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Workplace Homicide: The Threat Of Stranger Violence And Intimate Partner Violence In The Workplace

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**WORKPLACE HOMICIDE: THE THREAT OF STRANGER VIOLENCE AND
INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE IN THE WORKPLACE**

by

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THESIS

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Advisor

Date

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother, Brenda, and my wife, Danielle. If not for the love and support of these two extraordinary women, this work would never have come to fruition. Both of you make me want to be a better man. And finally, this work is also dedicated to all women who have suffered acts of intimate partner violence at the workplace; especially those who have paid with their lives, may your souls rest peacefully and memories never be forgotten.

D.M.S.

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D.M.S.

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CHAPTER 1 DEFINING WORKPLACE VIOLENCE

Introduction

Occurrences of violence in the workplace have colloquially become known as workplace violence (WPV). Over this same time period, acts of mass murder committed by angry coworkers against employers and fellow workers have garnered considerable media attention. As such, WPV has been associated with the recently-fired employee storming his or her place of employment with the intent of killing those responsible for his or her termination, and the resulting headline-grabbing phrase “going postal” became part of the vernacular after such tragic incidents as those associated with the United States Postal Service.

However, this type of situation is by no means the only type of violence occurring at the workplace. Increasingly, employers are called upon to deal with domestic violence issues spilling over into the workplace that were once thought to be confined to the home environment. Therefore, the modern-day employer must recognize the threat that an intimate partner poses to his or her intimate partner at his or her place of employment. For example, recent research indicates that women who are murdered at work are about as likely to be killed by a former or current intimate partner as they are to be killed during a workplace robbery (Tiesman *et al.*, 2012). With this recognition, the employer may be expected to take proactive steps in developing policies and procedures that can help ameliorate acts of intimate partner violence at the workplace (Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

The main purpose of this paper is to examine two questions: (1) Are women more likely than men to be murdered at the workplace by an intimate partner; and (2) are men more likely than women to be murdered at the workplace by a stranger. These research questions will

quantitatively be examined. Because this paper is concerned with WPV, I will offer a brief definition of WPV and summarize the four different types of WPV incidents. An examination of the literature on intimate partner homicide in general and workplace homicide in particular will then be presented. I will then outline the data and methods and analytical strategy used in this paper to examine the research questions and hypotheses. Finally, I will then present the findings of my analysis and conclude with a discussion and recommendations on preventing intimate partner violence at the workplace.

There are many definitions available to describe WPV. Meadows (1998) defines WPV "...as any violence resulting in the death or physical injury of an employee or business invitee by another employee or business intruder" (p. 112). The Occupational Safety and Health Administration defines WPV as "the commission of proscribed criminal acts of coercive behavior which occurs in the work setting...[such as] homicides, forcible sex offences, kidnapping, assault, robbery, menacing, reckless endangerment, harassment, and disorderly conduct" (1996 cited in Hinduja, 2009, p. 271). Incidents of workplace violence can be assigned to four categories: Type I, criminal intent; Type II, customer/client; Type III, worker on worker; and Type IV, personal relationship.

Type I WPV incidents include a situation in which an individual enters a business establishment with the intent of committing a criminal act. In such incidents, there is no legitimate relationship between the perpetrator and the business. For example, Type I incidents often involve the robbery of a gas station or convenience store where exchanges of cash occur on a regular basis and account for about 70% of all workplace homicides (Harrell, 2011). Because convenience stores are open 24 hours a day, seven days a week, they may be particularly susceptible to criminal victimization. Type II incidents are characterized by an individual

attacking another person from whom he or she is receiving some type of service. Such incidents generally occur when a service transaction goes awry and an individual becomes violent. It has been suggested that Type II workplace homicides may account for approximately 10% of workplace homicides, and the cause of the violence will vary depending on the nature of the relationship that exists between the person providing the service and the recipient of that service (Harrell, 2011). Examples of this type of workplace violence include a nurse who is assaulted by a patient in an emergency room (Catlette and Belzoni, 2005), a teacher who is attacked by a student (Leyden, 1999), a social worker who is victimized by a client in the community setting (Littlechild, 1995), and a police officer who is killed during a “routine” traffic stop (Edwards, 1995).

Instances of Type III WPV are characterized by an employer-employee or employee-employee relationship. This type of WPV can occur in any number of contexts, but the most likely situation arises when an employee threatens coworkers or a supervisor. Specifically, this can involve a disgruntled employee who believes his or her place of employment has done him or her wrong because of some perceived injustice (Kennedy *et al.*, 2004). Consequently, a recently suspended employee may take revenge against a supervisor or employee because he or she views them as somehow responsible for his or her plight (Denenberg and Braverman, 1999). Type III incidents of WPV make up a relatively small percentage of workplace homicides at 11% (Harrell, 2011). However, as was mentioned above, these acts of violence are heavily scrutinized in the popular media, which creates a false image of the rate at which worker on worker homicidal violence occurs (Meadows, 1998).

