positive impact of cash handling is not conclusive.
- However, it was noted that limiting cash might be prudent until proven otherwise.

4.5.2 Management

Licensed Premises

Westminster Licensing Policy (2005) stated that a condition that can be imposed on licensed premises is the maintenance of good order by management. Indeed, Graham et al (1980, cited in Westminster Licensing Policy, 2005) reported that the likelihood of aggression and violence is influenced by the skill, experience and attitude of management.

Marsh and Fox (1992) noted that aggression reduction strategies come from effective management and listed effective strategies from managers with a track record of ‘turning round’ difficult pubs. These include:

- Assertive – firm and fair
- Create a friendly, sociable atmosphere
- Ability to detect and defuse trouble early
- Calming language
  - Allow anger expression
  - Use role appropriate language
  - Avoid hostile remarks
  - Respond directly to questions
Understand aggressor’s mood

- Non Verbal Behaviour
  - Increase distance
  - Avoid sustained eye contact
  - Adopt a relaxed posture
  - Move slowly, rather than suddenly
  - Maintain calm facial expressions
  - Control signals of anxiety and stress

- Control
  - Establish and emphasise requirements, including role requirements
  - De-personalise the encounter
  - Encourage offender decision making
  - Offer face saving possibilities
  - Winding down time at end of night
  - Being tactful, rather than hasty ejection of patrons

The National Coalition Against Crime (NCAC, 2006) has also produced a booklet that gives details on non-verbal communication and calming techniques. While this organisation is more focused on retail, details could apply to any premises.

The selection of the right person for the licensee is important in reducing assault. They need to have a good knowledge of the area to identify local troublemakers and women are seen as a less likely target. However, there could be an implementation problem in that the licensing trade could take care over manager selection where the pub is a managed house but this is less likely to be effective in tenanted houses (Poyner and Warne, 1988).

Leather and Lawrence (1995) refer to the social and environmental characteristics of pubs and the fact that they can influence the perceptions of some bars being more violence prone and some licensees/management being more aggressive. For example, there were more positive perceptions of the venue and licensee and reduced estimates of incidents where there were non-physical management intervention strategies. Physical interventions to stop disputes have the expectation of violence and the atmosphere is perceived as more unfair, more tense and less friendly.

Homel et al (2004) also discussed the fact that management style may affect the perception of how aggressive a particular licensed premises is. For example, for reduced physical violence or aggression less permissiveness by management (e.g. allowing less overt sexual activity or less male swearing) was identified as a key predictor. Graham and Homel (1997) also referred to the fact that social variables reflecting the permissiveness of the environment have been shown to be associated with aggressive behaviour, including overall decorum expectations, swearing, sexual activity among patrons, drug use, and male rowdiness. Also, permissiveness of the bar
staff have been shown to be related to aggression, e.g. when they did not engage in responsible serving practices or where bar staff appeared to exercise little control over customer behaviour. However, they also noted that bar managers/owners might have little incentive to adopt measures that would increase bar safety because measures such as more responsible serving practices or keeping a bar well maintained involve expenditure and there may be a general perception that adopting such practices might result in decreased profits.

Berkley (1997) detailed the kind of action that management can take in the event of a violent or potentially violent incident.

1. “Preventative maintenance”

If the potential for violence is detected, quick action by the manager can prevent physical contact.

- The manager should introduce himself or herself to the parties in dispute and attempt to resolve the conflict. Introductions are important as parties often respond differently to a person known to them.
- The manager should warn the parties of house policies regarding fighting and let them know they are being watched, pointing out ceiling video cameras etc.
- The manager should then physically separate the parties in dispute and send them to different areas as well as posting a security guard in close proximity. The manager could also enlist friends to help control their rowdy colleagues.

However, Berkley suggests that if the manager is female, male security should do preventative maintenance.

2. “Response”

The best response team is a manager accompanied by several security guards. Response must be fast to prevent escalation and walkie-talkies could be used to speed up the response. Guards should be positioned behind the manager in a non-threatening way to convey that the conflict will be stopped without physical violence. A formally dressed manager who is known to customers has a stronger calming effect and words should be used to calm the situation. Furthermore, embarrassing a customer should be avoided as this may provoke the parties in conflict.

Management: summary

- It appears that the likelihood of violence can be influenced by the skill, experience and attitude of management. The references tended to relate to licensed premises, although information will be applicable to the retail sector.
- Management skills that appear to be effective include being firm but fair, creating a friendly atmosphere, using calming and defusing verbal and non-verbal behaviour and enlisting the support of colleagues and door supervisors where necessary.
- Other research has noted that fear of violence can impact on how violent incidents are experienced and, therefore, should be explained and acknowledged.
4.5.3 Staffing

A variety of references refer to the general measure of increasing staffing or having adequate staffing rotas as a way to avoid or manage the risk of violence or threat of attack at work and increase employee confidence (e.g. GMB, no date; HSE, 1995, 1997, 2002; International Labour Office, 2003; Janicak, 1999; Press et al, 2001; Safety and Health Practitioner, 2003a; Shapland, 1995; Unison, 1997, 2003). Indeed, Larkin (2002) cited research whereby having more than one worker present can reduce the risk of workplace homicides by 60% and workers not being alone at night reduced the risk by 70%. However, Shapland (1995) noted that staff based measures such as increasing staff numbers can be expensive.

When discussing preventive action for burglary, robbery or theft, Shapland (1995) noted why increased staffing might help to prevent violence: more employees in the store means there is increased surveillance and allows staff to be more able to alert police to an incident, remember identification details, or intervene to stop a robbery. Furthermore, Unison (1997, 2003) reported that unpredictable and busy workloads can lead to diminished ability to provide good customer service so increased staffing, or at least sufficient flexibility in the provision of staff so as to adjust levels to meet needs during the day, may ensure this is avoided and in turn may avoid violent incidents that arise from angry customers.

Retail Premises

Further measures in the literature that was specific to retail premises included:

- Hibberd and Shapland (1993) noted that employing more staff may be a more expensive option and therefore not possible, especially for SMEs. They suggested that if increased staffing is not feasible, maybe there could be arrangements for getting extra help in small shops only at potentially troublesome times, e.g. evenings or during football matches.

- Press et al (2001) suggested that as the presence of staff is the key deterrent to shoplifters, shops could also have a ‘greeter’ to make eye contact with people and ensure that all customers are noticed. This removes anonymity from offenders. Some companies also use security guards as a visual deterrent but customer care is increasingly used as a security device.

Some references have attempted to assess the effectiveness of multiple staffing. Summarising the results of various studies in American cities, Hunter and Jeffery (1992, cited in Shapland, 1995) concluded that having two or more staff on duty received a great deal of support and resulted in a substantial reduction in robbery in Gainesville. However, Shapland (1995) noted that literature on increased staff numbers and surveillance shows mixed results in terms of reducing robberies.

For example, a reanalysis of cross sectional study data to determine the effect of confounding variables did not support the effectiveness of multiple clerks but another prospective study indicated that multiple clerks employed during night time hours was an effective robbery deterrent (Amandus et al, 1995). Furthermore, Hendricks et al (1999) reported that while multiple staffing lowers the risk, this was not conclusive and was not significant. It was also potentially confounded, e.g. by the fact that robbery rates are higher at night when there is more often only one clerk on duty and multiple staffing is likely to be associated with a prior history of robbery anyway.

Amandus et al (1997) also reported inconsistent results that may hinder the effectiveness of multiple staffing. For example, Hunter (1988) found that the number of employees was not
correlated with robbery rate while Calder and Bauer (1992) found an inverse association between number of employees and number of robberies and Figlio and Aurand (1991) reported a 20% decrease in robbery rates in stores with multiple employees. Finally, OSHA (1998) cited a number of studies that have found a statistically significant association between the use of multiple clerks and a reduced risk of robbery (e.g. Bellamy (1996) found that in Gainesville, Florida the only store that employed two clerks round the clock was never robbed while 95% of adjacent stores were robbed). However, no study found that multiple clerks increases or decreases the risk of injury.

Such inconsistency in all the above research means that the effectiveness of this multiple staffing cannot be confirmed and may be due to confounding variables.

**Licensed Premises**

Information regarding staffing levels that were specific to licensed premises included:

- Never leave one female staff member with male customers and ensure there is a male/female balance in staffing, especially at night (Hayter, 1994).
- It is a good idea to employ women behind the bar (Poyner and Warne, 1988).
- Additional staffing measures should be directed at problem pubs or areas with a number of assaults, e.g. Christmas or football match days (Poyner and Warne, 1988).
- Employment of more staff is needed to alleviate waiting and queuing time and to monitor the premises better (Richardson et al, 2003; Richardson and Budd, 2003).
- Is there enough staff to ensure that the cloakroom can be monitored easily and that the queue can be supervised at the cloakroom? (Westminster Licensing Policy, 2005, Appendix 7).
- Reduced violence was seen where bar staff were more friendly and there was a better gender ratio to patrons (e.g. balanced proportion of males and no presence of large male groups to avoid exacerbating feelings of rivalry and arguments and fights). Reduced violence was also seen where staff were dressed in house uniform as uniforms identified house policies and codes of practice (Homel et al, 1992; Homel et al, 2004).
- Graham et al (1980, cited in Leather and Lawrence (1995) found a significant positive correlation between bar room aggression and bar workers unfriendliness and their avoidance of interaction with the customer.
- It is important for employees in licensed premises to maintain an appropriate tone and mood for the evening and create a happy atmosphere. It is up to the managers to ensure staff are cheered up before sending them out (Berkley, 1997).

**Lone Working**

Beswick et al (2003), Mayhew (2000), HSE (1995, 2005) and Unison (1997, 2000, 2003) referred to violence being a hazard related to lone working and therefore lone working must be taken account of in the risk assessment to ensure that work can be done safely alone. Measures discussed in these references include:

- First ask the question ‘is it necessary to have one person working alone or might two be more effective’?
Avoid the need for lone working by increasing staff or changing the way the job is done, e.g. doubling up of staff at risky times.

Improving information sharing on violent customers and keeping records of past violence prone customers. Specific to delivery staff there could be routines to check delivery customers are genuine and customers could be assessed for violence potential before delivery.

Procedures for communicating with staff such as leaving details of where staff should be, when, for how long and when staff should report back, use of safety representatives for contacting staff, checking staff return home when expected, periodic checking of lone workers well-being or visual checking at regular intervals by workers in adjacent premises, procedures to follow if worker not called in etc, could all be helpful.

Use of personal alarms and mobile phones/radio systems for immediate contact, especially for off site delivery staff. However, Beswick et al (2003) noted that sometimes there might be no transmission for mobile phones.

Vigilance of staff for suspicious body language/behaviour etc. Always remain alert to customer mood.

Safe room on the premises where staff can easily retreat.

Training on what to do – important where there is limited supervision, to avoid panic in unusual situations and to ensure employees are competent to deal with new situations such as aggression or emergency procedures.

Do not leave individuals isolated for long periods, especially young and inexperienced employees.

Measures that may be relevant to lone workers doing retail deliveries could include: methods to forewarn delivery staff of difficult customers, delivery customers only visited in daylight hours if possible, consider parking location to assure there is a close and easy exit route and that it is a well lit area and ensure vehicle has fuel and is in good condition.
Staffing: summary

- Increasing staff numbers or having flexible staffing arrangements is thought to decrease the risk of crime and work-related violence due to factors such as increased store/bar surveillance and providing good customer service, although it was acknowledge that this could be expensive.

- Increasing staffing to cover particularly busy or high-risk times was suggested. The data on whether increasing staffing decreases numbers of robberies shows mixed results, and often does not focus on the impact of staffing on work-related violence.

- Gender (i.e., employing a mix of males and females) was seen as a potential way to reduce the risk of violence within pubs/clubs.

- Measures to reduce the risk of violence to lone working staff such as
  - Information sharing on potentially violent customers
  - Regularly communicating with lone working staff
  - Good training on defusing and reacting to violent situations are also relevant.
4.5.4  Dealing with customers

The majority of information in this section relates more to retail premises and was derived from retail related references. However, the advice in the ‘age related refusal’ subsection may apply to licensed premises also.

Age-related refusal

Refusing a customer service of alcohol or goods for being under age can often cause verbal abuse or violence if not done politely and quietly. Therefore, the company should have a clear policy stating to customers (e.g. via a poster) that if a customer looks under 21 years old staff must ask for proof of identity (Association of Convenience Stores, 2004). Indeed, the Association of Convenience Stores (2004, 2005) is lobbying the government for a change of culture where anyone under the age of 21 should be asked for ID when purchasing an age-restricted product and young people should expect and accept to be asked on such occasions. They note that the UK should draw on the experience of the US where people as old as 30 fully expect to be asked to prove their age when buying alcohol. Also, it is important for the government, schools and retailers to work together to promote the ‘No ID, No Sale’ message so that a culture of mutual respect rather than confrontation is engendered.

USDAW is also campaigning for a national Proof of Age scheme for youngsters and for the ‘No ID, No Sale’ policy to be compulsory (USDAW, 2005b). They suggest if the job involves selling age restricted goods, the customers age should always be asked and photo proof of age ID requested if they appear to be under 21. It is also important for employees to stay calm and know that they can still ask for age ID even if there is a long queue and they are very busy. The employer should also display ‘No ID, No Sale’ notices in the store and maybe even display notices that point out the fines that staff and youngsters can get (£50). There may also be a possibility of asking police to support retail staff and give on the spot fines if staff report attempted under-age purchases of alcohol.
Case Studies:

The Portman Group (1998) reported a couple of examples of ‘proof of age’ interventions.

