

Bringing Home to Work: Intimate Partner Violence, Perceived Organizational Support, and Outcomes

Authors

Laramie Tolentino, The Australian National U., lara_dlsu@yahoo.com

Simon Lloyd D. Restubog, The Australian National U., simon.restubog@anu.edu.au

Kristin L. Scott, Clemson U., kscott3@clemson.edu

Patrick Raymund M. Garcia, The Australian National U., patrick.garcia@anu.edu.au

Robert L. Tang, De La Salle-College of Saint Benilde, tangr@dls-csb.edu.ph

Submission #14852 accepted for the 2011 Academy of Management Annual Meeting

**BRINGING HOME TO WORK: THE EFFECTS OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE
ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES AND THE MODERATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT**

ABSTRACT

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is recognized as a pervasive social problem. Considerable research has highlighted the psychological and physiological consequences of IPV, yet we know little about how it impacts organizational life. We draw on ecological and spillover theories to explicate the link between IPV and work attitudes and behaviors. Further, drawing on organizational support theory, we posit and empirically test the proposition that perceived organizational support (POS) buffers the negative effects of intimate partner violence on work outcomes. Data collected from 229 working women revealed that IPV was negatively associated with self-reported job satisfaction, supervisor-rated in-role performance, supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behaviors, and supervisor-rated organizational deviance. In addition, POS was found to buffer the effects of intimate partner violence on these work outcomes.

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Intimate partner violence (IPV), defined as a pattern of assaultive behaviors inflicted on intimate partners, is recognized as a pervasive social problem affecting various life domains (e.g., family and work) of the victim. Recent survey data revealed that 5.3 million partner victimizations occur annually in the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2003). A similar high prevalence rate was also observed in Asia and the Pacific Islands, where approximately 41 - 61 % of respondents reported having experienced IPV during their lifetime (Yoshihama & Dabby, 2009). Although IPV is commonly experienced by both men and women, the National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS) reported that nearly 1.3 million assaults against women versus 835,000 perpetration against men occur in a year (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000b). Likewise, more women than men suffer from serious injuries that require medical attention which makes IPV a leading cause of injury among women (Ansara & Hindin, 2005; Rennison & Wenchans, 2000).

While women are clearly more at risk for experiencing IPV, prior research has identified additional victim characteristics (e.g., ethnicity, education, income level, disability) that further increase the likelihood that one will become a target of this form of mistreatment. IPV research has also identified several perpetrator characteristics (e.g., substance abuse, jealousy, employment status, and prior experience of maltreatment), and relationship factors (e.g., cohabitation, type of residence, compatibility) that serve as antecedent conditions of IPV (Brownridge, 2009; Rennison & Welchans, 2000; Taft, Schumm, Marshall, Panuzio,

Holtzworth-Munroe, 2008; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a). Beyond identifying this range of predictors of IPV, researchers have also focused on a number of consequences associated with this experience which revealed that IPV victims are likely to sustain physical injuries ranging from minor and short-term (e.g., bruises, scratches, and welts) to more severe and prolonged harm (e.g., lacerations, disability, internal injuries, and reproductive problems, Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000a). Along similar lines, these physical injuries have accompanying psychological (e.g., post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, fatigue, and depression) and interpersonal (e.g., social withdrawal) consequences that are detrimental to the victim's well-being (Brush, 2000; Plichta, 2004). In sum, this body of research has collectively increased our understanding of risk factors associated with the occurrence of IPV as well as its deleterious effects to the victim.

A growing number of studies suggest that IPV is not solely a personal issue but is also an organizational problem (Moe & Bell, 2004; Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2009; Swanberg, Logan, & Macke, 2005). For instance, the estimated IPV-related organizational direct costs (e.g., illness, death, absenteeism, and turnover), indirect costs (e.g., reduced job satisfaction, morale, commitment, performance, and productivity), and intangible costs (e.g., negative impact on company image, creativity, and working climate) exceeded \$5.8 billion each year (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2003). In addition, organizations incur extensive costs associated with premature termination and legal liability due to negligence of IPV-related workplace risks and concerns (Bowie, Fisher & Cooper, 2005). However, despite progress devoted to understanding the antecedents and consequences of intimate partner violence, we still know relatively little about how IPV impacts on work life. This oversight is critical, as the consequences of IPV are not limited to one specific life domain.