Type IV incidents often involve women who have suffered tumultuous relationships with their husband or boyfriend. Such relationships are full of acrimonious exchanges that can

escalate into physical violence. Approximately 5% of all workplace homicides are attributable to Type IV WPV (Harrell, 2011). Even where no homicide occurs, the consequences of such violence can be quite severe for women. Harrell (2011) found that 1.7% of women were assaulted by an intimate partner at work and .08% of men were assaulted by an intimate partner at work. The author also found that 52.9% of men were assaulted by a stranger at work and 40.9% of women were assaulted by a stranger at work.

Women are sometimes subjected to stalking behaviors by their intimate partner as well. In fact, the workplace often serves as an access point for the husband or boyfriend. In other words, a husband or boyfriend will use the woman's workplace to confront her because he knows this is a place where he can expect to encounter her on a regular basis. Although Type IV WPV can be directed towards males, and can occur between gay and lesbian intimates, a majority of Type IV cases known to the authorities and employers tend to involve males stalking females (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2010; Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

CHAPTER 2 INTIMATE PARTNER HOMICIDE AND WORKPLACE VIOLENCE

Every year there are many instances in which an individual is either assaulted or murdered by an intimate partner. Cooper and Smith (2011) reported that between 1980 and 2008, 41.5% of women were murdered by an intimate partner and 11.9% were murdered by a stranger. The authors also reported that 16.7% of women were murdered by a family member (e.g., parent) and 29.9% were murdered by an acquaintance (e.g., friend). Furthermore, the same study reported that 7.1% of men were murdered by an intimate partner, 25.5% were murdered by a stranger, 10.9% were murdered by a family member, and 56.4% were murdered by an acquaintance. A 2003 study by the Bureau of Justice Statistics revealed that in 2001, 691,710 nonlethal violent assaults were committed by a current or former intimate partner. Of this number, 588,490 victimizations were suffered by women (Rennison, 2003).

The National Violence Against Women Survey found that women were much more likely than men to be victims of intimate partner violence (Tjaden and Thoennes, 2000). Bachman (1994) examined data from the National Crime Victimization Survey and found that 5% of all women who were victimized were victimized at work by a current or ex-intimate, whereas 1% of men were victimized. This same author reported that 58% of men were assaulted by a stranger at work and 40% of females were assaulted by a stranger at work. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' 2012 Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries, in 2010 women made up 26% of fatal assaults at the workplace compared to 10% of men.

In 2010, the Federal Bureau of Investigation reported in their annual Uniform Crime Report that 1,095 women were killed by an intimate partner and 241 men were killed by an intimate partner. Of the 8,148 murders that took place in a work environment between 1993-2002,

Hendricks, *et al.* (2007) reported that 6,682 involved a Type I incident and 447 involved a Type IV incident. Moracco *et al.* (2000) found that 12 women were killed at work by a current or former intimate partner, whereas 0 men were killed at work by a current or former intimate partner. Of the 899 workplace homicides that occurred between 1993-1999, Duhart (2001) reported that 753 involved a stranger and 28 involved an intimate partner.

Instances of IPV span the realm of intimate relationships and can occur in heterosexual, gay, and lesbian relationships (Tjaden *et al.*, 1999). In traditional forms of marriage, research has found that the rate at which a female and male commit acts of violence towards their spouse is about equal when violence is perpetrated by only one partner (Straus *et al.*, 2006). However, one telling difference between the sexes is that males tend to inflict much more devastating damage upon their female counterparts (Straus, 2009). When it comes to the workplace, however, a majority of the research examines the consequences women face from suffering violence by men relative to their employment. A discussion of this research is presented below.

An abusive man will use a variety of techniques to disrupt a woman's ability to attend work and stay at work. Swanberg and Logan (2005) categorized these techniques as actions taken before work and actions taken during work. The authors also included a third category, actions taken after work, but found that men mostly disrupt women by using the first two categories. Before a woman leaves for work, a man may resort to assaultive behavior by physically restraining or beating her. This physical abuse can have damaging effects on a woman's physical and psychological well-being. For example, women can suffer broken and fractured bones, back and neck pain, headaches and migraines, bladder and kidney infections, and digestive problems. Women can even suffer a variety of sexually related problems. Because of forced sex, women can contract sexually transmitted diseases, AIDS or HIV, and experience