“Doncaster Underage Purchasers”. After extending opening hours and obtaining a liquor license a Spar store developed problems with young people hanging around and intimidating staff. The changes made included:

Rearranging the store so that alcohol was under covert surveillance.

Supporting the Portman Group’s “Prove It” scheme and handing out application forms to those insisting they were over 18.

(The “Prove It!” scheme is a voluntary identification scheme that is reported to act as a strong deterrent to would be underage purchasers of alcohol and can also help defuse confrontational situations at point of sale. For example, an employee can refuse service on the grounds that a customer does not have a valid ID but can then offer an application form to obtain such ID, which may reduce the potential for confrontation. For example, Taunton Deane Licensed Victuallers Association (LVA) Agecard Scheme has issued over 700 tamperproof cards and has proved so successful that neighbouring LVAs are considering adopting similar schemes).

Staff protected by store policy of asking anyone who looked under 21 for ID.

Permanent ban for anyone caught stealing.

No alcohol sales for anyone seen drinking on the parade.

Record book for refusal of service due to age.

Staff retrained in legal requirements.

“Respect Initiative” in Grimsby. Using a multi-agency approach the initiative had the following aspects and has been popular with both young and older people.

Training for off-licence staff, which resulted in a morale boost, the confidence to refuse service and gangs of youth no longer gathering outside shops.

Posters publicising the ‘proof of age’ card and backing up refusal of service. They have reported reduced levels of drunkenness and nuisance.

Letters to remind off-licences of the legal responsibility not to sell to under-18s.

“Respect” posters for youth, e.g. “Respect their space – they’ll respect yours”.

Evaluation of such age-related schemes, however, seems to be fairly limited and anecdotal.
Vigilance

In their case studies on violence to lone workers, Beswick et al (2003) noted that vigilance of staff for suspicious body language/behaviour was reported as a successful measure within a retail environment. The Association of Convenience Stores (2004) also reported that staff should be vigilant and alert to suspicious or abnormal behaviour but go further by specifying such behaviour to include:

- Constantly looking around watching staff.
- Appearing nervous.
- Taking little notice of products.
- Wearing clothing inappropriate for the time of year that may hide goods.
- Carrying a large bag or carrying a coat over the arm or shoulder.
- Repeatedly refusing staff offers of help.
- Wheeling around a baby buggy when a shop baby trolley is available.
- Appearing to have concealed an item.
- Spending a long time browsing.

Similarly, AABC (2006b) and AABC (2006c) cited various actions to take to prevent theft and robbery, and the potential violence that may come with it. For example:

- Ensure staff are taught to be alert and recognise thieves, e.g. be aware of people hanging around or looking around them/surveying premises.
- Be suspicious of people watching and report suspicious behaviour.
- Watch people for repetition.
- Be aware of distracting tactics or nervousness.
- Be alert for strange questions about staff routines, cash areas etc.
- Make suspects aware that they have been noticed. If someone looks suspicious make them feel nervous by making yourself busy near the suspect, asking questions such as ‘Can I help’ or talking on the phone or to other staff and letting them see you do it. This lets them know you have noticed them.
- (Especially for drug abuser crime) Refuse entry, politely ask them to leave, or escort known offenders/drug abusers away if found in the shop – this is safer than detaining them as they may become violent.

Hibberd and Shapland (1993) reported that the tendency to be watchful towards suspicious looking people needs to be seen as a key component of the social skill of handling trouble so that the behaviour of the shopkeeper does not precipitate trouble. However, while becoming suspicious and barring individuals is one technique for handling the possibility of violence it is
important to be aware that this may backfire and the shopkeeper may get more problems because of it.

Customer Service

A variety of references referred to good customer service. The Association of Convenience Stores (2004) and HSE (1995, 2002) noted that good customer service might discourage shoplifting. The use of good customer service to reduce the risk of violence can include a variety of behaviours. For example

- Acknowledging the customer and regularly asking if they need help (Association of Convenience Stores, 2004).
- Improved communication including timely and adequate information to customers, opportunities for the customer to comment on the quality of service and measures to deal with complaints (International Labour Office, 2003).
- Greeting people entering the store in a friendly way (Home Office, 2006).

Finally, in their case studies on violence in lone workers Beswick et al (2003) reported that successful measures included emphasis on good customer service to prevent customer dissatisfaction. They also noted that such measures are cost effective as good customer service and a positive, friendly, non-confrontational attitude towards customers costs nothing.

Limiting customer numbers

There was not really much information on limiting customer numbers but a couple of references did refer to it briefly. AABC (2006b) reported that, especially for juvenile crime, retailers could limit the numbers of juveniles in the shop and/or insist on them being accompanied by an adult and/or exclude them at certain times, such as lunchtime or after school. In interviews with small shops in the London and Midlands area regarding ‘flaunted shoplifting’ (groups of children hanging around distracting shopkeepers using the implied threat of numbers to dissuade action), some small retailers tried to limit the numbers of youngsters entering the shop and/or used notices to try and limit the number of schoolchildren in the shop. However, some small retailers found this difficult or impossible to enforce (Hibberd and Shapland, 1993).

Dealing with customers: summary

- Schemes where staff automatically ask customers who appear to be under 21 years of age for proof of identity when buying age-restricted goods, accompanied by some proof of age card, are becoming increasingly popular. Anecdotal evidence suggests they can work to reduce violence triggered by age-related refusal.
- A number of references encourage staff to be vigilant and aware of suspicious characters. However, staff must also know how to behave and react if they suspect suspicious behaviour.
- Providing good customer service by, for example, greeting people in a friendly manner was thought to reduce the risk of violence.
- Limiting customer numbers, particularly groups of children, was referred to on occasion although this may not always be easy to enforce.
4.5.5 Opening Hours

Retail Premises

Measures that were specific to retail mainly concerned the issue of late night opening hours. For example, HSE (1997), Mayhew (2000), OSHA (1998) and USDAW (2005a) all suggested various risk reduction strategies to manage and avoid violence for staff working in late night premises:

- Be in a location with other 24-hour businesses around to increase surveillance.
- Install physical barriers such as bullet resistant enclosures with windows.
- Keep a minimal amount of cash in each register (approximately £27/$50 or less) especially during evening and late night hours of operation.
- Increase staffing levels at night at stores with a history of robbery or assaults and located in high crime areas. Ensure multiple clerks are visible. If staff have to work alone at high-risk times such as late night, extra precautions are needed such as an emergency assistance number.
- Staff doing evening and night working should be experienced workers.
- Increase the number of customers in retail sites at peak times or higher risk times such as evening/night time, e.g. free coffee offered to police officers, security guards or taxi drivers working in the evening.
- Ensure there is well-lit access to stores for staff opening and closing stores at night and well-lit car parks within easy access of the store where cars can be monitored. If premises back onto a wooded area, increase lighting at rear of the store and always lock rear doors.
- Restrict deliveries to daylight hours.
- Restrict customer access to only one door and maybe use door buzzers to control access to the store.
- In a chain of convenience or video stores that operate in evening and night hours, a mobile security guard could be shared.
- Removal of bushes/shrubs and other obstructions outside of premises that provide hiding places.
- Assess whether journeys to and from work at night are safe. If there are problems with public transport late at night, employers should provide transport or staff leaving late should be escorted to their transport.
- In high-risk areas, arrangements should be made to ensure that individuals are not expected to open and close stores on their own. Staff opening and closing stores should be trained so they know what to do if someone suspicious is hanging around. Key holders should be trained on what to do in a call out.
Case Studies:

USDAW (2005a) provided examples of incidents occurring late at night that led to such improved measures.
- In Glasgow, following incidents after the extension of trading to 10pm, the company laid on transport home for staff.
- In North Wales an assault in a store car park led to the car park lights being left on all night, bushes and shrubs being cleared, a system of escorting staff to cars when leaving stores at night and offering personal attack alarms to staff.
- In Leeds, abuse and threats to staff as they left the store at night were being experienced so staff arranged lifts home together and CCTV and panic buttons were fitted.

USDAW (2002b) also provided an example of improved measures during late night working.
- A member of staff raised concerns about night safety with management that resulted in getting new cameras, replacing the broken video and improving lighting in the car park. Also, a supervisor was left to lock up on her own at 10pm so the security guards hours were changed so that he could accompany her at closing time or other staff would stay while she locked up. In this example, gangs of youths have now stopped hanging around.

Hibberd and Shapland (1993) reported that SMEs sometimes use variable opening hours as a measure to avoid violence in retail premises. Some respondents in their survey said that they would sometimes close the shop at a particular time because of the possibility of crime, e.g. when a football match was on. Others would sometimes close early in the evening if it were quiet, especially during dark winter evenings, or open later in the morning so that there were more people around.

Licensed Premises

There was not a great deal of information in the literature looking at measures concerning opening hours in licensed premises. The few that there were related mainly to ‘lock out’ measures (e.g. Australian Liquor Licensing Act, 1998; Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005). The Brisbane Safety Action Plan suggested introducing a lock out condition for pubs/nightclubs trading after 3am. This involves the prevention of people entering premises and moving between premises after 3am (or whatever time the condition stipulates). When applied to Gold Coast nightclubs in Australia this condition proved successful and in 2004, the police reported a substantial reduction in crime and calls for ambulances and assault offences between 3am and 6am decreased.

The Portman Group (1998) also discussed this kind of measure in Glasgow. In 1993 Glasgow introduced a scheme designed to help police control the movement of clubbers between licensed premises. They introduced a “curfew” in clubs which prohibited clubbers from entering or re-entering licensed premises after 12 midnight (subsequently relaxed to 1am). By January 1994, there was an overall reduction in particular crimes of violence in the city centre. London has also tried to encourage clubbers to arrive earlier by charging a higher entry fee after a certain time. The new Licensing Act (2003) also impacts on closing times of licensed premises.
Opening hours: summary

- For retail premises, the literature suggested strategies to help reduce the risk to late night working staff such as
  - Well lit exteriors of premises
  - Installing physical barriers
  - Sharing security guards
  - Transporting of staff to home
- Examples of where some of the above measures have been implemented in a UK context are summarised and anecdotal evidence suggests they are effective.
- SMEs sometimes vary their opening and closing hours when they perceive a greater risk of violence e.g., on football match days.
- There was not a lot of information within the literature discussing closing hours – references did refer to curfews, restricting clubbers’ movements after certain times to reduce street violence.

4.5.6 Door Supervisors

The information regarding door supervisors discussed below is specific only to licensed premises (information regarding security guards that may be more relevant to retail premises is discussed briefly in the security section).

Registration

Under the Private Security Industry Act (2001), door supervisors working in England and Wales now must have a license to practise issued by the Security Industry Authority (SIA), and must display the license. To get a license to practise, door supervisors must attend a course, pass examinations and be cleared through a criminal records check. The SIA, police and officers of the local licensing authority have the power to enforce the licensing requirements which come from both the Private Security Industry Act and the Licensing Act 2003.

Training

The SIA has defined standards of competence which have been based on a systematic analysis of skills, needs and trends and knowledge required of door supervisors. Key skills and responsibilities include (this list is not exhaustive):

- Behavioural standards
- Customer service skills
- Knowledge of relevant law
- Conflict management
- Searching people
- Eviction
- Offensive weapons
- Drugs
- Arrest
- Incident recording and scene preservation. (BIIAB, The City and Guilds of London Institute, 2003)

A variety of other references discussed the features that such training courses should cover (e.g. Berkley, 1997; Gates, 2000; Home Office, 1995; Homel et al, 1992; The Portman Group, 1998; Westminster Licensing Policy, 2005). For example:

- Knowledge of the law and legal issues relevant to licensing and power.
- Recognition of signs of aggression or suspicious behaviour (e.g. listen to conversations, loud voices, swearing, face-to-face proximity, angry facial expressions, forceful gestures, mannerisms etc)
- Human interaction skills (they need to be able to ‘talk down’ a situation and not ‘show muscle’, which is why women are being recruited as door supervisors more and more)
- Conflict resolution, including social skills for defusing conflict and non-violent conflict resolution
- Restraint techniques
- Crowd control
- How to supervise those outside
- Diplomacy, patience and approachability
- How to deal with underage drinking
- Body language (body language features that are designed to calm aggression involves smiling and not scowling, not flapping hands, not too much eye contact, not standing too close to avoid infringing personal space and standing or sitting still to minimise nervousness)
- Health and safety risk assessment
- Emergency aid/first aid
- Drug awareness and recognition including the spiking of drinks with drugs.
- How to deal with weapons/firearms
- Fire safety
- Examination at end and refresher training
Attitude

The attitude of door supervisors was an area that was briefly mentioned in some references. Leather and Lawrence (1995) noted that many pubs use door supervisors to maintain social order and protect the public from violence. However, there is a lack of reliable evidence regarding the effect that door control has in fulfilling this aim. Many licensees believe that ‘bouncers’ encourage rather than discourage violence. Leather and Lawrence (1995) further noted that the social and environmental characteristics of pubs could influence the perceptions of some bars being more violence prone. For example, more positive perceptions of venues and licensees and reduced estimates of incidents were found where there was no door control. This suggests that the presence of door supervisors produces the expectation of violence, the atmosphere is perceived as more unfair, more tense and less friendly, and aggressors are perceived as less aggressive.

Monaghan (2002) noted that there might be a need to change the attitude of some door staff that licensed premises are outlets where masculine affirmation (through violence) can be realised. It was found that violence was used when non-intimidatory verbal strategies failed so Homel et al (1992) suggested that women should be employed on the door for their conciliatory skills. However it is important to note that all women may not hold such skills and some males may be skilled in this area.

Homel et al (2004) reported that for reduced violence more friendly interactions with door supervisors were needed as well as a trend towards a more cheerful, relaxed and pleasant demeanour.