To address this gap in the literature, we draw on ecological and spillover theories (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Crouter, 1984; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 1999) to explicate the link between IPV and organizational work attitudes and behaviors. Further, drawing on organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Hungtington, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986), we posit and empirically test the proposition that perceived organizational support (POS) buffers the negative effects of IPV on these outcomes. By testing these relationships, we make several contributions to the IPV literature. First, extant research on the consequences of IPV were focused predominantly on general proximal physical (e.g., physical injuries and fatigue) and psychological (e.g., PTSD and social withdrawal) outcomes. At present, only a handful of research has explored the attitudinal and behavioral impediments of intimate partner violence in other life domains. Existing preliminary studies on IPV investigated the prevalence of disclosure, impact on some work outcomes (e.g., lowered concentration and minimal interaction with co-workers), and the availability of support in the workplace (Reeves & O’Leary-Kelly, 2009; Swanberg et al., 2006). Although the current literature has generally established the accompanying organizational risks and costs of intimate partner violence, the specific work outcomes and processes involved remains unexhausted. For instance, prior research on IPV-related work consequences has mostly used concentration as a proxy measure of productivity and it overlooked other relevant cognitive, affective, and behavioral indicators (Kelloway, Barling, & Hurrell, 2006). Hence, we seek to examine IPV from an organizational perspective and understand how IPV impacts attitudinal and behavioral outcomes such as job satisfaction, in-role performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and organizational deviance. Moreover, although managers are aware of the negative spillover effects of IPV, they are uncertain of the organization’s role in mitigating or exacerbating these outcomes (O’Leary-

Kelly, Lean, Reeves, & Randel, 2008). To this end, Stamper and Johlke (2003) called for more investigations of organizational moderators to illuminate specific conditions under which negative spillover at work may be prevented or reduced. In response to this call, we contend that organizations play a critical role in addressing IPV and their perceived assistance and interventions may potentially minimize the risks and costs associated with it. Finally, research on IPV has traditionally surveyed women in shelters or women seeking employment (Kelloway et al., 2006). Few studies have surveyed working women despite evidence showing that IPV victims are likely to be employed (Farmer & Tiefenthaler, 2003; O'Leary-Kelly, Lean, Reeves, & Randel, 2008). We take steps in the present study to more fully understand the scope and effects of IPV in work life and to fill these gaps in the literature by obtaining data from a sample of working women across diverse organizations and occupations. In the next section, we discuss the constructs in our proposed model as well as the expected relationships among them.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

As noted earlier, IPV is not simply a domestic concern as its ramifications are likely to traverse from the family system into the workplace. In contrast to traditional assumptions restricting family and work life as separate units, Bronfenbrenner's (1986) ecological model provides an overarching framework that explicates the complex family-work interface. Its emphasis on person-context interaction supports the argument that specific home experiences such as IPV are not exclusively bounded in the family domain but its impact could also traverse to other contexts such as work. Similarly, Crouter's (1984) spillover theory is a domain-specific theory that describes the pattern of transmission from home to work when a person carries over and manifests similar affect and behaviors in various life domains. For instance, the emotional climate caused by perpetration at home can be carried over and trigger negative affect at work.

Thus, the assumption that IPV also impacts work functioning is theoretically grounded from both the ecological model and spillover theory, as these highlight the interaction of various personal and contextual factors that enables multilevel spillover of IPV-related outcomes to the work domain even if the perpetration did not occur within the workplace (Duff, Scott, & O’Leary-Kelly, 2005; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Intimate Partner Violence and Work Outcomes

Intimate partner violence is characterized as a pattern of assaultive behaviors including one or a combination of physical, sexual, psychological, and economic coercion inflicted by either a current or former marital or non-marital partner against intimate partners (Saltzman, Fanslow, McMahon, & Shelley, 2002). Physical abuse includes kicking, punching, or using gun or knife to inflict harm whereas sexual abuse involves coercion to have sexual intercourse such as rape. Similarly, psychological abuse includes intimidation, ridiculing, blaming, and ignoring while economic coercion involves interfering with intimate partner’s ability to sustain a job, use of financial resources, or access to financial support (Moe & Bell, 2004; Sacket & Saunders, 1999; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000b). In this study, we focus on the physical and psychological aspects of IPV because these are the most prominent forms of abuse experienced by women (Sacket & Saunder, 1999; Plichta, 2004). We treat intimate partner violence as a workplace issue given that it not only restricts personal growth, but also serves as a barrier to workforce participation, productivity, and economic growth (Duffy et al., 2005).