gynecological problems. The psychological effects include anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, drug and alcohol abuse, and suicidal ideation (Wisner *et al.*, 1999; Plichta and Falik, 2001; Campbell, 2002; Swanberg *et al.*, 2006). In addition to these physical and psychological consequences, a man will sabotage a woman so that she is unable to go to work. For example, a man will purposely not provide child care, manipulate a woman's physical appearance by cutting off her hair, alter modes of transportation so they are inoperable, purposely conceal or ruin a woman's clothing, prevent a woman from getting enough rest, and alter or turn off alarm clocks (Swanberg and Macke, 2006). Women may also have to leave work early because of the physical and psychological abuse (Shepard and Pence, 1988). Injuries sustained in an assault may physically keep a woman from performing her job, and psychological consequences may make it cognitively difficult for her to concentrate.

With respect to actions taken during work, women who suffer abusive relationships will experience a variety of problems that negatively affect their employment. Abusers will engage in controlling behaviors that are designed to subjugate women while at work. For example, a man will disrupt a woman's workday by causing her to be late for work and pressuring her to immediately leave work when her workday has ended (Friedman and Couper, 1987; Raphael, 2001; Moe and Bell, 2004; Taylor and Smith-Barusch, 2004; Swanberg and Logan, 2005). Lloyd and Taluc (1999) found that a man would interrupt a woman at her place of employment by directly calling her on the telephone and traveling to her work to harass her. This latter behavior not only causes disruptions for the woman, but it also affects coworkers. In fact, not only will a man pose a risk to his intimate partner, but he may also threaten her fellow coworkers (Swanberg *et al.*, 2007). Because of this potential risk posed to fellow coworkers, a woman might have difficulty maintaining employment (Browne *et al.*, 1999; Moe and Bell, 2004). This

could also be a consequence of not maintaining adequate productivity levels. In other words, the ability to sustain her employment by properly completing her work functions will be hindered (Brush, 2000). Friedman and Couper (1987) surveyed a group of women who were victims of domestic abuse and found that 56% of the respondents were forced to be late at least five days in one month because of domestic violence. An additional 28% were forced to leave work early and on average 54% missed three days of work per month. This can also have negative consequences for the employer.

The Family Violence Prevention Fund reported that 7.9 million days of lost work each year can be attributed to issues related to domestic violence. Consequently, there is an approximate annual loss of \$700 million in productivity (cited in Karamally, 2004). These staggering numbers might make one think that the majority of CEOs would believe their companies should directly address domestic violence. While most CEOs generally believe that domestic violence is a “social issue” and “labor problem,” they do not necessarily believe that companies should play a major role in addressing domestic violence (Randel and Wells, 2003). A 2002 survey conducted by the company Liz Claiborne found that 66% of corporate leaders believed that domestic violence was a social problem and 68% believed that domestic violence adversely affected their financial performance, yet only 12% believed that companies should play a major role in addressing domestic violence in the workplace. The National Safe Workplace Institute conducted a survey of corporate security directors and found that 94% of security directors reported domestic violence as being a serious security problem. Furthermore, 90% of these corporate security directors reported that their departments had experienced approximately three cases of men stalking women at the workplace, and 29% had experienced women stalking men. Interestingly, 78% of the security directors reported that restraining orders were not effective in

preventing stalking (cited in Smith , 1997). Certainly, the different etiological factors and motivations driving stalking behaviors will be harder to deter than others, but this does not mean that a restraining order should not be sought out. Whatever efficacy a restraining order has in deterring one stalker vis-à-vis another, the employer who proactively obtains a restraining order for his or her employee is not only adding another layer of possible security, but is also building a defense in the event of future civil litigation (Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

Stalking at the workplace can also prove to be consequential for women who are suffering violence at the hands of their current or former intimate partner. The National Center for Injury Prevention and Control conducted The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey and found that an estimated 12.7 million women had been stalked by an intimate partner in their lifetime (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2010). Of this number, approximately 3.3 million women reported that they were stalked by an intimate partner in the 12 months before participating in the survey. In addition to this, it was found that 64.8% of women experienced a current or former intimate partner showing up at their place of employment, home, or school. Furthermore, three-quarters of the women who reported stalking behaviors by an intimate partner received unsolicited or unwanted telephone calls or text messages. Baum *et al.* (2009) also found in their study that 66.2% of stalking victims received some type of unwanted electronic communication, such as phone calls and e-mails. In this same study, 21.5% of stalking victims were stalked by a former intimate partner, and 8.8% were stalked by a current intimate partner (Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

CHAPTER 3 DATA AND METDODS

This paper uses data from The National Violent Death Reporting System (NVDRS). The NVDRS is sponsored and funded by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. NVDRS data in this study was obtained from the Interuniversity Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR) website. NVDRS data used in this study was available for the years 2003, 2004, and 2005. The NVDRS is an incident-based system that collects data on violent deaths; for example, murder, suicide, and legal intervention.