Exclusion Practices

A necessary feature of safer bars is the capability to recognise and ban, if necessary, major troublemakers, a feature which is the responsibility of the licensed premises staff, particularly door supervisors (British Beer and Pub Association, 2004; Graham and Homel, 1997). Indeed, Homel et al (2004) noted that more rigorous ID checks should be made at the door.

Berkley (1997) discussed more details regarding customer selection and ejection.

Customer Selection

This was reported as one of the most effective means of preventing customer altercations in that door supervisors only admit well-behaved customers. This can include:

- **Dress Code**: Customer selection can begin with a dress code, given the belief that if people are more dressed up, they are less likely to engage in fights. Also, groups of individuals that are dressed to look alike are not admitted as this is likely to be a gang.

- **Customer Interviews**: Well-trained door staff can often tell the difference between a troublemaker and a well-mannered person by the way they talk and behave in line. Door staff could ‘interview’ customers just by asking simple questions like “How are you today” to gauge their response (e.g. angry, swearing, intoxicated etc) or non-response as a way of assessing signs of trouble. Also, observe the way people act with other people in the queue, as this will probably indicate how they will act inside the premises.

- **Greeting Customers**: The greeting that a customer receives at the door may set a tone for the whole evening. Therefore, the greeting should be welcoming, with a warm handshake, friendly smile and “hello” etc. This can be emphasised by owner
involvement in greeting customers. Nevertheless, door employees must be friendly and enthusiastic with good verbal and non-verbal communication skills. However, such greetings are often uncommon and intimidating door staff can be uncomfortable and provoke customers.

- **Training Customers**: Customers can be trained not to fight by using consistent enforcement of rules and negative reinforcement. For example, if patrons see that individuals involved in altercations are permanently ejected, customers will learn that this is the consequence and those who want to return will not fight. It is important to apply such rules to everyone, even regulars who may think they are exempt.

**Customer Ejection**

Even after training, removing violent customers without excessive force can be difficult. One way to eject customers is by deception. For example, saying something like “Mr Brown, I have a telephone call for you in the front office” or “Sir, could I speak with you outside for a moment? It’s too loud in here to talk”. This way the customer is removed and separated from other people without any confrontation or embarrassment. If physical force is necessary, there should be no conversation until the customer is outside and different combatants should be removed through different exits and released at different times to avoid fights continuing outside.

The Portman Group (1998) discussed the option of exclusion orders. Courts can make an exclusion order prohibiting those found guilty of violence or threatened violence on licensed premises from entering those premises, or other premises, for a specific period from three months to two years. However, exclusion orders have low usage because:

- They rely on conviction of an offence actually within the licensed premises.
- There is a lack of awareness of the utility and scope of an order or that such powers exist.
- It is difficult for licensees to identify a person unless offenders are well known or photographs are available (also police have concerns over using photographs due to misuse and data protection but a code of practice has been introduced to overcome this, e.g. controlled access, never made public, never copied, destroyed on expiry etc).
- Other solutions are thought to be preferable (e.g. right to refuse service and right to refuse entry and expel anyone who is drunk, violent, disorderly is already used, as are PubWatch scheme bans).

**Case Study**:

An example of the use of exclusion orders is found in the Bradford Inner City Licensees Association (BICLA). They will ban people involved in violence from all BICLA area pubs and each pub will have ‘lists of shame’ and photographs of excluded people. Brief evaluation of this showed that the BICLA had achieved a significant success in that since 1988 alcohol-related disorder had declined by 80%.

**Uniforms**
Leather and Lawrence (1995) noted that there are subtle differences in manner, style and dress between door supervisors and whether they are ‘meet and greet’ or ‘smash and bash’ style door supervisors. Monaghan (2002) suggested that using distinct uniforms might be a form of ‘insulation’. However, Frank and Gilovich (1988, cited in Leather and Lawrence, 1995) found that athletes dressed in black uniforms were viewed by themselves and others as more aggressive. This may apply to door supervisors as they often wear a predominantly black uniform.

**Location of door supervisors**

Monaghan (2002) noted that dispersing door staff inside licensed premises in strategic and visible surveillance points (e.g. top of stairs, close to bars, on balconies overlooking bars and dance floors, in or near bathrooms) may help prevent violence starting if customers know they are being watched. Handheld radios could also be provided to ensure rapid communication between door staff if needed. Indeed, Homel et al (2004) reported that for reduced violence there should be more problem focused security arrangements whereby there is more stationary patrolling and door supervisors are directed to areas of friction rather than “aimless roaming” within venues. Also, Berkley (1997) noted that the chance of pre-empting aggression is increased if the floor is saturated with alert security staff and other staff.

**Search Techniques**

There was very little information in the general literature on specific search techniques that may be used by door supervisors and the most effective ways of using such techniques. However, further detail on effective search techniques is provided as part of the SIA door supervisors licensing training for door supervisors. Key points include getting permission to search, being polite, professional and positive, protection of door supervisors against sharp objects potentially found during searching, and knowing what to do if drugs or offensive weapons are found (e.g., BIIAB and City and Guilds London, 2003)

A couple of other references briefly mentioned the use or not of metal detectors.

Berkley (1997) reported that in areas of Los Angeles every male customer receives a hand-to-body “pat down” at the door because they are more reliable than metal detectors and they can also detect drugs. Females have handbag searches. This procedure is accepted in Los Angeles as it is now so common, but such acceptance would be vital to such a measure working. However, this refers to America so acceptance of this may be different in the UK.

Within the UK, the Spotlight Initiative in Strathclyde included “Operation Babes” to address the concerns of extensive use of knives, bottles and glasses as weapons outside pubs and clubs, implying that stewards were not carrying out search procedures at the door. Several young officers went undercover to test the stewarding and discovered that procedures were almost universally lax. Therefore, metal detectors are now being used to detect people carrying weapons onto the premises. The initiative has been welcomed by premises and has proved very successful (The Portman Group, 1998).
Door supervisors: summary

- **Door supervisors working in England and Wales must now have a license to practice**
- **Key skills and responsibilities of door supervisors include:**
  - Knowledge of the law
  - Customer service skills
  - Conflict management skills
  - Searching
  - Dealing with offensive weapons
- **The attitude of some door supervisors, particularly in the past, could actually increase the risk of violence, and there was some suggestion that the presence of door supervisors can produce the expectation of violence.**
- **Details are provided by some references on how door supervisors can control and select appropriate clientele and safely eject troublesome clientele**
- **There is some discussion within the literature about the influence of uniforms and location of security staff**
- **There is little detailed information on search techniques**

### 4.5.7 Promotions

The information regarding events and promotions discussed below concerns alcohol-related promotions and hence is only relevant to licensed premises. Westminster Licensing Policy Appendix 7 and Appendix 9 (2005) noted that the use of incident logs might be useful for showing whether promotions such as happy hours are a cause of crime and disorder. However, Graham and Homel (1997) report information that suggests the increased consumption of alcohol that may occur during promotions is a cause of crime and disorder; they reported that the likelihood and severity of aggression increases with higher blood alcohol levels. With this in mind, a variety of literature suggests licensed premises should have more responsible alcohol promotions; increased rather than cheaper prices; restricted alcohol availability and responsible serving practices so that excessive alcohol consumption and intoxication are not encouraged. For example, BBPA (2005); Cabinet Office (2003); City of Holdfast Bay, US, Liquor Licensing Accord (no date); Cusens and Shepherd (2005); Graham and Homel (1997, cited in Hauritz et al, 1998 and James, 2002); Homel et al (2004); The Portman Group (1998) and Westminster Licensing Policy (2005).

**Serving Practices**

Homel et al (1992) suggested that responsible serving practices, such as server intervention, on their own might not greatly influence levels of violence. They noted that there does not appear to be any scientifically persuasive evidence that programmes implemented to date (back in 1992) have achieved this goal. More recently, the Cabinet Office (2003) and Cusens and
Shepherd (2005) suggest that the restricted supply and controlled pricing of alcohol alone may not change behaviour (e.g. less alcohol misuse or violence) and such promotion-related measures must be enforced with targeted policing. However, Berkley (1997) noted that, measures used to prevent intoxication, such as consistent enforcement of drink limits and maintaining the consistency of drink measures poured by bar staff, are very difficult, especially in large nightclubs. For this reason, they give a couple of examples of systems that may help to support consistent and responsible serving practices. The “green-yellow-red” system provides a guide for service at varying levels of intoxication. “Green” customers show no intoxication and are safe to serve. “Yellow” customers show some behavioural signs of impending intoxication and service is slowed. “Red” customers are intoxicated and service is stopped. However, this appears to be a very subjective system with the possibility for different servers to rate intoxication levels differently. Another system is to count drinks and note how many people are having, but this is more relevant and possible in clubs where a server may be delivering drinks to tables. In all such systems, once a server decides to stop serving a customer, this decision must be relayed to all employees so that the customer is not served at another bar in the same club.

Some references advocate the stronger option of banning cheap drinks promotions that cause mass intoxication (e.g. Homel et al, 1992; Luke et al, 2002). Indeed, the BBPA fully supports the prosecution of troublemakers and licensees encouraging irresponsible drinking and believes that ‘Happy Hour’ and other drink promotions that encourage binge drinking, alcohol misuse and fuels anti social behaviour should be outlawed (BBPA website, 2005). The Brisbane Safety Action Plan also advocated the prohibition of competitions consuming alcohol (Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).

The BBPA (2005) also reported some tips and guidelines for sensible early evening ‘Happy Hours’:

- **Timing** – to avoid drinking on empty stomachs provide food/bar snacks at these times as well.

- **Duration** – set a clear time period for the promotion; if time is vague customers may hurry and drink more quickly. Shorter happy hours and greater discounts are a stronger incentive to drink excessively, quickly and irresponsibly (The Portman Group, 1998).

- **Discounts** – greater discounts are a stronger incentive to drink. Consider soft drinks/low alcohol drinks at reduced prices to encourage purchase of soft drinks and the practice of alternating between alcoholic and soft drinks (Westminster Licensing Policy, Appendix 7 and Appendix 9, 2005).

- **Linked discounts** – some practices are not suitable for happy hours, e.g. discounting drinks according to unpredictable events such as the first goal scored in a football match as this could encourage more drinking and more rapid drinking.

The BBPA (2005) suggested avoiding certain promotions. These irresponsible promotions damage business quality and reputation and incite individuals to drink excessively and behave badly. The following promotions should be avoided:

- Promotions where the alcoholic strength/intoxication is the dominant theme (although the alcoholic nature should be on packaging with absolute clarity).

- Reward schemes that are only redeemable for short periods leading to drinking more and quicker.
- Drinking games (to avoid speed drinking of large quantities).
- Promotions involving large quantities of free drink (e.g. women drink free).
- Entry fees linked to unlimited drink (e.g. all you can drink for £x).
- Promotions with incentives to speed drink or down drinks (e.g. finish the bottle of wine by 9pm, get another free).
- Promotions linked to unpredictable events (e.g. football goals).
- Promotions encouraging/rewarding more drinking in single session.
- Promotions encouraging excessive sessions, binge drinking, pub crawls, drink driving.
- Promotions that glamorise drinking or that refer to intoxication in a favourable way (e.g. suggest that drink can lead to social success or popularity or can enhance mental/physical capabilities).
- Promotions that use alcohol to overcome something such as boredom or loneliness.
- Promotion material linked to sexual imagery that implies sexual success.
- Promotions that are not respectful to taste and decency and are degrading.
- Promotional material that is demeaning to gender/race/age/religion etc.
- Use of images/symbols/characters in promotional material that appeal to underage people. Characters used must have primary appeal to adults. Alcohol should not feature in promotions directed at under-18s.
- Promotion material that incorporates images of people who are or look underage (e.g. do not have images of under-25s unless it is clear they have not consumed alcohol).
- Promotional material with direct or indirect references to drugs.
- Promotional material with association to bravado or challenge and violence or antisocial behaviour.


**Other licensed industry stakeholders**

Some references noted that the responsibility to not encourage ‘binge drinking’ is not just on licensed premises but also on all aspects of the alcohol industry such as drinks manufacturing, labelling and advertising. For example, it is suggested that:

- Regard should be paid to good practice guides and industry codes, e.g. on packaging and labelling of drinks and drinks promotions (Westminster Licensing Policy, Appendix 7 and Appendix 9, 2005).
- Use safer materials for packaging (Cabinet Office, 2004).
The manufacturers and distributors should be made more aware of undesirable associations between products and aggressive behaviour (Marsh and Fox, 1992).

There should be campaigns and educational material on responsible consumption (BBPA website, 2005). However, Cusens and Shepherd (2005) reported that mass media campaigns can promote responsible drinking but there is little evidence that this approach is effective.

Use the sensible drinking message (Cabinet Office, 2004).

Ensure advertising does not promote excessive drinking (Cabinet Office, 2004).

Use hard-hitting advertising (there may be some scepticism of the effectiveness of this, although young people suggest advertising might be more effective if it shows the actual environment, it portrays life-like scenes and uses shock tactics) (Richardson et al, 2003; Engineer et al, 2003).

The Brisbane Safety Action Plan advocated the prohibition of advertising of free or discounted alcohol visible outside premises (Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).

The media should present accurate reports concerning disorderly events so as not to reinforce or amplify relatively minor problems of disorder and fear of crime in town and city centres (Marsh and Fox, 1992).