The assumption that IPV is also an organizational concern is in congruence with the basic tenets of the ecological model, which reflects reciprocal processes within and across multiple interrelated systems in the person’s environment (e.g., microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem) (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999). The most proximal is the microsystem which

reflects the individual's experiences in a specific context. For this study, the home and work settings are the most relevant microsystems. The interaction between these two microsystems at the mesosystem level provides a general multilevel framework to examine the spillover of IPV in the work domain. To further explicate the IPV-work linkage, Crouter's (1984) spillover theory provides a domain-specific description of the pattern and process involved in the transmission of home to work experiences. It posits that the pattern of spillover depends on the quality of experiences in one domain which traverse when an individual brings and manifests similar affect (e.g., attitude) and behaviors (e.g., performance) in another domain. In the case of IPV and work outcomes, the pattern of spillover is regarded negative because relational dissatisfaction emanating from home hinders functioning at work. For instance, women who have perceived low levels of spousal support and experienced IPV reported more negative spillover, which subsequently undermined their work performance (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2008). The dissatisfaction caused by IPV may also provoke reactive compensation which involves either a reallocation of involvement or pursuit of rewards from home to the work domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Consistent with theoretical and empirical evidence on family-work spillover, we contend that IPV would be negatively related to beneficial work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and in-role performance) and conversely positively associated with organizational deviance. We focus on these outcome variables for several reasons. First, these attitudinal and behavioral work outcomes have been theorized to be more sensitive to familial influences such as IPV (Crouter, 1984). Second, critical for the financial viability of an organization, employee job performance (both in-role and OCBs) has been a widely researched outcome in organizational research (Hackman, 1990). Third, job satisfaction

while demonstrating less direct relationship with an organization's financial viability has been shown to influence employees' motivation, turnover, and absenteeism (Spector, 1997). Finally, we focus on organization deviance because when employees engage in this behavior, organizational performance is severely compromised (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Teams and organizations in which people work affect their feelings, thoughts, and actions both in work and non-work contexts (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Grzywacz & Marks, 1999). Likewise, employees' thoughts, feelings, and actions can affect the organizations and teams in which they work (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994). Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job experiences (Spector, 1997). Given its affective component, moods and emotions while at work including those carried over from home significantly contributes to an employee's overall job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000). Negative affectivity for instance is found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Levin & Stokes, 1989). Specific to IPV, the transmission of dissatisfaction from home to work is explained by the process of emotional generalization which involves the spillover of domain-specific emotions (e.g., home) onto the experiences in another domain such as the workplace (Judge & Ilies, 2004). The family-work spillover theory further asserts that negative emotions (e.g., fear, anger, or sadness) elicited in response to unpleasant familial experiences (e.g., IPV) are not only carried over at work but it also subsequently affect an employee's attitudinal evaluation of job-related experiences (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999). Hence, we predict that the experience of IPV severely influences and produces job dissatisfaction.

Hypothesis 1a: Intimate partner violence is negatively related to job satisfaction

An accumulating body of research suggests that IPV is related to high rates of absenteeism, tardiness, and low mental concentration (Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2009;

Swanberg et al., 2005). The current study extends this further by specifically testing the relationship between IPV and performance-based work outcomes. Employee performance has been classified into two dimensions (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). In-role performance represents work responsibilities reflected in the formal employment contract while OCBs involve discretionary acts demonstrated by employees that are beyond the parameters prescribed in their work role. Employee performance of IPV victims becomes at risk because of the increasing permeability of the family-work interface which escalates the occurrence of spillover (Judge & Ilies, 2004). For instance, psychological outcomes such as low attention span and energy level and mood swings resulting from familial experiences tend to be manifested at work and likely to impair job performance. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) explained the process of mood spillover wherein a domain-specific induced mood (e.g., home) influence a person's general mood which subsequently affect the psychological state in another domain (e.g., work). In particular, negative affect carried over from non-work context inhibits performance in the work context.