Legal intervention would involve a law enforcement officer killing a suspect. The NVDRS also collects information regarding the victim-perpetrator relationship and the location of the incident. The NVDRS collects its data from a variety of sources which include death certificates, medical examiner records, police reports, crime lab data, and child fatality review records. Information obtained in the 2003 data was collected from 7 states, information obtained in 2004 data was collected from 13 states, and information obtained in the 2005 data was collected from 16 states. The NVDRS consists of three separate data files: (1) incidents data; (2) deaths data; and (3) suspects data. However, because of confidentiality issues, the ability to combine the three files together is not allowed.

Because of this limitation to link the data, I used the deaths data for my analysis because it contained variables which allowed me to address the research questions. For example, this data set contained information on the victim to suspect relationship and whether or not the location of the incident occurred at the workplace. For my purposes, I grouped the suspect to victim relationship into three categories: intimate partner, stranger, and other relationship. Other relationship includes all relationships other than an intimate partner or stranger (i.e., friend,

mother, father, brother, sister). I was also able to examine the location of the incident in terms of whether the homicidal incident did or did not occur at the workplace.

The Independent Variables

In this paper I used six independent variables with one interaction term: female, age, white, married, college degree, killed at work, and female*killed at work. Female was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual was not a female and 1 if an individual was a female. Age was also recoded but I recoded it into an ordinal variable. The values of this variable ranged from age 0 to age 75 and over. For example, respondents from the ages of 0-14 were coded as 1, respondents from the ages of 15-19 were coded as 2, and respondents from the ages of 20-24 were coded as 3 and so on and so forth. White was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual was not white and 1 if an individual was white. Black was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual was not black and 1 if an individual was black. Hispanic was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual was not Hispanic and 1 if an individual was Hispanic. Married was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual was not married and 1 if an individual was married. College degree was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual did not have a college degree and 1 if an individual did have a college degree. murdered at work was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if an individual was not murdered at work and 1 if an individual was murdered at work. Finally, the seventh variable was an interaction between female and killed at work.

The Dependent Variables

There are a total of three dependent variables that I used in this study: intimate partner, stranger, and other relationship. Intimate partner was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if

the suspect was not a victim's intimate partner and 1 if the suspect was a victim's intimate partner. Stranger was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if the suspect was not a stranger to the victim and 1 if the suspect was a stranger to the victim. Other person was coded into a dummy variable by coding 0 if the suspect to victim relationship was not an other relationship and 1 if the suspect to victim relationship was an other relationship. It should be noted again that other relationships include mother, father, son, daughter, and friend or acquaintance.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses in this study are primarily based on three variables: female, murdered at work, and suspect to victim relationship. Four hypotheses are central to this study:

- Hypothesis 1: Individuals will be more likely to be murdered at work by a stranger.
- Hypothesis 2: Individuals will be less likely to be murdered at work by a spouse.
- Hypothesis 3: Women will be more likely to be murdered at work by a spouse.
- Hypothesis 4: Men will be more likely to be murdered at work by a stranger.

Analytic Strategy

According to DeMaris (1995), logistic regression is the preferred statistical technique when dependent variables are categorical in nature. As was described above, the dependent variable in this study is categorical. However, because the dependent variable is comprised of three categories, the quantitative data will be analyzed using multinomial logistic regression. In general, logistic regression is a more appropriate statistical technique to use when the dependent variable is dichotomous. On the other hand, the ordinary least-squares (OLS) regression statistical technique is more appropriate to use when the dependent variable is continuous.

Using OLS to predict probabilities of a dichotomous or binary variable can be problematic because predicted probabilities in the OLS model can result in values that are less than 0 and greater than 1. Therefore, because probabilities are “bounded” by 0 and 1.0 and can never be less than 0 or greater than 1.0, the OLS model would be inappropriate to use when dealing with categorical or binary variables.