Finally, the BBPA (2005) noted that there is a need for promotions for new products to raise awareness and boost trade, and this can be valuable marketing as long as it is done properly. They provided a list of the top 10 tips for sensible promotions:

1. Consider government sensible drinking guidelines (men 3-4 units or less per day / women 2-3 units or less per day).
2. Ensure underage drinkers are not targeted in promotions, even unintentionally.
3. Only place advertising in media where a majority of the audience can be expected to be over legal purchase age.
4. Avoid images, symbols or cartoons that appeal to underage people.
5. Never condone or encourage excessive/irresponsible drinking or refer favourably to the effects of intoxication.
6. Respect people who choose not to drink and offer a reasonable choice of alternative products.
7. Give factual information on alcoholic strength to help the customer make an informed decision; however, strength should never be the dominant theme of a promotion.
8. To avoid drink driving, promote safe, reliable transportation alternatives within the premises.
9. Do not suggest that excessive alcohol consumption enhances attractiveness required for social acceptance or is associated with violence.
10. Do not involve drinking games or speed incentives that require excessive alcohol consumption in short time periods. Focus on encouraging having a good time in a responsible manner.

Promotions: summary

- There has been increasing evidence that promotions encouraging irresponsible or binge drinking have been linked to crime and disorder.
- Evidence suggests that using responsible serving practices alone is not always successful in controlling the amount of alcohol customers are drinking and, therefore, intoxication.
- There are a number of guidelines to encourage more responsible drinking promotions, these include
  - Considering general sensible daily drinking guidelines
  - Ensuring underage drinkers are not targeted
  - Not referring favourably to the effects of intoxication
  - Offering choices of non-alcoholic products
  - Providing food / bar snacks
  - Not encouraging drinking games and speed drinking

4.6 TRAINING

Need

A variety of references suggested there is a very important need for training to lower the risk of crime and violence. For example, Anderson (2002); Graham and Homel (1997); Hendricks et al (1999); HSE (2002); Janicak (1999); Lins and Erickson (1998); London Borough of Tower Hamlets (2006); Marsh and Fox (1992); Smith (2006) and The Portman Group website (2006). Training was shown to be important for both retail and licensed premises and all staff from shop staff and managers to bar staff, door supervisors and licensees. The first few subsections in this section of the review apply to both retail and licensed premises. Information specific to retail and licensed premises are then discussed in later subsections.

A few references also referred to the need for training to be refreshed or conducted on a periodical basis, to ensure that all staff, including new staff as well as temporary or casual staff, receive training. For example, AABC (2006b); HSE (1999); International Labour Office (2003); OSHA (1998); OSH service, NZ (1995) and Unison (1997, 2003). Indeed, Beswick et al (2003) noted that the success of training can be reduced when staff do not have the time to attend courses, and periodical training may overcome this difficulty.
Whilst training was suggested as an important control measure, Shury et al (2005) reported that training employees to cope with crime was surprisingly uncommon. Just 39% of retailers trained their staff to handle crime-related incidents, despite the high likelihood of staff coming across theft or assaults/threats. Shapland (1995) also noted that preventive training has focused more on dealing with difficult customers or how to react after a robbery and most retail staff do not receive any particular training in relation to the risk of violence.

A survey reported by The Portman Group (1998) found that regarding security and handling of violence in pubs, 60% of member companies (of the Brewers and Licensed Retailers Association) provided training to licensees, 25% provided it to management and 37% provided it to bar staff.

Boyd (2002) discussed some criticisms of violence training that are likely to apply to both retail and licensed premises.

- While many workers welcome training interventions and ‘protective measures’, they only treat the problem rather than tackle the source of work-related violence.
- If staff are more able to cope with managing customer dissatisfaction due to expertise gained from training, management may be less motivated or required to address the source of violence.
- Such conflict management training programmes can illustrate management making workers adapt to the workplace rather than removing the risk.

**Content**


- Relevant legislation, legal rights, understanding of key aspects of the law (e.g. legislation regarding selling age restricted goods).
- Extent of crime, models of violence, why and how violence occurs, overview of risks.
- Improving event appraisal and the ability to recognise and identify suspicious behaviour, warning signs or potentially violent situations (e.g. people lingering in aisles for an unusual length of time).

NCAC (2006) reported a variety of aggression warning signals (e.g. fist clenching, eye movement, arm splaying, body stance, distance close down) or triggers (e.g. embarrassment, insult, loss of face, fear) to include in training courses.

- Non-physical management, customer care, defusing aggression, non-confrontational conflict resolution and aggression management techniques, non-verbal communication and diplomacy, assertiveness training, cultural diversity, personal safety awareness.
- Physical intervention skills, control/restraint techniques, breakaway techniques.
• Some literature also referred to self-defence training but Beswick et al (2003) and Unison (1997, 2003) criticised such training. They noted that it creates risks if the trainee sees it as a physical way of dealing with offenders or if it increases feelings of invincibility and over-confidence. Also, it creates reliance on individual action and passes all responsibility for dealing with violence to the worker. Finally, this type of training is only effective if it is regularly practiced, which can be unlikely.

• Organisation policies, operational procedures, practices, responsibilities etc. For example, cash handling/banking rules, dealing with refunds/complaints/difficult customers or age related sale refusals, regular staff checks of areas not visible from the counter/bar at irregular times, regular glass and bottle collections, how to follow safe working procedures, how to use security equipment properly, emergency action procedures. Involving staff in the development of procedures and encouraging the suggestion of improvements may help staff to feel some ownership and encourage adherence to policies and procedures.

• What to do when an incident develops and how to be prepared for armed robbery. It should be emphasised that no one should risk personal safety to protect property.

• Management of incidents and post incident support and help available, including the importance of reporting incidents, the need to remember as much detail about the offender and incident as possible and how to preserve the scene.

**Interpersonal Training**

Some of the literature described further details in relation to interpersonal training.

Swanton and Webber (1990) reported some core skills and situation specific skills that may be part of interpersonal skills training. The list below is not exhaustive.

• Presentation.

• Politeness.

• Listening to customer requirements.

• How to be efficient and prompt.

• Helpfulness (e.g. a simple enquiry about whether a customer needs assistance).

• Friendliness (e.g. a simple smile).

• Mutual support and keeping an eye on colleagues.

• Non-verbal cues such as mirroring customer, open palms, nodding, smiling, keeping distance, standing side on, eye contact.

• Handling difficult customers and how to request they leave without force / police involvement.

• Handling complaints.

• Questioning techniques.

• Tolerance of pressure.
Establishing rapport.

Sufficient knowledge to advise customers effectively.

Knowing cues and handling escalating aggression.

NCAC (2006) reported a variety of different interpersonal skills for conflict management to include in training courses.

- Non-verbal communication, including consideration of personal space, positive and negative body language, hand gestures.
- Verbal communication and blocks to communication.
- Listening and questioning skills in order to resolve conflict.
- Voice calming techniques and coping with aggression using the stages of calming, reaching and controlling.

Finally, in interviews with small shops in the London and Midlands area, Hibberd and Shapland (1993) noted that self confident and assertive shopkeepers reported handling shoplifting apprehension situations more effectively while timid and aggressive shopkeepers tended to get into difficulties. This shows that there is a need to build such interpersonal and social control skills but there may be a difficulty in disseminating such a need to small shopkeepers.

**Opening/Closing Procedures**

A couple of references mentioned training specifically on opening and closing of premises. The OSH service in New Zealand (1995) noted that when opening and closing premises, staff should be trained to check for loiterers and to securely lock the premises (more detail on this can be found in the security section of this review).

The Portman Group (1998) included closing time management as one aspect of their training course for licensees. This included:

- At ‘last orders’ put all staff behind the bar so customers are served in time, turn the music down and prevent people buying large amounts of drink.
- During ‘drinking up’ quietly remind customers of the time and encourage them to leave in a friendly manner.
- At ‘time’ close the bar and switch bar lights off, make obvious hints such as putting chairs on tables etc and acknowledge customers with friendly farewells.

**Management Training**

MAYBO (2004a) noted the need to provide training appropriate to each job role. Indeed, AABC (2006c) noted that investment in managers is useful for:

- Improved confidence/professionalism/service.
- Improved incident/post incident management.
- Compliance with legislation requirements.
- Positive message to staff of managers ‘leading by example’.
- Reduced risk of crime and violence.

A variety of references considered the content of training for managers (e.g. AABC, 2006c; International Labour Office, 2003; OSHA, 1998; USDAW, 2003b).

- Following and reviewing a violence specific policy and how to explain and respond to questions about the violence policy.
- Providing information on causes, prevention, best practice, regulations.
- How to create a work environment based on mutual respect.
- Identifying changes in staff performance/behaviour that may indicate violence.
- Assessing the working environment and identify working practices to change.
- Recognising, analysing and establishing violence prevention controls.
- Recreating practical scenarios from a retail or licensed premises environment (e.g. through role play).
- Supporting recovering workers and ensuring information on them is confidential.
- Addressing post incident issues, including dealing with traumatised employees sensitively and sympathetically.

Some references referred specifically to licensees and managers of licensed premises. Beale et al (1998); Poyner and Warne (1988) and the Portman Group (1998) discussed the recommended content of training courses for licensees:

- Managing the pub atmosphere including establishing order, having consistent standards, being firm but fair, including the management of staff and their effect on customers.
- Monitoring and violence prevention techniques, such as sociability, non-confrontational early intervention, recognising customer perspectives, identifying potential disruptive customers without using rigid stereotypes.
- Calming and control techniques, such as removing audience effect, not responding to provocation, assertive, not aggressive, saving face.
- Understanding frustration and why people might misbehave and how to avoid frustration by keeping equipment working and furniture in good condition, keeping tables clean and clutter free, ensuring staff acknowledge customers and serve in order, no hostility.
- Management of pub features such as pool tables and jukeboxes. For example, pool table guidelines such as only two cues at any one time, clear turn-taking system, promote local rules, forbid betting, always monitored.
- Management of flashpoints, e.g. evening closing time, and social and verbal skills required for trouble free glass collection and drinking up time.
- Importance of continued vigilance after incident is apparently over.

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- Emergency procedures if attacked.
- Licensee own drinking habits and control of alcohol.

Under the Licensing Act 2003, there is a statutory requirement that all retail sales of alcohol must be made or authorised by a personal license holder. To become a personal license holder, individuals must obtain a relevant accredited qualification by passing an exam covering a syllabus which includes licensing law and the social responsibilities of the license holder.

Finally, an example from a US hotel chain noted that the hotel supervisors and managers are all trained in a classroom setting for three hours on issues such as signs and symptoms of violence, how security can help them, techniques to deal with stress etc. Staff are also reminded of such training by a quarterly security newsletter on safety issues (Anderson, 2002).

Security Training

A variety of references discussed the need for specific and specialist training for security personnel (e.g. GMB, no date; HSE, 2002; OSHA, 1998; Unison, 1997, 2003; USDAW, 2003b; Walsh, 2006). Indeed, training for door supervisors and other security staff is now compulsory in the UK. The introduction of the Private Security Industry Act 2001 means that many unregulated sectors now have to be licensed and employers have to ensure that security staff are trained and competent to work. Such training may include handling aggressive customers, how to confront suspected thieves, how to respond appropriately to violent incidents and procedures for reporting incidents.

Case Study:

A case study of security directors in a US hotel chain noted that the hotel security team were well trained with several hours of classroom instruction and practical scenarios. The training included the use of controlled force, verbal conflict resolution, body language of offenders and verbal techniques to coax the offender away. Furthermore, such training was shown to work when security managed to use physical restraining techniques that prevented injuries when a guest was refused service at the bar (Anderson, 2002).

The Home Office (2004) also discussed the need for training on physical security equipment. Inadequate training has meant that some businesses cannot use their security equipment effectively, undermining the effectiveness of the measure. This problem is most acute with electronic measures such as alarms and CCTV (e.g. one shop could not reset the time on the CCTV system so images could not be used as evidence). Such training in security equipment can create a ‘virtuous circle’ in that training will engender greater ownership and ensure greater sustainability by businesses.

Case Study:

One example of a premises using CCTV highlighted how staff were unaware of how to use the system, were not displaying CCTV notices and were failing to change/secure tapes. As a result, an easy to use checklist was drawn up and a crime prevention officer visited shops with CCTV to advise them. They also used links with a local enterprise ShopWatch co-ordinator and set up a training course on CCTV, which half of the local businesses attended.
Retail Premises

Robbery awareness training was felt to be particularly important to retail premises. AABC (2006c); Mayhew (2000); OSH service, NZ (1995); RoSPA Occupational Safety and Health Journal (2002) and USDAW (2003b) provided information on what to include in robbery awareness training:

- Definition and prevention policy.
- Legal requirements.
- Risk identification and regular assessment of controls in place.
- Management commitment and management/staff responsibilities.
- Warning signs of violence and appropriate responses.
- Cash control procedures and how to operate cash control equipment.
- Security provisions.
- What to do during a robbery, such as:
  - Keeping calm and trying to diffuse the situation.
  - Not ‘having a go’, getting involved or trying to apprehend the suspect (including explaining the dangers of giving chase, such as accomplices waiting outside).
  - Keeping still and making no sudden movements.
  - Avoiding confrontational eye contact.
  - Doing exactly what you are told, not resisting demands and giving robbers what they want. Mayhew (2000) noted that an offender’s aggression may be a deliberate self protective “flight or fight” response so it is important not to provoke people and not to resist them as this may be construed as ‘cornering’ them, potentially making the offender violent.
  - Listening to robbers and trying to establish a positive rapport.
  - Explaining any actions you may take to the robber.
  - Not raising the alarm unless it is safe to do so, not using an alarm that is audible in the store and if there is a silent alarm only using when it is safe.
  - Noting details of offender (such as appearance, accent, mannerisms, accomplices, and getaway).
  - Warning robbers of possible surprises such as another employee in the toilet. However, if you are out of sight, stay out of sight (so as not to increase offender nervousness).
• What to do after a robbery including reactions, actions to take in informing the police and preserving the scene, responsibilities of each member of staff, how to minimise risk to personal safety.