Hypothesis 1b: Intimate partner violence is negatively related to in role job performance.

Hypothesis 1c: Intimate partner violence is negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior.

Workplace deviance is generally understood as “voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and threatens the well-being of the organization and its members, or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Results of a typology study suggest two dimensions of workplace deviance which may vary depending on the severity (e.g., minor or serious) and target (e.g., interpersonal to organizational) of deviant behavior. In addition, four categories namely production deviance, property deviance, political deviance, and personal

aggression fall under these dimensions (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The current paper focuses on organizational deviance - particularly production and property deviance because the workplace provides IPV victims freedom and unlimited access to helpful resources (e.g., telephone and internet) that are either unavailable or prohibited at home. As a result of IPV-related constraints, women who are prevented from expressing their emotions, using resources, or seeking support at home may instead retaliate at work. Reactive compensation theory likewise postulates that dissatisfaction in one setting provokes an individual to intentionally reallocate involvement and seek alternative rewards in another setting (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). In accord with this theory, we argue that IPV victims will respond to excessive negative experiences at home by pursuing rewarding activities at work in order to offset discontentment with family life. For instance, IPV victims manifests organizational deviance by engaging in production deviance (e.g., withholding job effort and presentism) and property deviance (e.g., unofficial use of work time and resources) with the intention of reaching agencies (e.g., shelters, doctors, or lawyers) for support when at work (Ruckelshaus, 1996). Hence, we expect that the experience of IPV will increase the incidence of organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 1d: Intimate partner violence is positively related to organizational deviance.

Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support

While the spillover effects of IPV into the workplace are likely to be associated with a variety of negative employee outcomes, we further argue that organizations are able to mitigate these deleterious effects by engendering a supportive work climate. In particular, we argue that employee perceptions of organizational support (POS) moderate the relationship between IPV and employee work attitudes and behaviors. Related research on social support suggests that the receipt of support from others or the perception that support is readily available act as protective

factors that enable individuals to cope with multiple contextual stressors (Cohen & Wills, 1985). More specifically, the organizational support theory (OST) suggests that employees form expectancies of support based on the degree to which the organization displays valuation of improved performance and concern for their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Early research on family-work interface has recognized the potential of employer-based support (e.g., flexible working schedule) in enhancing work performance, commitment, and satisfaction and conversely reducing the outcomes of negative spillover (Crouter, 1984). In a meta-analytic study, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that POS is linked with various positive work attitudes and behaviors such as affective commitment, in-role and extra-role performance, job satisfaction, and positive mood. Based on previous findings, we conceive of POS as a viable source of support for employees because it is likely to provide aid, affect, and affirmation (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). In particular, victims employed in companies who responded in a supportive manner by providing both tangible and intangible aid (e.g., IPV employee assistance programs) reported higher levels of POS which subsequently cultivated secondary positive work outcomes (e.g., trust, loyalty, and commitment) (Kelloway, Bailing, & Hurrell, 2002). Moreover, a study on resource utilization in the workplace shows that availability and use of organizational support leads to relationship termination and successful coping whereas the lack of it forces victims to remain in the abusive relationship among IPV victims (Horton & Johnson, 1993; Raghavan, Swan, Snow, & Mazure, 2005).

There is substantial theoretical and empirical evidence supporting the buffering effect of POS in stressor-strain relationships (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Several lines of reasoning point to this pattern of relationship. First, social support related research shows that individuals deprived of belongingness from their intimate relationship derive

more support from alternative sources such as the workplace. Similarly, organizational support theory predicts that employees with strong socio-emotional needs such as IPV victims may place more value on POS and expect their organizations to fulfill these needs and show care for their well-being. Provisions given during critical events and which are specific to an employee's needs contribute more significantly to POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). For example, high levels of POS are expected from IPV victims who are immediately provided tangible or psychological aid in the workplace. In line with this reasoning, we argue that POS is likely to attenuate the IPV- work outcomes relationships.