The Models

$$\log \left[\frac{\text{Prob}(y = j)}{\text{Prob}(y = J)} \right] = a + b_j(\text{Female}) + b_j(\text{Age}) + b_j(\text{White}) + b_j(\text{College Degree}) + b_j(\text{ATWORK})$$

$$\log \left[\frac{\text{Prob}(y = j)}{\text{Prob}(y = J)} \right] = a + b_j(\text{Female}) + b_j(\text{Age}) + b_j(\text{White}) + b_j(\text{College Degree}) + b_j(\text{ATWORK}) + b_j(\text{ATWORK} * \text{Female})$$

In equation one, the multinomial logistic regression models the log odds of an individual being in the response categories intimate partner and stranger compared to a reference category of other relationship as a function of the independent variables. In addition to this, the second equation adds an interaction term for atwork and female to determine if the effects of gender vary by crime location. To aid in interpretation, I present odds ratios which were obtained by exponentializing the logit coefficients.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Variables

Variable	CMean/Proportion	SD
Female (1=Yes)	23.3%	-
Age (1=Yes)	6.70	3.40
White (1=Yes)	67.7%	-
Married (1=Yes)	30.2%	-
College Degree (1=Yes)	8.0%	-
Murdered at Work (1=Yes)	1.50%	-
Black (1=Yes)	22.6%	-
Hispanic (1=Yes)	6.6%	-
Spouse (1=Yes)	2.90%	-
Stranger (1=Yes)	2.98%	-
Other Relationship (1=Yes)	93.9%	-

N = 38,484

Table 1 is a presentation of the descriptive statistics in my analysis. Because of the data we are dealing with, it is important to point out that each person in the data represents a deceased individual. Females make up 23.3% or 8,952 of the data. The mean for age is 6.70 and standard deviation is 3.40. Because age is an ordinal variable and has values that range from 1 to 14, 6.70 would be a mean age of approximately 39 years. Whites represent 67.7% of the data. Married individuals represented 30.2% of the data. Individuals who had a college degree represented 8.0% of the data. Individuals who were murdered at their employment represented 1.50% of the data. Blacks make up 22.6% of the data, and the percentage of Hispanics represented in the data is 6.6%. Individuals who were murdered by a spouse represented 3% of the data and individuals who were murdered by a stranger represented approximately 3% of the data. And finally, 93.9% of individuals were murdered by somebody else other than an intimate partner or stranger.

Table 2: Odds Ratios from Multi-Nominal Logistic Regression of Perpetrator Relation on Gender, Place of Crime and Controls

Variable	Model 1		Model 2	
	Intimate Partner	Stranger	Intimate Partner	Stranger
Female	12.895* (.073)	.374* (.110)	12.580* (.074)	.364* (.115)
Age	.982 (.011)	.903* (.012)	.982 (.011)	.903* (.012)
White	.367* (.068)	.378* (.067)	.367* (.068)	.379* (.067)
Married	2.135* (.067)	1.030 (.078)	2.148* (.068)	1.033 (.078)
College Degree	.894 (.117)	1.650* (.107)	.894 (.117)	1.647* (.107)
Murdered at Work	1.384 (.255)	8.655* (.122)	.240 (1.004)	8.241* (.129)
Female*Murdered at Work			8.859* (1.043)	1.503 (.383)