• Emergency action plans and post-incident support.

• Mechanisms for incident reporting (stressing that failure to report minor incidents may put others at risk of a later more severe incident).
Case Studies:

Some of the literature provided specific examples of training in retail premises.

- The British Retail Consortium (working with its retail members, Reliance Security Services Ltd, USDAW, British Council of Shopping Centres, Royal and Sun Alliance and MAYBO) produced a training programme, including a video, to address the issue of violence in the retail workplace. “Trouble in Store” proactively takes managers and staff through the learning process of managing violence and is backed up by a training book which enables trainers to view a scenario on the video and stop the tape to explore the lessons to be learned. It is believed that this will produce long-term benefits as staff will develop skills and good practice (MAYBO, 2004b).

- The Portman Group (1998) provided an example from Safeway who have progressively developed training for store management teams in how to defuse confrontational situations. Since 1995, they have run a course entitled “Managing theft and conflict in the workplace” and trained nearly 600 staff.

- Off-licenses evaluated the Portman Group’s video-based training package, “Seeing off Trouble”. Evaluation and feedback showed that off-licenses found the video and booklet instructive and informative and would welcome further training. An important aspect was a personal visit from the Community Affairs Police Officer. The video continues to be distributed by police.

- Lins and Erickson (1998) discussed the violence avoidance and robbery deterrence training offered in 7-11 stores. This involved a two-day training session held at the 7-11 store, including a video, handbook and role-playing exercises. It covered robbery deterrence, violence avoidance, loitering, physical assault, gang activity and recommended general security procedures in emergencies. Training also covered policies such as the no-resistance robbery policy and taught employees techniques such as co-operating with the robber by giving up money; never resisting, staring, talking unnecessarily or arguing; and preventing surprises by telling the robber of anyone else who is in the store. Violence avoidance techniques were also taught (e.g. when refusing an alcohol sale due to a customer being underage, remove the alcohol from the counter calmly and explain the company policy in a non-threatening voice). Other techniques included encouraging the customer to call the company toll-free customer service number if they have a complaint which helps focus anger away from the clerk, maintaining a certain distance from the irritated customer and not assuming an aggressive posture. Refresher training is also provided annually and on an as-needed basis.

- Standing and Nicolini (1997) reported on “Sound Advice” that could provide a model for small and medium sized retail enterprises. This is a video produced for the Association of Convenience Stores (members are mainly smaller independent retailers that are the most vulnerable). The video covers health and safety generally, including how to deal with aggressive behaviour. However, members are not normally prepared to purchase this kind of item so it was made freely available by getting it into the BBC’s 12-6 am learning zone and members were made aware of when to set videos to get free training. The ACS did also sell 300 copies to members. The video was supported with kits of in-store material such as posters and warnings and was supplemented by a piece in the organisation’s magazine. In total the information reached 45,000 retailers. The ACS did not do an evaluation of the initiative but informal feedback suggested that a large number of retailers recorded and used the video and continue to use it for new staff inductions.
Licensed Premises

Responsible service training was felt to be particularly important to licensed premises. A variety of references suggested the need for training in responsible service of alcohol (e.g. BBPA, 2003; City of Holdfast Bay, US, Liquor Licensing Accord, no date; Cusens and Shepherd, 2005; Graham and Homel, 1997; ICAP, 2002; Luke et al, 2002; Queensland Liquor Licensing Division, 2005).

Some of the literature also discussed the content of such Responsible Beverage Service (RBS) training or Server Intervention Programmes (e.g. BBPA, 2003; Cusens and Shepherd, 2005; Graham and Homel, 1997; ICAP, 2002; Luke et al, 2002). Suggested server training content included:

- Information on the law and alcohol content of drinks, as well as legal and social responsibilities of serving alcohol.
- Circumstances that lead to violence and how to prevent violence.
- Recognising intoxicated customers.
- How to relate positively to customers.
- How to encourage non-aggressive responses to provocation.
- How to stop serving those who have had too much to drink and limiting further alcohol intake, including skills to refuse service.
- How to intervene effectively when problems occur.

It was reported in some of these references that many of the approaches listed above report moderate success. Indeed, Cusens and Shepherd (2005) reported that in Stockholm refusal to serve intoxicated individuals increased from 5% to 47% following RBS intervention.

There were also some other training-related references specific to licensed premises. A few references suggested that education regarding alcohol and its effects might be needed in order to address the problem of drunken and aggressive customers. The Cabinet Office (2003, 2004) suggested that interventions to address alcohol-related harm should include educating staff, customers, the general public and young people about the effects of alcohol. The government emphasises sensible drinking units but it was felt that there is little emphasis on the consequences of alcohol misuse and the sensible drinking message needs to be easier to understand. However, to be effective education must work in tandem with other policies. Engineer et al (2003); Luke et al (2002); Richardson et al (2003) and the Scottish Executive (2004) all noted that there needs to be more alcohol education in schools to inform children from an early age of the unacceptability of assaults on people at work. It may be more appropriate to target school pupils in their teens or earlier regarding alcohol and programmes are being started to educate secondary school pupils about injury from drinking and fighting. However, these references also reported some scepticism of the effectiveness of such education. Nevertheless, young people suggested that education might be more effective if it shows the actual environment, if it portrays life-like scenes and if it uses shock tactics.

Finally, Warburton and Shepherd (2004) noted that it is important to consider the training of staff not directly employed in licensed premises but who interact with the potentially drunken and violent patrons (e.g. bus/taxi drivers). Indeed, the potential for improving a driver
development course in the areas of conflict management using the police and NHS input was suggested.

Case Studies:

Some of the literature provided specific examples of training in licensed premises.

The British Institute of Innkeeping (2005) has the ‘Bar Persons National Certificate’.

The certificate includes:
- Understanding of licensing laws and law on young people.
- Understanding of who can enter, be ejected, refused service.
- Alcohol measures and drug misuse law.
- How to promote social responsibility in alcohol use.
- The circumstances leading to violence, how to prevent trouble and what to do when trouble starts.
- How to act responsibly over ‘happy hour’ promotions.
- PubWatch scheme.

There are also other courses such as ‘Conflict Management for Bar Staff’ and ‘Level 2 National Certificate for Personal License Holders’ found on www.biiab.org. The Portman Group (1998) also reported other external courses such as the BII induction certificate, advanced qualifications for experienced licensees (e.g. BII National Licensees certificate covering conflict and violence), NVQs and SVQs, degrees and diplomas.

The Portman Group (1998) also reported some specific examples of training courses:

They developed a training and awards scheme “Safer Enjoyment of Alcohol in Licensed Premises (SEAL)” whereby licensees participate in three training sessions covering licensing law, prevention of disorder and health and safety. Successful completion of the course, PubWatch membership and use of the age ID Prove It scheme entitles licensees to the “SEAL of approval”.

Allied Domecq have a two-day workshop to increase knowledge and understanding of the nature and control of violence in licensed premises.

“Threshers Security Training Pack”, including risk analysis, avoiding robbery, how to defuse violent situations etc.

In Scotland the Glasgow Licensing Board introduced a requirement that all license applicants attend an approved training course “The professional licensee” and the SIPS (‘Server Intervention Programme Scotland’ including licensing law, alcohol unit knowledge and people/conflict skills) aims to promote responsible standards for staff.

Licensee Alcohol Server Training in North Warwickshire consists of two days training and a half-day exam and covers topics such as law, dealing with people, environmental health, drugs and alcohol awareness.
Evaluation

Evaluation of training is important. Zarola and Leather (2006) reported the following benefits of training evaluation:

- Ensuring training meets organisation and individual need.
- Assessing staff reactions to training.
- Determining whether learning has taken place.
- Ensuring the best and most cost effective designs are used.
- Ensuring the most appropriate delivery is used.
- Assessing whether training is used on the job (transfer).
- Determining factors that support or hinder transfer of learning.
- Ensuring training content is correct or whether it needs improving.

There were some attempts to conduct some evaluation of training within the literature.

In relation to licensed premises, Graham et al (2005) evaluated the “Safer Bars” training programme to reduce aggression in bars. The programme was revised over several years in consultation with many different stakeholders and was initially pilot tested in 8 licensed premises. The programme included the following elements:

- Understanding how aggression escalates (e.g. recognising early signs)
- Assessing the situation (e.g. ensuring adequate staff numbers, deciding who leads, communication between staff, measures such as maintaining distance)
- Keeping cool (e.g. knowing types of people and situations that trigger staff temper, teamwork to help colleagues remain calm, learning legal consequences)
- Understanding/using effective body language (e.g. non verbal techniques to de-escalate and defuse situations, appearing calm and respectful, avoiding negative body language like crossed arms, and respect personal boundaries)
- Responding to problem situations (e.g. giving clear options, allowing person to ‘save face’, focus on solving problem, depersonalising the situation by referring to house rules or policy)
- Legal issues (e.g. knowing the law, awareness of liability)

Participants rated the training very highly with the different sections of the training all rated 8 or higher on usefulness. Nearly 98% would recommend the training. Participants also showed significant improvements in knowledge and attitudes related to preventing aggression and managing problem behaviour in that there was a significant overall change on a test of their knowledge with an average score of 7 before the training and 9.3 after. The majority said the training would change the way they handle problem situations (32% a lot and 50% to some extent). However, door staff/security did less well on the post-test and were less responsive than managers so additional training, such as interpersonal skills, may be considered for this group. Being male, having more years of experience, being a manager or bartender and being
employed in a city centre bar were all predictors of higher pre-test scores meaning that there was greater improvement amongst those scoring lower on the pre-test, i.e. females, younger participants and those with less experience. Only being a manager or being employed in a city centre bar significantly predicted higher scores on the post-test knowledge and attitudes. Unfortunately, the longer term effectiveness of this training (e.g. whether staff used their skills back at work) does not appear to have been evaluated.

The positive response to the “Safer Bars” training and the significant improvement in knowledge and attitudes indicates that programmes of this type have the potential to be an effective intervention (possibly better than responsible beverage service training which are sometimes seen as unrealistic, difficult to implement and can be perceived to lead to loss of income). However, since staff turnover is high within many licensed premises, it is important to develop ways to make the training available on an ongoing basis to ensure that all staff can receive it. Refresher training and management support are also required. As mentioned above, remember that changes in knowledge after training do not necessarily result in behaviour change in the workplace so there is a need to assess the impact of such training on behaviour.

Zarola and Leather (2006) examined the impact of violence management training using individual and organisational capability as the key criterion and benchmark along with anxiety and fear of violence. However, this particular study was set in a healthcare environment so while some general information may be applicable to retail/licensed premises, caution must be exercised when generalising results.

Nevertheless, the findings included

- Training in violence management had positive but limited short-term benefits with loss of benefits within a matter of months.
- Anxiety about violence fell to a greater extent in the training group. Levels of anxiety remained relatively static from post training to follow up.
- There was no difference between the training and control group in fear of violence. Levels of fear showed no change at follow up.
- Perceived capability to deal with verbal abuse from customers increased slightly in the training group. This remained at the same level at follow up.
- Perceived capability to deal with a physical attack showed a marked increase in the training group but this fell significantly in the 3 months post training.
- There was no difference between the training and control group on the assessment of the manager coming to their assistance and there were no changes at follow up from post training.
- Assessment of organisational capability to tackle violence showed a greater rate of increase in the training group but fell significantly following training.

In the discussion of this study it was noted that training needs analysis (TNA) was very important as a prerequisite for effective training. Training is more effective if the content is closely aligned to need and if the training is therefore designed and delivered in ways that meet those needs. Zarola and Leather also noted that there would be greater impact (change) and value (contribute to sense of well-being) of training if knowledge and skill topics are emphasised within a broader, organisational context, rather than focusing on individual skills. This allows better transfer of learning and reduces anxiety. Finally, they discussed the need for
a combination of strategies: there is no single solution and training is more effective if the content clearly demonstrates that it is only part of a total proactive organisational response to violence.

Training: summary

- Many references in the literature advocate training on violence management for all levels of staff, although some employees do not seem to receive training. It was also noted that training should not be a substitute for tackling the source of violence.

- Recommended content of training courses included
  - Legislation
  - Models of violence
  - Dynamic risk assessment
  - Interpersonal skills
  - Organisational policies
  - How to use security equipment
  - Post incident support

- Management of both retail and licensed premises is thought to require specific training including
  - Creating positive and respectful working environments
  - Supporting staff
  - Management of flash points

- Since the 2003 Licensing Act, personal licence holders must have relevant training.

- Security guards, door supervisors and other staff must now be trained to receive their licence.

- Training in robbery awareness for retailers was also recommended.

- Several case studies detail the training used within retail establishments eg videos, documentation, and personal visits

- Training specific to licensed premises included responsible service of alcohol and more general education for staff and the public about the effects of alcohol consumption. Again, several examples of training for those working in licensed premises are given.

- There has been limited evaluation of the effectiveness of training on the management of work-related violence within retail and licensed premises. Some evaluation suggests immediate post-course knowledge increases, and anxiety about violence reduces, however, it is not clear whether these result in longer term changes in behaviour.
4.7 SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED ENTERPRISES

The risks and barriers specific to SMEs have already been discussed within this review. The following section describes some more SME-specific measures that have been found within the literature.

Standing and Nicolini (1997) noted some brief examples of what has worked or might work in SMEs.

- The BRC were involved in an initiative linking up the police, the council and a retail action group – 400 retailers were contacted and 40 attended a meeting. Small retailers can be reached if there is a vibrant local partnership with the police, the LA etc. Locality based initiatives are most successful.

- Videos can be useful for getting messages across and more use could be made of the public access channels.