Second, consistent with the stress buffering hypothesis which highlights the protective effect of social support, IPV victims with high POS are predicted to be more satisfied with work as opposed to those with low POS (Cohen & Wills, 1985). At the same time, IPV victims who perceive their organization as supportive are expected to perform job functions effectively and display increased volunteerism to contribute in their organization. Hence, victims with high POS will likely refrain from engaging in organizational deviant behaviors. Based on theory, we offer the following predictions:

Hypothesis 2a: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between intimate partner violence and job satisfaction such that intimate partner violence and job satisfaction will be more negatively related when the employees' perceived organizational support is low as opposed to when it is high.

Hypothesis 2b: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between intimate partner violence and in role performance such that intimate partner violence in role performance will be more negatively related when the employees' perceived organizational support is low as opposed to when it is high.

Hypothesis 2c: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between intimate partner violence and organizational citizenship behavior such that intimate partner violence and organizational citizenship behavior will be more negatively related when the employees' perceived organizational support is low as opposed to when it is high.

Hypothesis 2d: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between intimate partner violence and organizational deviance such that intimate partner violence and organizational deviance will be more positively related when the employees' perceived organizational support is low as opposed to when it is high.

In summary, the current paper addresses a critical area of family-work interface research that requires further investigation. Using the ecological model as an overarching framework, we examine the interactive relationships between IPV and POS in predicting multiple work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, in-role performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational deviance)

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

To test the hypothesized relationships, we conducted a field study in which we surveyed 500 working women who were employed full-time in various positions across eight organizations comprised of banking (n=3), retail (n=2), manufacturing (n=2), and hotel (n=1). Survey kits were sent directly through the employees' employment address through employee union representatives. Each employee worked at one of the eight organizations located in the central business district in Manila. The survey kit contained a letter from the union representatives indicating the nature of the research ensuring confidentiality of responses and a survey questionnaire and a postage-paid envelope. Participants were also provided a brief

questionnaire for the immediate supervisor to complete containing questions about the participants' work behaviors. In order to match the employee survey with the supervisor questionnaire, participants created a unique code identifier, in which they indicated the first two letters of their mother's first name, the last two letters of their father's first name, and the year of their birth. All surveys were returned directly to the research team, by both participants and the raters of those participants using the reply postage-paid envelope/s that were provided. Of the initial pool of participants surveyed, 270 individuals returned completed surveys yielding a response rate of 54%. In addition, 236 supervisor questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 47.2%. After the deletion of surveys with a) no code identifiers, b) a huge number of missing cases, and c) without a matched supervisor questionnaire, we were left with a final sample of 229 matched supervisor-subordinate dyads.

The average age of the participants who completed the employee surveys was 35.41 years. The average tenure with the organization was 7.72 years. In terms of employment status, a large majority of the participants were permanent (80.8%), while a few were probationary (8.3%), contractual (4.4%), and casual (6.1%), while .4% did not report their employment status. A large proportion of the participants have university degrees (83%). Modal gross income was PhP 20001 to 30000 per month (equivalent to US\$445 – 670 per month). Participants' job classifications varied considerably, with 20.5% in marketing and sales, 18.3% in accounting and finance, 15.3% in customer service, 14% in general management, secretarial, and administration, 12.2% in advertising, media and public relations, 11.4% in manufacturing, engineering, and production, and 8.3% in information and systems technology. All participants were married and living with their partner/spouse. Average years of marriage were 8.66 years and average number of children was 1.22.

Measures

Established scales were used to measure the study variables. Questionnaires were prepared in English because this language is spoken by a vast majority of the Filipino population (Bernardo, 2004). Unless otherwise specified, a seven-point Likert was used to assess the substantive variables (1= strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree), with items coded such that a higher score represented a greater amount of the focal construct, with the exception of reverse-coded items.

Intimate Partner Violence. IPV was measured using the psychological aggression and physical assault subscales of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Strauss, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996). The CTS2 scales shows high internal consistency reliability ranging from .79 to .95 (Strauss et al., 1996). Validity of the measure has been well established (e.g., correlations between spousal ratings of husband's violence = .65 or 77% for husband's violence and 80% for wife's violence, Strauss, 1990). Employees were asked to rate the extent to which their partner/spouse exhibited violent behaviors towards them in the past year (0 = *this has never happened* to 7 = *more than 20 times*). Sample items include, "My partner/spouse shouted at me", "My partner/spouse insulted or swore at me", "My partner/spouse kicked, bit, or punched me", and "My partner/spouse slammed me against the wall". In this sample, Cronbach's alpha was .92.