N = 38,484

Notes: * $p \leq .05$

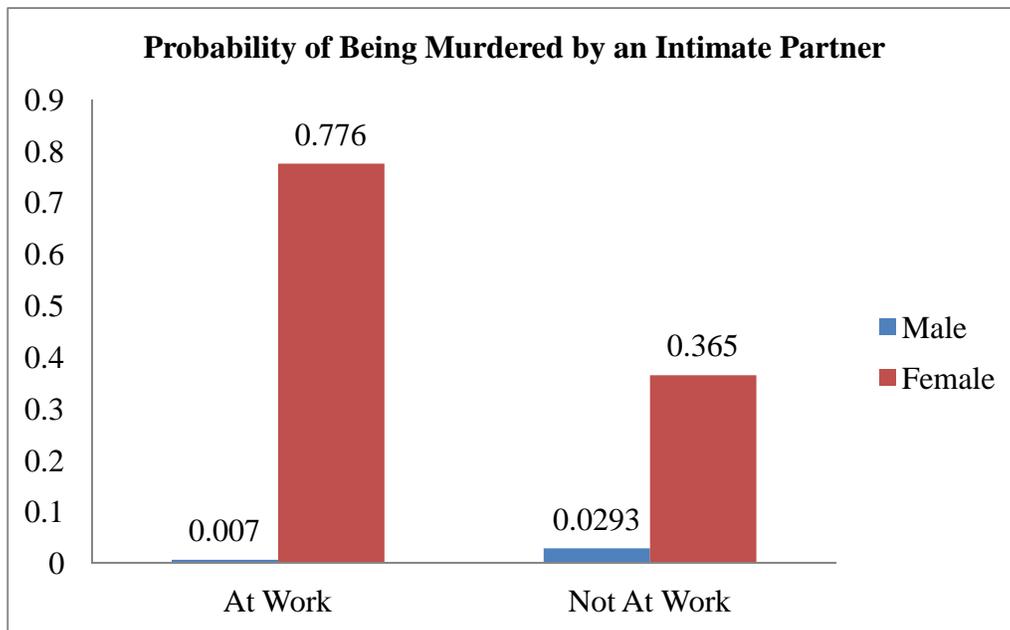
Reference Group is Other Person

Numbers in Parentheses are Standard Errors

A multi-nominal logistic regression is used to determine the odds ratios of perpetrator relation on gender, place of crime, and controls. Model one indicates that females are 1190% more likely to be murdered by an intimate partner compared to all other relationships. However, it is indicated in the same model that females are 63% less likely to be murdered by a stranger compared to the reference group. Indeed, women are at a greater risk of being killed by someone with whom they have an intimate relationship. Age was also found to be significant indicating that younger individuals are less likely to be murdered by a stranger compared to all other relationships. Whites are 63% less likely to be murdered by an intimate partner compared to the

reference group; however, whites are also 62% less likely to be murdered by a stranger compared to all other relationships. Individuals who are married are 114% more likely to be murdered by an intimate partner compared to the reference group. People who have a college degree are 65% more likely to be murdered by a stranger compared to the reference group. And finally, individuals who are murdered at work are 766% more likely to be murdered at work by a stranger compared to all other relationships. This result confirms hypothesis 1, that individuals are more likely to be murdered at work by a stranger. However, murdered at work and intimate partner was not significant (1.384). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported. The interaction term in model 2 will be visually presented in the two graphs below. This interaction term will be used to test hypotheses 3 and 4.

Figure 1



According to figure 1, women who are murdered at work are more likely to be murdered by an intimate partner than women killed in other locations. For example, if you are female and you

are murdered at work, there is a 77.6% chance that you were murdered by an intimate partner. On the other hand, if you are female and you are not murdered at work, there is a 36.5% chance that you were murdered by an intimate partner. However, if you are male and you are killed at work, there is a .7% chance that you were murdered by an intimate partner. And if you are male and you are not murdered at work, there is a 2.93% chance that you were murdered by an intimate partner. Therefore, women are more likely to be murdered by an intimate partner compared to men regardless of the setting. According to these results, hypothesis 3 was confirmed.

Figure 2

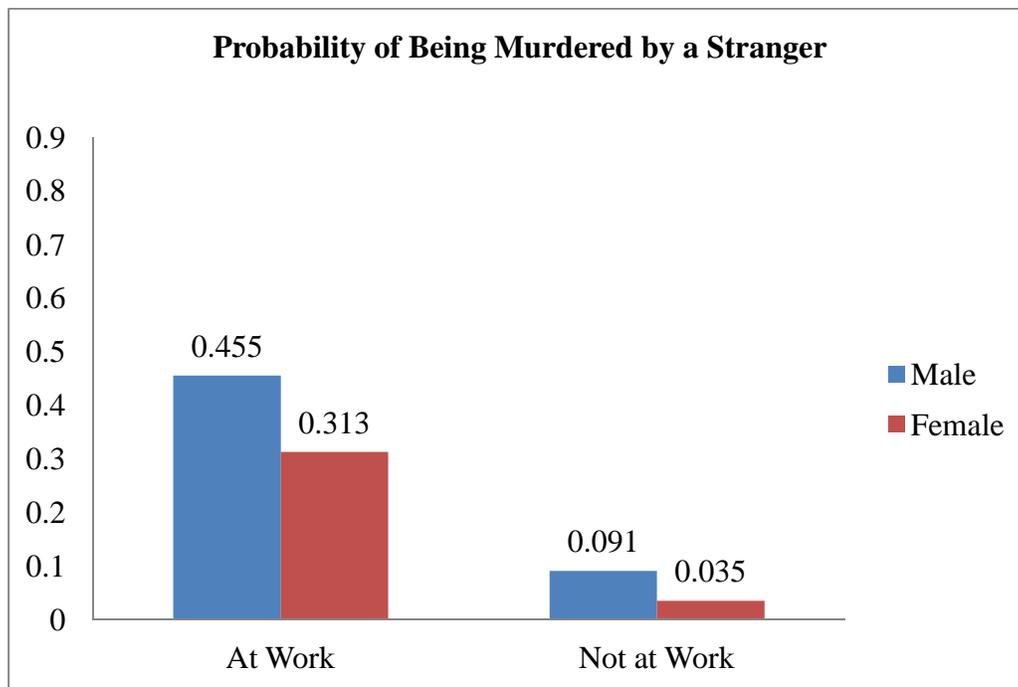


Figure 2 is very similar to figure 1, but instead of women having a higher likelihood of being murdered, men have a higher likelihood. For example, men who are murdered at work are more likely to be murdered by a stranger than men murdered in other locations. Therefore, if you are male and you are murdered at work, there is a 45.5% chance that you were murdered by a

stranger. Conversely, if you are male and you are not murdered at work, there is a 9.1% chance that you were murdered by a stranger. Just as it was shown in figure 1, men are more likely to be murdered by a stranger compared to women regardless of the setting. These results show that hypothesis 4 was confirmed.