- Some initiatives have worked where money has been available up front, e.g. offering £500 for reinforced glass if retailers find the other £500 themselves.

The Home Office (2004) reported on another major initiative conducted for smaller retailers: the ‘Small Retailers in Deprived Areas’ (SRDA) initiative. The following advice from the SRDA initiative was found:

Targeting

When identifying a target area, it is important to combine hotspot mapping, crime statistics and consultation/visits with businesses and the community in order to get a true picture and to highlight the most needed areas for intervention. A risk assessment/basic crime survey among businesses should ensure good targeting. There is also a need to target interventions to problems identified in crime statistics but also to issues that are ‘perceived’ as problems by businesses and customers.

Thinking about interventions

It is important to think about interventions and what will work best, e.g. many crime projects focus on physical security whereas changing wider environment problems such as tackling youth nuisance outside shops may also help. For example, one case study wanted to close off a path used by thieves but this would not have worked because it was a right of way and popular with locals. They wanted to install lighting and cameras but the speed of offenders running away would not have captured good quality images. Therefore, it was decided that a gate and cameras would be installed to fence off the path and slow down offenders to get good pictures.

However, it is important that businesses do not feel pressured to use high-tech equipment such as CCTV where simple solutions might prove more effective and cost-effective. Feedback from some case studies showed that simple inexpensive interventions such as tailored security advice, publicity, panic alarms and access control locks were effective and popular and such cost-effective measures will be especially important in SMEs. It is also important to think about whether the small businesses have the capacity, skills and support to carry interventions forward once initiatives are finished.
Implementation

It is important to think about the practicalities of implementing measures:

- There should be a minimum of intrusion on the business.
- Regular visits should be conducted to check the implementation.
- People involved need to be flexible and adapt to changing circumstances.
- There should be continuity of personnel for smooth implementation.
- Skills/contacts of partners and other businesses should be used.

Furthermore, it is important to ensure that interventions are maximised and used proactively (e.g. linking CCTV into the ShopWatch scheme by installing CCTV in hotspot stores and using images and radios to warn other retailers of offenders and provide descriptions).

Sustainability

A concern for long-term impact of interventions must drive the initial thinking. It was noted that physical measures are probably more sustainable but it is more difficult to ensure measures are well maintained and sustain co-operation measures.

Key issues for sustainability include:

- Revisiting the site at regular intervals to check installation and use.
- Making and revisiting plans for equipment maintenance and financial support.
- Training and support.
- Fostering business ownership.
- Ensuring partnership working and continued relationships of all partners.
- Considering how to share knowledge and experience with others.
- Developing ongoing publicity to ensure customers/residents are aware of it.

Evaluation

Very little evaluation of initiatives or prevention measures seems to be undertaken in general and this also applies to those relevant to small businesses. However, a few references considering some brief evaluation were found.

Shapland (1995) reported some brief evaluation of attempts to help SMEs by providing detailed guides and cascading awareness raising through industry associations, and cited that in Britain (at least) these attempts were unsuccessful.

1. A crime prevention intervention in the UK assisted owners/managers of 1000 SMEs to redesign their work site. The evaluation found that:
   - Face-to-face contact with crime prevention officers increased the effectiveness of the worksite redesign.
   - Specific tailor-made advice on improving security was cheap and effective.
   - SMEs were more likely to take action after victimisation.
   - Incidence of crime was reduced and no crime displacement occurred.

2. An Australian pilot study with SMEs and community organisations to increase awareness found the following:
   - Industry specific brochures and checklists were rated highly.
   - There was a mismatch between crimes feared and those actually experienced (e.g. hold ups are uncommon but feared while intimidation is frequent but less feared).
   - Face to face contact is essential for occupational violence prevention.
   - SMEs only identified two ways to prevent crime – improved surveillance and harsher penalties.
   - SMEs have little understanding of situational prevention.
   - SMEs were interested in target hardening, such as shutters, locks and alarms.
   - SMEs commented on guidance that local community safety organisations were able to provide, including promotion of cohesion among local businesses.
   - However, more research is required to see if advice on prevention was implemented.

Finally, Press et al (2001) reported that in a survey of Sheffield independent small retailers, it was found that security lighting was the least effective measure while security locks, grilles and shutters, secure product display systems and tagging systems were more effective.

**SMEs: summary**

- Initiatives targeted at SMEs include promoting partnership working, video training and the SRDA initiative.
- There is little evaluation of SME focussed interventions, although some success has been noted e.g., SMEs respond positively to face-to-face contact from advice providers and tailored advice.
4.8 POST INCIDENT SUPPORT

Mayhew (2000) reported that consequences of robberies or violent crime can include loss of self esteem and lack of confidence, insomnia, anger, anxiety, depression, guilt, disturbed relationships, increased heart rate, nightmares, difficulties performing tasks, absenteeism and fear, interaction problems and isolation, feelings of incompetence, increased use of alcohol, caffeine and medication, phobias and post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Therefore, sensitive and appropriate support is needed to reduce the suffering of the victim and to ensure that victims are not blamed. It is important to remember that victims of aggression will be affected in different ways and with differing levels of severity.

A variety of references mentioned the importance of ensuring staff know what to do immediately after an incident and that staff are supported following violent incidents. For example, AABC (2006c); Allen (2000); Beale et al (1998); European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2002); HSE (1995, 1997, 1999, 2002); International Labour Office (2003); Licata (2000); MAYBO (2004a); Mayhew (2000); OSHA (1998); OSH service, NZ (1995); Rick et al (1998); Swanton and Webber (1990); Unison (1997, 2003); USDAW (2003b).

Case Study:

Smith (2006) highlighted the importance of post-incident support when a real life example of an armed robbery on an off-licence shop suggested that post-incident support is a vital measure to overcome what are distressing experiences.

The kind of actions that should occur post-incident for staff involved in or witnessing incidents includes the following:

**Dealing with the immediate aftermath of an incident**

- Managers should identify competent and suitable staff who are expected to provide assistance/arrange for prompt assistance/deal with communications and operational issues.
- Secure premises/close premises to safeguard evidence and reduce distractions. Shut and lock doors with a member of staff guarding them.
- Preserve the scene and the evidence and do not touch anything.
- Ask staff to write down all they can remember about the incident (e.g. crime, location, injuries, events, escape route, offender description and identifying features, e.g. height, weight, eye, hair and skin colour, tattoos, clothing and shoes as criminals often forget to dispose of shoes).
- Keep the telephone line open.
- Notify police as soon as possible and help them as much as possible – co-operate with interviews, giving as much description as possible and going to the station if needed.
- Keep witnesses present or take their names and addresses.
- Ensure people do not discuss events before the police interview.
- Secure video/photo evidence.
- Agree liaison arrangements with media and the information to give to media.
- Ensure staff are aware of court involvement/expectations if they are a witness.
- Make arrangements for staff to get home if required.
- Do not leave the worker who has been a victim of violence or witnessed violence alone in the hours following the incident.
- Ensure work is covered and restored to normal as soon as possible.

**Medical care**

Assure injured employees receive prompt and appropriate medical care. Contact an employee assistance programme (EAP) for immediate assistance if available and needed.

If hospitalised arrange visits.

In relation to licensed premises specifically Luke et al (2002) suggested that to reduce the assault rate and the workload of hospital A&E departments there could be provision of high quality immediate medical care or an adequately equipped first aid room at larger licensed venues.

**Support**

- Give opportunities to affected staff to talk openly, express feelings and give constructive support. Workers are more likely to cope with an incident if they get positive support from colleagues and managers.

For example, Leather et al (1997) suggested the need for fear appraisals. In their study of 242 UK pub licensees they found that as the severity of the violence to which licensees were exposed increased, fear of becoming a victim and symptoms of impaired well-being increased, while job satisfaction and organisational commitment decreased. Also, fear of violence was shown to fully mediate the negative impact of exposure upon other variables. Therefore, Leather et al suggest it is important that employers understand the role of fear in the relationship between violence and negative outcomes and integrate management of fear appraisals into the package of organisational responses and interventions to workplace violence. Indeed, Shury et al (2005) argued that the emotional effects on those assaulted at work could be more severe because they cannot avoid the situation in which they were victimised. Without support and intervention their fear of further attack can increase.

- Provide social support and relaxation techniques.
- Recognise effects such as breathing difficulty, loss of appetite, flashbacks, irritability, anxiety, hyper-awareness and hyper-vigilance and be vigilant to these over the months following an incident.
- Managers should be alert to delays in trauma and symptoms that may manifest long after the incident. Managers should be aware that post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) may take some time to show and should take account of this possibility if a worker starts taking frequent sick leave or arrives late.
Counselling and Debriefing

- Conduct a sensitive debriefing as soon as practicable after the incident with continued support from management and colleagues. Rick et al (1998) noted that same day diffusing was used in some case study organisations whereby they conducted a meeting for staff before they went home to discuss what has happened and their reactions. The aims of this are to help staff come to terms with violent incidents, offer support and reassurance, to get people to focus on the facts and give information, to explain the roles of other staff and to explain subsequent help that is available if needed. This happens quite informally.

- Confidential counselling services can be available and could be offered either in-house or from local professionals. Also, refer staff to victim support or GP services if needed. This is important especially for employees who are particularly frightened, traumatised and scared to return to work. Managers should ensure staff know that counselling is available and encouraged.

- Provide post incident debriefing to reduce trauma and stress and defuse the impact. Evidence shows that immediate debriefing after the event can be important to avoid long term affects. Critical incident debriefing can be useful in all but the most trivial cases.

- Opportunities for group debriefing may be useful. By sharing experiences with others it may help people to come to terms with the incident and offers reassurance.

- Ensure there is counselling and support available for colleagues and witnesses as well as victims.

Such services may be provided as part of a company employee assistance programme.

Rick et al (1998) reported that debriefing was used in the days following incidents to help people deal with their feelings and to prevent the development of PTSD. Rick et al also discussed the issue of debriefing in more depth covering when to use it and benefits, limitations and effectiveness.

Despite its widespread use, however, it is not clear that debriefing benefits trauma victims. The majority of studies have failed to adequately demonstrate the beneficial effects. Only six randomised controlled trials (RCTs) have been conducted and there are mixed findings on how effective debriefing is in reducing traumatic symptoms. On the whole, they show no difference between those receiving debriefing and those not receiving it. One study of emergency personnel gave high ratings of the helpfulness of debriefing, particularly sharing experiences, but did not show a reduction in traumatic symptoms – this was best observed in those who had social support access. Some evaluations have even suggested that it can cause more harm especially if it involves re-exposure to the incident. Many non-RCT studies suggested that debriefing works because symptoms disappeared for many people 3 to 4 weeks later but it is reported that most people will naturally recover within 3 to 4 weeks anyway. Rick et al (1998) also noted that counselling services are largely unevaluated. Currently evidence suggests that counselling based on cognitive or behaviour therapy is most successful but evidence is limited and uptake is too low to properly evaluate these.

Despite lack of evaluation and negative aspects, the processes around debriefing (i.e. acknowledging individuals have experienced an extreme event, clearly identified procedures and ongoing monitoring of staff well-being) are widely welcomed in organisations.
Investigation and reporting

- Conduct a timely investigation, including a post-incident questionnaire and evaluation within a 'no-blame' environment.
- Inform management to prepare incident report.
- Set up a security/staff committee to operate proactively as well as reactively when aggression is reported.
- Encourage comprehensive reporting of aggression with no consequences to staff.
- Inform other workers to avoid spreading rumours.
- Report incident and injuries to police and notify other authorities as required.
- Inform Occupational Health (OH) advisors of incident if available.
- Review risk assessments to identify what additional measures are necessary.

Legalities

- Reimbursement and help with legal procedures/information should be provided.
- Supervisors and victims should consider compensation claims carefully in light of the law and their specific situation.
- Ensure staff are aware of access to legal services, such as USDAW’s services for legal compensation support.

Training

- Provide support and training for managers expected to conduct debriefing to empower them to take a more active part in supporting staff after violent incidents.
- Staff expected to clean up after incidents should be trained in appropriate techniques.

Changes to job role or working conditions for those affected by an incident

- Provide leave and necessary time off to recover.
- A change of duties or location may be arranged if possible.
- Encourage return to work and rehabilitation options, such as a short break from counter duties, removal from public contact entirely, temporarily assign a different role or organise retraining for a new post.
- Do not place staff in situations that could restart symptoms.
- Managers/reps should ensure that rehabilitation is supported and suited to the worker.
- Encourage people to return to work as soon as they can as this helps with earlier recovery of shock.
USDAW (2002b) reported that 47% of victims were dissatisfied with the support they received from their immediate manager if there was an incident. Such a finding makes it all the more important for the post-incident guidelines to be followed.

Tehrani (1995) cited an example of a trauma care programme in the Post Office business. It involves five stages plus a pre-incident stage of employee selection, education and programme promotion. Also, it notes the importance of developing a pre and post incident trauma care programme that is relevant to the culture of the business. This trauma care programme was shown to be adaptable to the needs of a wide variety of businesses and was welcomed by managers, staff and GPs, but there was no official evaluation and there may be problems in measuring levels of trauma experience by an individual.