Perceived Organizational Support. POS was measured using the eight-items from the scale developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (2001). Sample items from the scale include: "My organization shows concern for me", "Help is available from my organization when I have a problem", and "My organization really cares about my well-being." In this sample, Cronbach's alpha was .97.

Supervisor-rated in-role performance. Supervisors were asked to rate the in-role performance of their employees using the four items derived from the scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Example items include, “This employee meets formal requirements of his/her job” and “This employee fulfils responsibilities specified in his/her job description”. In this sample, Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .96.

Supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behaviors. Supervisors were asked to rate the extent to which their employees engage in behaviors which are beneficial to both their organization and colleagues. We used the 20-item scale developed by Podsakoff and colleagues (2000). Example items include, “This employee helps others who have heavy workloads”, “This employee consults other individuals who might be affected by his/her actions or decisions”, “This employees keeps up with the developments in the company”. In this sample, Cronbach’s alpha was .90.

Supervisor-rated organizational deviance. The majority of research in workplace deviance utilized self-report measures from a single source (Penney and Spector, 2005). However, due to the sensitive nature of deviant behaviors, self-report measures of deviance may result in underreporting of responses or common method variance (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). In order to address these issues, we followed Spector and Fox’s (2002) approach to collect workplace deviance data from a different source (i.e., supervisor ratings). Supervisors were requested to rate the extent to which their employees had engaged in workplace deviance directed to the organization. We used 5-items from the scale derived from Aquino, Lewis and Bradfield (1999). Example items include: “This employee worked on a personal matter on the job instead of working for his/her employer” and “This employee left work early without my permission”. In this sample, Cronbach’s alpha was .92

Job Satisfaction. To measure employees' job satisfaction, we used a 3-item global scale developed by Cammann and colleagues (1983). We asked employees to rate the extent to which they are satisfied with their job. Items include: "I am satisfied with my job", "In general, I like my job", and "In general, I like working in this organization." In this sample, Cronbach's alpha was .93.

Control Variables. Consistent with previous research (Jewkes, 2002; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980; Thompson et al., 2006), we included several control variables in order to rule out alternative explanations to our findings. First, we controlled for employee levels of neuroticism as it has been found to influence individual's reactivity to stressful events (Bolger & Schilling, 1991) and work-related outcomes (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). We used the 7-item semantic differential scale developed by Goldberg (1992). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .92. Second, we controlled for employee's educational attainment, tenure, and employment status (e.g., permanent, probationary, casual or contractual employment) because these variables can serve as an indication of economic autonomy and social empowerment which has been found to minimize the likelihood of IPV (Jewkes, 2002). Third, we controlled for employee's age (Jewkes, 2002), number of children (Straus et al., 1980) and number of years married (Wiersma, Cleveland, Herrera, & Fischer, 2010) because these can be indicators of low bargaining strength or less autonomy and power (i.e., younger women with children who have been married for a longer time) (Jones & Ferguson, 2009). Finally, we controlled for the employees' partner's employment status because research evidence suggest that women with unemployed spouses are at higher risk of experiencing IPV (Stith & McMonigle, 2009).

Results

Descriptive statistics, inter-correlations, and reliability coefficients for all study variables are summarized in Table 1. Reliability coefficients of the scales were acceptable, with alpha values ranging from .90 to .97. Zero-order correlations were generally low to moderate and multi-collinearity was not a threat to the stability of the regression analyses reported below (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1996). To test the hypothesized predictions, we conducted a series of hierarchical multiple regression analysis to assess the incremental explanatory power of variables in each block. In line with Aiken and West's (1991) guidelines for moderated regression, the predictor variables were mean centered before creating interaction terms. Control variables were entered in Step 1. The independent (intimate partner violence) and moderator variables (POS) were entered in Step 2, respectively, to test for main effects, followed by the interaction terms in Step 3.