CHAPTER 5 PREVENTING THE OCCURANCE OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Because Type IV workplace violence usually involves individuals coming onto an employer's property to carry out acts of violence, an important part of prevention is "target hardening" a facility. By target hardening a property, the security manager can adapt various types of physical security that will make it harder for a perpetrator to gain access to the property (Lee, 2005). To accomplish this, the security manager can utilize Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED). CPTED was influenced by the seminal works of Jeffery (1971) and Newman (1973). Newman's work on "defensible space" served as a catalyst for future developments in CPTED. By way of its design, Newman explained that some environments are intrinsically criminogenic and can be controlled by restructuring the symbiotic relationship between the built environment and human behavior (Kennedy, 1992; Muncie, 2007). In a similar vein, the security manager can use CPTED to deter criminal behavior from occurring on his or her property (Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

There are three basic concepts that a security manager can use to defend his or her space from threats: (1) territoriality; (2) natural surveillance; and (3) image/milieu (Kennedy, 1992). When people feel as if they have a psychological "ownership" in their property, the concept of territoriality tells us that they are more likely to be vigilant in defending their space from being encroached upon. A major idea behind this concept is access control. For example, if a group of condos on a property are defined by clear boundary lines, such as shrubbery and privacy fences, the owners of these properties will be more likely to defend their spaces (Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

With respect to access control at the worksite, the security manager can install fences along the property line, reinforce doors and strengthen locks, implement door controls, improve lighting in parking lots, establish restricted areas, restrict access to the reception area when the receptionist is off duty, install parking gates for the parking garage and/or lot, strategically place blue lights on the property, install electronic access control systems, and close certain areas of the property after hours so security patrols can be more focused (Seivold, 2005). If this real or perceived access control can create a sense of territorial responsibility for the employees, the property will be defended. Likewise, if a potential perpetrator can sense that this property is well defended, he or she will likely reconsider intruding upon the property (Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

A particular goal of access control is to increase the efforts required to successfully commit a crime. As was mentioned above, various types of target hardening can be implemented. However, people can also play an important role in making it harder to commit a crime. Marcus Felson refers to these people as “crime discouragers.” These crime discouragers can be placed into one of three categories: (1) guardians; (2) handlers; and (3) managers. At the worksite, security guards would operate as guardians because they are responsible for monitoring targets on the property. Handlers would also include security guards because they are responsible for monitoring potential offenders. However, employees would easily fit into this category as well. And finally, because of their responsibility to monitor the activities of security guards and the property as a whole, an executive could be considered a place manager (Felson, 1995; Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

The ability of an employee to overlook the property with relative ease, free from physical obstruction, is called natural surveillance. Having clear and direct sightlines to a parking lot

from an office window could very well act as a crime deterrent. This is particularly important because often times an estranged husband or boyfriend will confront his wife or girlfriend in the parking lot. In fact, Fayard (2008) conducted a study that looked at the number of fatalities that occurred in parking lots from 1993-2002. Of the 742 parking lot fatalities that were attributed to homicide, 166 of them involved perpetrators who were known to the victim. Of this number, 61 or 8% involved an intimate partner. This can create a legal dilemma because of the potential grey area that may surround this situation. For example, if an employee is injured or killed in a parking lot right before he or she begins work or right after work has ended, the question may arise as to whether the employee was acting within the scope of his or her employment at the time of the criminal incident. Also, if the perpetrator is circling the parking lot before his or her target arrives, a clear sightline would allow a worker to see him or her, thus possibly preventing any potential act of violence (Kennedy, 1992; Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

By providing the necessary means to address the issue of stalking at the workplace, employers can curtail the stalker's targeted harassment against his or her victim and the business establishment as a whole. There are a number of ways in which an employer can directly assist the victim. As was discussed at length above, employers can assist employees with various legal remedies, such as filing charges with the police or obtaining a restraining order. Employers might also want to designate a "safe place" for an employee in the event an abuser shows up at the workplace. "Panic buttons" can also be supplied as a means of calling for help. Giving an updated photograph to security guards and receptionists can be instrumental in identifying the abuser if he or she tries to gain access to the property. In addition to the photograph, having a copy of the restraining order and knowing the abuser's date of birth and social security number can prove to be crucial if contact needs to be made with law enforcement.