However, Standing and Nicolini (1997) reported that there has been praise for the Post Office’s programme as an example of good practice in responding to the problem of violence in the workplace.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Timing</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Royal Mail Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minus One</td>
<td>Employee selection, education and programme promotion</td>
<td>Pre-employment, pre-introduction, regular refreshers</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>OHS, personnel, training</td>
<td>Presentations to all employees, trauma care policy, booklet/leaflets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>Crisis management</td>
<td>First 24 hours</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>First aiders, emergency services, police, security, OHS, welfare, public relations</td>
<td>Public relations policy, security procedures, communication procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>Manager Debrief</td>
<td>24-48 hours</td>
<td>Management, OHS</td>
<td>Manager debriefer, OHS, GP</td>
<td>Designated manager debrief, traumatic stress leaflet, letter for GP, group debrief by OHS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>Psychological Debrief</td>
<td>3-7 days</td>
<td>Management, OHS</td>
<td>Psychological debriefer, GPs</td>
<td>Psychological debrief and follow up session by OHS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>Trauma counselling</td>
<td>2-4 weeks</td>
<td>Management, OHS/GP</td>
<td>NHS, trauma counselling network</td>
<td>Trauma counselling available to all employees when agreed by business and on advice of OHS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>Evaluation and follow up</td>
<td>Trauma questionnaire at 3, 6, 9 and 12 months, involving sickness absence, medical retirements</td>
<td>Management, OHS</td>
<td>Psychological debriefer, OHS, doctor, personnel</td>
<td>Employee satisfaction questionnaire, post-incident questionnaire, sickness absence levels, medical retirement levels</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Summary of Trauma Care Programme (taken from Tehrani, 1995). More detail on each stage and examples can be found in the above reference.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-incident support: summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The literature advocates that support following an incident should be available to staff, and there should be agreed procedures that need to be followed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Post incident procedures may include preserving the crime scene for evidence, recording the incident, notifying police, securing video evidence and ensuring work is covered and service restored to normal as soon as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Support for those involved in or witness to an incident could include providing opportunity for staff to debrief (although the evidence is not straightforward that debriefing always benefits trauma victims); provide opportunity for group debriefing, and ensuring further counselling is available if needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The trauma care programme of the Post Office (described in 1995) is highlighted, although there was no official evaluation found.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.9 COMBINATION OF MEASURES

A variety of references referred to the idea that no single measure or intervention strategy will be effective. They suggested that violence prevention will be most effective and successful when more than one measure is used and more than one risk factor is addressed (e.g. Graham et al, 2005; Home Office, 2006; HSE, 1995, 1997; ICAP, 2002; Mayhew, 2000; ODPM, 2004; OSHA, 1998; Poyner and Warne, 1988; Shury et al, 2005). Indeed, the BBPA (2003) quoted that “no one element can work in isolation”. In addition, the Cabinet Office (2003) noted that there has to be recognition that changing behaviour and attitudes towards violence and crime is a long term objective and so many measures are probably required, covering attitudinal, cultural and engineering aspects.

Mayhew (2002) and OSHA (1998) reported that prevention occurs in 3 key ways:

- Target hardening (increasing the effort the offender must expend so making crime more difficult, e.g. controlling access, deterrence)
- Improved surveillance (increasing the risk of being caught by being better able to identify offenders, e.g. entry/exit screening, surveillance)
- Better cash control (reducing the rewards to the offender to reduce attractiveness of committing the crime, e.g. removing the target and inducements, identifying property)

For example, OSHA (1998) studied 7-11 stores who reduced cash, maximised risk ratio and trained employees, saw a 64% decrease in robbery rates over 20 years. However, Mayhew (2000) reported that while a mix of risk control measures will usually be most effective a
balance needs to be found between crime and violence prevention measures and having a relaxing environment with good customer service and staff safety. Indeed, Standing and Nicolini (1997) noted that too strong or disproportionate prevention strategies might produce negative, unintended or counter-intuitive effects. For example, raising a protective barrier to minimise risk can be perceived as aggressive or defensive by customers and may trigger violence. Also, there is a risk that publications that give advice and raise awareness of violence may be damaging in that they could produce increased fear.

The need for a combination of measures is further demonstrated by various references that specify particular combinations of measures. For example, USDAW (1999) noted that controlling the risk of work-related violence would require a number of steps such as:

- Improving physical security.
- Changing working practices.
- Employing specialist security staff.
- Training staff to use protective measures and procedures.
- Supporting staff who are victims of violent incidents.

The following table shows some examples of different measures that could be used to produce a combined package of measures. Measures derive from the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2002), GMB (no date) and Rick et al (1998).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preventive Actions</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Environment / Security</td>
<td>Better décor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public area layout should be bright and well decorated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regular information about delays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Protective screens for staff at risk and limiting objects that can serve as projectiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Better lighting and removal of potential cover for clear visibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Site cash tills away from customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide physical security/counter screens at cash tills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Place high value goods out of easy reach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Widening or raising counter heights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Access for staff to a secure location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitor high-risk entrances, exits and delivery points, e.g. entry locks, emergency exits, alarm systems, coded doors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consider employing security staff, especially for late night operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consider CCTV/video surveillance, but this should be carefully planned and not abused to monitor staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changing the location of premises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Organisation, Job Design and Procedures</td>
<td>Selection and recruitment procedures to ensure applicants have a clear idea of job demands and ensure they have the right skills. For example, a 24-hour retail outlet developed selection skills to ensure those taken on were suitable for lone and night working. As a result they saw a drop in staff turnover from 50% to 35%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minimum cash in tills, regular removal of cash and valuables, non-cash alternatives, time lock tills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Queue management and shortening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sufficient staff. Ensure staff levels are appropriate to the task and time of day and ensure there are extra staff during busy/troublesome times, e.g. weekend evenings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff training and information</td>
<td>Training on organising work to reduce violence risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training on the causes of violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognising unacceptable behaviour, irrational behaviour, nervousness, hostility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognising early signs of aggression, escalating situations and danger signs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing difficult situations with customers and how to deal with/defuse abusive and aggressive customers and violent situations through using skills such as listening, remaining calm, being assertive and not aggressive, offering compromises, attracting attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing the stress inherent in the situation to control emotional reactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Following procedures set up to protect employees such as security instructions, ensuring communication, acting to reduce aggression, identifying violence history</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Training on policies and systems for dealing with violence, including availability of counselling

Rehearsing and training on major incident procedures

Responding to incidents and techniques for avoiding confrontation and conflict, e.g. stay calm, don’t argue or touch, avoid confrontational manner, offer to talk, avoid being alone, do not turn your back, do not tackle offenders, how to raise the alarm, safe places to go

Edwards and Tilley (no date) found that CCTV should be introduced as part of a package of measures. For example, in Newcastle it was the strategic approach, incorporating CCTV as one element, but also including a door supervisors registration scheme, a PubWatch scheme, proactive policing etc, that may have reduced the numbers of recorded crimes (but not necessarily violence) from 13,500 to 9000 over two years. Furthermore, Graham and Homel (1997), in bar observation studies, found that the social environment tends to be a more powerful predictor of aggression than the physical environment so while more difficult to change, social aspects may be more important to address.

In relation to retail, Cusens and Shepherd (2005) suggested that combining a variety of evidence-based interventions such as targeted policing, price control, situational prevention and liaison with health service data are most likely to be successful.

Case Study:

The Home Office (2004) reported that it is often necessary for the response to incorporate a complementary mix of interventions including premises based and wider collaborative approaches. For example, one project to tackle youths congregating outside local shops was less successful because while they focused on changing the area where they played football by introducing environmental features such as seats and planters, they did not combine this with creating a diversionary youth activity or football playing area.

Rick et al (1998) provided two examples showing a package of measures used in a couple of specific retail environments.

- Example: Betting Office
  - Safe inserts that can only be opened at specific times and advertised
  - Guidelines on keeping cash levels to a minimum
  - Advice on different routes and what to watch out for when banking
  - Personal alarms to all staff when offices commenced evening opening
More customer friendly screens
Installation of CCTV, resulting in robbery reduction of almost 80%

- Example: 24-hour retail sales
  - Cash handling procedures
  - Secure areas for staff
  - Ensuring premises are well lit and well staffed
  - Using night pay windows
  - Providing staff with ‘carephone’ system (24 hour alarm system that can be carried in pocket or worn on the person)
  - Amending opening hours to limit seasonal risks (e.g. shorter in the winter)
  - Situating shops and services to locations with a lower risk assessment

Finally, the Home Office (2005) ‘business security survey’, mentioned earlier in the review, contains issues and questions to consider which illustrate how a combination of measures may help to increase business security.

1. Preparation. Ask questions such as:
   - Has there been crime in the area and what type?
   - Has your business or a nearby business been a victim?
   - What are the possible targets in your business and how high risk are they?
   - Is there a partnership in the area and can you get information?
   - This may help decide which measures are appropriate, realistic and cost-effective.

2. Environment (area around the business).
   - Well-maintained areas give a good impression and increase feelings of security.
   - Run down areas seem easier to target as there is a belief there are no violence and crime prevention measures in place.
   - It is important to get together with others to change the environment, e.g. LAs, and consider sharing security costs with other businesses/form partnerships.
   - Improving the environment increases the effort and risk and removes excuses.

3. Perimeter (area between boundary and building). The following factors increase the risk of an offender being caught:
   - Ensure the boundary is built of appropriate material and is secure and maintained.
   - Secure entrances if frequent access is not needed.
Steel fencing, railings or walls are effective at 2.5m high.

- Well-placed gates can be effective.
- Use anti climb paint above 2.5m to make the surface difficult to climb or have a fence alarm to make it harder to climb over the fence.
- Improve visibility by cutting back vegetation and improving lighting.
- Use signs to remove offender excuses.

4. Shell (fabric of the building). To increase offender effort and risk:

- Check building is in good condition and material is secure.
- Use at least 6.8mm laminated glass in doors and ground floor windows.
- Protect windows with locks, restrict their opening, have bars or shutters etc.
- Use tinted glass or film to reduce visibility of valuable goods (if there is high value stock also talk to a security specialist).

However, do not make the building a ‘fortress’ so staff and customers can’t get in!

5. Interior.

- Well-placed signs are a useful way of putting off offenders and making them aware of security measures, e.g. ‘no cash on premises’, ‘staff have no access to safe’, or ‘CCTV in operation’.
- High value equipment to be stored and secured in a separate room/cabinet.
- Marking property and electronic tagging of stock.
- Bank note staining and metal detectors.
- If alarms are present, ensure they work and are used, serviced and monitored properly. Support alarms with other devices such as CCTV.
- Encourage staff to be vigilant of suspicious behaviour and to approach customers if suspicious.

6. People.

- Reduce lone working risk by using a personal alarm, radio link schemes, controlled access with key pads, CCTV, auto warning devices that set off if a person does not report in, regular checks of lone workers etc.
- Ensure people are trained in using tills/alarms etc and in security/conflict management.
- Ensure staff are aware of emergency and security procedures.
- Use screens to protect staff, cash and goods and ensure they are professionally fitted.
- Check the ID of visitors and deliveries to the business.
Limit queues by having more staff at busy times.

7. Procedures.

- Ensure closing procedures are followed, e.g. checking locks, lights, alarm.
- Staff training in cash handling procedures, e.g. transfer excess to a secure unit, remove cash from till overnight, take cash to bank as soon as possible and often, preferably by an external security firm, count cash out of sight, do not get into routines with cash, do not pay wages in cash if possible and put tills near exits.
- Ensure procedures are used for employing security guard companies from the National Security Inspectorate (NSI) Directory of approved companies.
- Have procedures such as different entrances for staff.

Evaluation

Runyan et al (2005) mentioned that few strategies to reduce violence are evaluated. Therefore, there is mixed data and it is unclear whether design features (safes, lighting, barriers etc) or behavioural and administrative strategies are more effective.

The section below covers evaluative research that assesses a range of measures or a particular package of measures. Further evaluative research that was relevant to specific measures was discussed previously within the relevant measures section.

Retail Premises

A few evaluation studies relevant to retail premises are outlined below. For example, McGeer (2004) described the regional southern co-operatives’ approach that adopted measures such as:

- Establishment of a partnership with the local council and police to take joint action against offenders. It was accepted that the police have limited capacity to respond adequately and so the need for businesses to establish partnerships and share responsibility for reducing crime and anti-social behaviour is important.
- Audit of stores’ security arrangements.
- Investment in new measures such as CCTV, shutters and locks.
- Adoption of workplace violence training for front line staff and managers – ‘Dealing with aggressive customers’. Training was thorough, supported wider measures, and included practical tools and case studies.
- Establishing an incident recording system.
- Contracting an external security company for hotspots.
- Pursuit of exclusions and ASBOs (this gave a strong message but few retailers were aware of powers to use such laws).
The approach was found to be successful, based on the following measures:

- The worst performing stores were turned into some of the best stores.
- There were 7 successful ASBO applications.
- There were reductions in staff turnover and increase in customers.
- Many staff attended training (more than 300 since 2002).
- There was a marked improvement in staff confidence in their own ability and the employer’s ability.
- There was improved communication between front line staff and managers.

Licata (2000) conducted a robbery deterrence study in 7-11 stores where they consulted with former robbers to devise appropriate prevention measures. Robbers reported that they targeted stores based on cash availability and visibility from inside and outside the building, so suggested that measures should focus on these areas.

Measures that were devised included:

- Employee non-confrontational training in conjunction with other measures.
- Keeping available cash to a minimum.
- Notes over approximately £5/$10 placed in safe bolted to the floor.
- Drop safes holding all cash except for approximately £27/$50 during the day.
- Windows were made free of signs to make parking/outside visible.
- CCTV surveillance was implemented with high resolution and audio facilities.
- Visible signs were put in stores alerting robbers of minimum cash in the till.
- Good lighting and CCTV in parking areas.
- Crisis manuals and laminated cards describing emergency behaviour.
- Provision of a safe room with locking door and cell phone.

Success of such measures was shown by a 30% decrease in robberies recorded in the test stores and a robbery rate that decreased by 71% since 1976. However, some measures were seen as less successful, for example, code words for danger were hard to teach because people do not act in such orderly ways when under stress.

The Raid Control Toolkit is a crime reduction initiative that results in certification if stores meet all the requirements (www.raid-control.org). The five requirements are:

1. Robbery awareness training;
2. Cash minimisation;
3. Time delay systems;
4. Image capture/CCTV specifications;
5. Note staining.

Case Studies:
Case studies describing the success of RAID measures include:

- **Croydon pharmacy robberies.** As a result of Raid Control there have been no robberies. Various people recommended it and said it worked and was cost-effective. Also it was easy to use and gave a proactive solution.

- **Croydon convenience stores.** Raid Control was extended to convenience stores and a year after installation there was only 1 robbery in 13 stores and 2 attempts were thwarted. They definitely recommended it and said that it worked to give peace of mind. Its deterrent effect was significant and its success in pharmacies and convenience stores shows that it is equally effective in different environments. It was reported to be easy to implement and a good way to engage with the community.

- **Stockport shop premises.** Raid Control reduced raids from 67 to 9 in 1 year (87% reduction). Premises told customers about it and customers reported that it had improved shopping for them.

A brief example of whether security measures, such as alarms, screens etc, may be effective was provided by Exblom (1987). This involved an evaluation of a Post Office initiative including:

- Improvements in security (e.g. alarms were seen as a reason why robberies are unsuccessful and there is no evidence that activation of alarms endangers staff).

- Strengthening of anti-bandit screens. Such screens are floor to ceiling with a hatch and lockable door to the business area. The direct effect of improved screens is that they are harder to shatter while the indirect effect is that they are a broad deterrent arousing the robber’s fear that something has been done and security is improved.

- Sub postmaster training.

This initiative was followed by a fall in the number of robberies and it was concluded that this Post Office initiative was a success and had contributed to the fall in robbery.

However, it is important to know what proportion of the fall in robberies is due to the security initiative or whether it is due to other factors, e.g. police success in identifying and arresting offenders or random fluctuation, therefore the evaluation is not necessarily conclusive. In addition, Exblom highlights ‘side effects’ of such robbery reduction success, such as:

- Robbers may turn to other methods such as using firearms but this has a consistently high failure rate and robbers are often not prepared to use them. Also, this has not worsened the harm to staff – the majority of attacks are failures and 94% of gun incidents involved no injury. Also, staff gain confidence in security and morale which offsets the trauma experienced.
Robbery may be displaced to other targets, e.g. raids on mail vehicles delivering to the post office (but this is seen to be coincidental and not a result of the initiative).

Also, despite positive evaluation examples, Amandus et al (1997) noted that the effectiveness of measures might remain unclear. For example, Clifton and Callahan (1987, cited in Amandus et al, 1997) noted that number of robberies increased by 135% in stores in Florida after an ordinance requiring training, visibility and lighting standards. However, this number decreased to 65% after a second ordinance requiring the presence of two or more employees, guards, bullet resistant shielding or closing at night. It was not determined, however, whether the decrease in robberies was a result of factors in the second ordinance or to the latent effects of complying with the first ordinance. Therefore, it could not be said with any certainty which of the measures had the effect.

**Licensed Premises**

Hauritz et al (1998) reported on a community safety action project in Queensland based on police data and observations of aggression and management practices from 1994 to 1996. The Surfers Paradise Safety Action Project had the following features:

- Funding channelled through local government,
- Representative steering committee and community forum,
- Management of venues and security,
- Encouragement for managers to introduce a code of practice regulating serving, security staff, advertising and risk assessment,
- Rehabilitation of the image of nightclub managers and integration of them into the local business community, using other committed managers to encourage them,
- Female project officer with good interpersonal skills.

This project saw a marked initial impact with a dramatic improvement in levels of violence, publicity of policies, server practices, physical environment improvements and security practices, but after two years it was found that the impact had ‘worn off’.

Physical and social contexts in which aggression had declined included:

- Improved infrastructure and renovation,
- Improved lighting,
- Improved seating design and spacing and comfort of tables and chairs,
- Ventilation,
- Cleanliness of toilets,
- Availability of taxis and public transport.

Also, behavioural factors evident in contexts in which aggression had declined were:

- Friendlier bar staff and security staff and overall increased sociability,
- Better focus on control, e.g. moving around the bar more often,
- Improvements in publicity and reduced gimmicks and promotions,
- Improved methods for handling drunks,
- Expectations of managers increased and venues were less permissive.

Despite the impact ‘wearing off’, replication projects in Cairns, Townsville and Mackay found that after the interventions all forms of aggression and violence within venues declined between 75% to 81% and police data showed declines for most street offences. However, verbal aggression declined less. Also, it was found that the patrons did not change, which suggests that type of patron did not influence the reduction of aggression, as the patrons were the same and aggression still declined. The results of these safety action projects in Australia suggests that creating an awareness of the environment / situational factors, changing management factors and motivating communities to become responsive can help in reducing crime.

Maguire and Nettleton (2003) described the Tackling Alcohol-Related Street Crime (TASC) project in Cardiff/Cardiff Bay in 2000. Interventions included:

- Licensees Forum and dialogue between licensees and police.
- Targeted policing operations at trouble “hotspots”.
- Influence licensing policy and practice.
- Publicity of the problem of alcohol-related violent crime.

Comparison of crime rates between the first 12 months of the project with the previous 12 months showed a decrease of 4% in alcohol-related assaults and this occurred despite a 10% increase in licensed premises capacity. During the same period, violence rose elsewhere in South Wales.

However, there was a 49% increase in alcohol-related disorder, but this rise slowed up during the evaluation period and virtually the entire rise was due to one street with a dense concentration of licensed premises.

There were significant reductions in violent incidents occurring in or just outside individual pubs and club with targeted police operations. The most successful one reduced violence 41% and 36% for two clubs and this was sustained over time. Police operations targeted at whole streets were less effective.

The most fruitful partnership was the licensees’ forum but there was less success persuading key council players and breweries to become involved.

Finally, Wallin et al’s (2003) research studied the effects of a community alcohol prevention program on violent crimes in Stockholm. The multi-component program consisted of community mobilisation, training in responsible beverage service (RBS) for servers and stricter enforcement of existing alcohol laws. RBS included not serving alcohol to intoxicated patrons or minors, offering a large variety of non-alcoholic beverages, asking/forcing markedly intoxicated patrons to leave the premises, door staff refusing entrance to intoxicated patrons and actively suggesting non-alcoholic beverages. Stricter enforcement of existing legislation included police monitoring whether minors or intoxicated patrons are served alcohol, uniformed
policemen visiting nightclubs/bars/pubs, and repeated service to intoxicated patrons and minors resulting in loss of license.

The evaluation showed that during the intervention period, violent crimes decreased significantly by 29% in the intervention area whereas within the control area there was a slight increase in reported crimes during the same period. It was concluded that the intervention seemed to have been successful in reducing violent crimes and therefore it supports the notion that community action projects working on a local basis can be effective in decreasing alcohol-related problems at licensed premises.

Case Study:
Poyner and Warne (1988) described two examples of improving safety that were implemented in two football pubs, one with more radical changes and the other simpler and more minimal changes.

- **Pub in a large run down area close to a first division football club.** The manager was local to the area so knew the local people and culture. Measures included bar areas being refurbished and extended, décor themed as cinema and films of the 1930s and a disco area at the end was added. The changes were an enormous commercial success and the pub was brought more upmarket with a dress code and charge for entry after 9pm. However, they did not lose regulars; instead regulars started coming in with their wives and partners. The only violent incident was a woman arguing over a man. Another measure that was suggested as a match day violence solution was the creation of Saturday lunchtime clubs whereby there are maximum numbers with a fee for joining and using the car park. This measure was also a great success.

- **Pub in a similar area on the corner close to a first division football club.** This was a smaller pub so was unsuitable for modern refurbishment. No major physical modification could be afforded but some simple measures could be found. These included extending the depth of one bar, using an above head glass rack as a partial screen, moveable furniture being removed on match days, plastic glasses, the door between two bars permanently closed and one street door closed so that there was restricted access and police could be posted at one door, and a new manager (the old manager had had his opinions of supporters publicised in the local paper). These examples both contributed to a reduction in violence and show that the problem could be solved in two different, yet both successful, ways, as long as it is specific to the context.

Case Study:
The Portman Group (1998) gave an example of a strategy involving a variety of measures: York Anti Alcohol-Related Disorder Strategy. In conjunction with local licensing justices, the local authority and police, the approach consisted of:

- All licensees joining the PubWatch scheme using a pager system.
- Exclusion orders vigorously used.
- Doorsafe registration scheme.
- Licensees attending two meetings a year.
- Regular newsletter with photographs of excluded banned people.
- Training course for licensees (160 people per year), off-licensees (80 per year) and door staff (150 per year).

This initiative was significant: between 1993 and 1997, crime and disorder in York declined by 40%.
Combination of measures: summary

- Many references agree that the most effective method of controlling the risk of violence and crime is by implementing a combination of measures.

- Taking relevant measures from the following categories is described: workplace environment / security, work organisation, job design and procedures, staff training and information.

- As has been noted throughout this review, evaluation of measures is rarely done, and it is often difficult to tease out which specific measures have been most effective.

- There is some anecdotal evidence suggesting that violence control schemes containing a combination of measures have been successful in reducing crime and aggression, although confounding variables and lack of control groups, make evaluation difficult in these real world contexts.
5 CONCLUSIONS

Despite a major problem with under-reporting, work-related violence is a significant issue, particularly in licensed and retail premises. Duty holders need to take more action to prevent and manage the risks of this problem. However, previous lack of action, may lead to businesses being uncertain about whether violence at work falls in the ‘health and safety’ or ‘crime’ field. This is despite Health and Safety legislation clearly detailing duties on employers to protect employees from health and safety risks, which include violence.

Duty holders need to consider the risk factors for violence, including the type of work they and their staff do, the location of their premises, job design and work environment factors and the training they provide to staff. Some of the risk factors may be open to change, whilst others may not; these may require control to minimise the risks. Duty holders also need to consider any special groups of staff who may be at more risk and if they need any additional or special interventions to manage that risk.

Violence management can be achieved through risk assessment. There are numerous resources available, including the good practice toolkit developed as a result of this work, which aims to aid duty holders in this process. Duty holders need to assess the possible risk, decide who might be exposed to the risk, consider what measures they already have in place and what more they can do to reduce the risk, and implement any relevant measures. Duty holders also need to remember that, over time, situations and therefore risk factors may change or there may be different or increased risks, for example, if they are running a specific event. They, therefore, may need to revisit their risk assessment.

There are numerous measures to control and manage the risks of violence in retail and licensed premises, and these measures do not have to be expensive. One of the most important measures in controlling the risk is raising awareness amongst staff that work-related violence, including verbal abuse, is not acceptable, and that the organisation / business is prepared to do something about the problem. This can help staff work with managers in tackling this problem. Another key measure is partnership working, whether between similar businesses, with the police or local authorities, or trade unions etc. It is much easier to tackle work-related violence and crime when groups work together, sharing information and resources. Other measures can be grouped under headings relating to the environment, the job, training, or other legal options, like banning persistent offenders. A combination of these measures is advised and some will be more or less appropriate depending on the level of risk, the type or size of business, or resources available. Duty holders need to decide what is reasonably practicable for them.

This review suggests much is possible in preventing and managing work-related violence in retail and licensed premises, although little evaluation work has been done. There is a legal and moral case to take action on this matter, as well as a business case in terms of preventing loss from staff absences and turnover resulting from physical injury as well as the fear of abuse. The toolkit developed from this review brings together the information on how to manage work-related violence, and provides practical and simple advice for duty holders. It should, therefore, aid duty holders in taking steps to manage and prevent work-related violence in retail and licensed premises.
6 RECOMMENDATIONS

- Raising awareness: Attention should be paid to raising awareness of work-related violence as a health and safety topic to be assessed and managed in the same way as other workplace hazards. Duty holders need to include work-related violence, including verbal abuse as one topic in their risk assessment. In addition, attention needs to be paid to raising awareness at the staff level that violence is not acceptable. This should increase reporting and help organisations work with staff in tackling this issue.

- There is a need for improved reporting on this issue in order to better establish the extent of the problem, raise awareness and encourage action. Duty holders and their staff need to be encouraged to report violent incidents and simpler methods of reporting need to be developed.

- Duty holders should be encouraged to use risk assessment as a way of managing and preventing the risks of violence. The toolkit developed as part of this work should aid employers in using a risk assessment process for this topic and Environmental Health Officers should use the information provided in the toolkit as a way of helping organisations through this process.

- Duty holders should be encouraged to use a combination of measures most suited to their situation, business type and size, and again the toolkit can help organisations identify possible and suitable measures. Partnerships between organisations as well as between, for example, the police and Local Authorities should also be encouraged as an effective measure in tackling this issue.
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A literature review of effective management of the risk of violence in licensed and retail premises arising from crime and disorder

This report details a comprehensive literature review covering the management and prevention of work-related violence in retail and licensed premises. This review forms the evidence base of the ‘Good practice toolkit on preventing violence in retail and licensed premises’ available on the HSE website (http://www.hse.gov.uk/violence/toolkit/index.htm). This literature review and the toolkit were part of a research project commissioned by Westminster City Council (WCC), and funded by HSE under the ‘Local Authorities (LA) and HSE Working Together Strategic Programme’. This initiative aims to give Local Authorities better access to scientific support.

WCC saw crime and disorder and the risk of violence to staff and customers as significant issues in licensed and retail premises. They had started to tackle these problems through their CivicWatch Business project and partnership working with Crime Prevention Officers and Police Licensing Officers, but felt that their work would be further enhanced by national guidance – the toolkit.

HSL Work Psychologists, drawing information from this review, developed the toolkit in consultation with WCC and other stakeholders.

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