Giving an employee a cellular phone to make emergency calls can also help alert authorities to potential danger. It must be borne in mind that even if a cellular phone does not have regular service with a cellular provider, it can still make emergency calls. As long as any cellular phone is operational, with or without a service plan, calls to 911 can be made. In the event that an abuser has become familiar with an employee's schedule, it might be wise to vary his or her work hours. Also, if an abuser is harassing an employee via telephone or e-mail, changes to his or her phone number, extension, and e-mail address could be made in an attempt to disrupt this form of harassment. Acting proactively by contacting law enforcement for help constitutes another approach. Particularly, asking for law enforcement's help in enforcing a restraining order could make a restraining order more effective. If anything, just making contact with law enforcement could make them familiar with the situation and any future communication with them could be made easier. However, security managers and guards cannot and should not take on the role of a law enforcement entity. A man who is stalking a woman at the workplace is in violation of state stalking statutes and it is the responsibility of the police department to enforce these laws (Moskey, 1996; Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

A policy statement addressing the domestic violence issues can help guide employees' actions when confronted with this problem at the workplace. This type of policy should inform employees that behavior which causes them fear, such as intimidation, harassment, and stalking, is covered in the policy. In other words, the policy should not only address violent behavior that involves physical contact, it should also address harassing behaviors that can be frightening to them. Also, policies that are clearly spelled out will encourage employees to report incidents. Further encouragement will come with policies that are succinct and to the point. More in-depth details can always be provided in supplemental training and meetings. Finally, the policy ought

to be explicit in showing that all reported incidents will be responded to in a prompt and appropriate manner, all reasonable attempts will be made to stop the threats, and those reporting the incidents will have the full support of supervisors and upper management level employees (Seivold, 2005; Savard and Kennedy, 2013).

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Past research on workplace violence has shown that instances of Type I WPV occur at a higher rate than Type IV WPV. When violence escalates to criminal homicide, my model indicates that this is only true for men, and women are more likely to be victims of Type IV WPV. As was mentioned above, similar findings have been discovered. For example, Moracco *et al.* (2000) found that 12 women were killed at work by an intimate partner and 0 men were killed at work by an intimate partner. Other research has also found that men are non-fatally assaulted at a higher rate by strangers at the workplace compared to women. It was reported above in Bachman (1994) that 5% of women were victimized at the workplace by an intimate partner and 1% of men were victimized by an intimate partner. Furthermore, 58% of men were assaulted by a stranger at work and 40% of females were assaulted by a stranger at work. Although my model does not include non-fatal assaults, these results indirectly relate to my findings because women are more likely to be victimized at their employment by an intimate partner than a stranger, even if the victimization is a deadly or non-deadly assault.

The consequences of Type IV WPV can be quite severe for women on a variety of levels. On one hand, a woman's victimization at the workplace by an intimate partner can result in serious physical and psychological damage. On the other hand, a woman can lose her life because of workplace homicide involving an intimate partner. The modern-day employer must understand the threat that domestic violence poses to the workplace. By understanding the nuances of Type IV WPV, employers can potentially thwart acts of intimate partner violence from occurring at the workplace and possibly save lives along the way.

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ABSTRACT**WORKPLACE HOMICIDE: THE THREAT OF STRANGER VIOLENCE AND
INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE IN THE WORKPLACE**

by

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Violence in the workplace has become an important issue for the modern-day security manager. The modern-day employer continually faces a variety of threats that originate from within and beyond the confines of the workplace. As the workforce becomes more diverse, the modern-day employer will face new issues. Increasingly, employers are confronted with instances of intimate partner violence (IPV) at the workplace. The context of such threats creates unique circumstances in terms of how employers should respond. The modern-day employers' responsibility is evolving into areas that were once thought to be beyond the purview of their duties. Having knowledge of the increased risk of IPV associated with women at the workplace, understanding the various practices and policies that help prevent workplace violence, and recognizing the characteristics of the workplace stalker can well serve the modern-day employer when responding to IPV at work.

AUTOBIOGRAPICAL STATEMENT

Dennis ‘Denny’ Savard received his BA in political science from Adrian College and MA degree from the University of Detroit Mercy in criminal justice. Currently, Denny is completing his MA degree in sociology at Wayne State University (WSU) and plans on pursuing his Ph.D. in sociology at WSU as well. He has published in *Security Journal* and has a forthcoming chapter on shopping center security in *Corporate Security in the 21st Century: Theory and Practice in International Perspective*. In addition to his scholarly activities, Denny is Director of Research for Forensic Criminology Associates and a part-time faculty member in Oakland University’s Department of Criminal Justice.