****Insert Table 1 here****

Hypotheses 1a to 1d examined the impact of women's experience of intimate partner violence on supervisor-rated in-role performance, supervisor-rated OCBs, supervisor-rated organizational deviance, and self-reported job satisfaction. The results of these analyses are reported in Tables 2 and 3. In general, the results provided empirical support for Hypotheses 1a to 1d. Specifically, the amount of additional variance explained was 19% in the equation predicting supervisor-rated in-role performance; 21% in the equation predicting supervisor-rated OCBs, 6% in the equation predicting supervisor-rated organizational deviance, and 30% in the equation predicting self-reported job satisfaction. Specifically, intimate partner violence was found to be negatively related to supervisor-rated in-role performance ($\beta = -.28, p < .001$), supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = -.26, p < .001$), and self-reported job

satisfaction ($\beta = -.17, p < .01$) and positively related to supervisor-rated organizational deviance ($\beta = .28, p < .001$).

****Insert Tables 2 and 3 here****

Hypotheses 2a to 2d examined the moderating role of POS in the relationship between IPV and work outcomes. As can be observed in Tables 2 and 3, entry of the two-way interaction term (intimate partner violence x perceived organizational support) explained a significant amount of variance in supervisor rated in-role performance, $\Delta R^2 = .09, F(1, 208) = 11.58$, supervisor-rated OCBs, $\Delta R^2 = .03, F(1, 208) = 11.31$, supervisor-rated organizational deviance, $\Delta R^2 = .02, F(1, 208) = 7.37$, and self-reported job satisfaction, $\Delta R^2 = .06, F(1, 208) = 24.12$, over and above the contribution of the main effects. Information from the regression equations were extracted to plot the effects of intimate partner violence on these work-related outcomes at low and high levels of perceived organizational support. Figure 1, 2, and 4 suggests that at low levels of perceived organizational support, there was a stronger negative relationship between women's experience of intimate partner violence and in-role performance, $t(217) = -6.30, p < .001$, OCBs $t(217) = -5.09, p < .001$, and job satisfaction, $t(217) = -3.40, p < .001$. However, at high levels of perceived organizational support the relationship between intimate partner violence and in-role performance, $t(217) = 1.88, ns$, OCBs, $t(217) = -.07, ns$, and job satisfaction, $t(217) = 1.82, ns$ was non-significant. In addition, Figure 3 suggests that at low levels of perceived organizational support there was a stronger positive relationship between intimate partner violence and workplace deviance, $t(217) = 4.79, p < .001$. In contrast, at high levels of perceived organizational support the positive association between intimate partner violence and workplace deviance was non-significant $t(217) = .77, ns$. Overall, Hypotheses 2a to 2d were supported.

****Insert figures 1,2,3, and 4 here****

DISCUSSION

In this paper, we attempted to assess the extent of IPV spillover by examining a broader range of work outcomes that includes affective (e.g., job satisfaction) and behavioral (e.g., in-role performance, OCBs, and organizational deviance) indicators. Moreover, the results of the revealed noteworthy findings that addressed existing gaps in the IPV-work link literature. The main findings of this study took into account the direct relationship between IPV and multiple work outcomes. As predicted, IPV was negatively associated with beneficial work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, in-role performance, and OCBs) and positively related to organizational deviance. Second, the buffering effect of POS was also empirically tested to determine conditions that minimize the risk of negative spillover. The interactive effect suggests that high levels of POS significantly buffer the harmful effects of IPV on work outcomes whereas low levels strengthen its negative impact. Finally, the convergence of these findings with existing literature as well as its significant theoretical and practical contributions will be discussed in the subsequent sections.

Patterns of Results and Theoretical Implications

A substantial body of research has well accounted for IPV's increasing prevalence, range of predictors, and general consequences on victim's overall well-being (Brownridge, 2009; Plichta, 2004; Rennsion & Welchans, 2000; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000b). The alarming pervasiveness of IPV brought about an increased awareness of and interest in examining its potential impact and document the associated risks and costs in various life domains. For instance, a handful of management researches have attempted to theorize and empirically test the radiating impact of IPV in the workplace (Duffy et al., 2005; Moe & Bell, 2004; Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2009; Swanberg et al., 2005). These studies have documented the increasing

rates of absenteeism, tardiness, low productivity, and turnover among employed IPV victims and have offered practical suggestions as to how organizations could minimize the associated costs. In spite of this progress, we still know relatively little about the mechanisms involved in IPV-work spillover. Further empirical evidence that will elucidate the multilevel influence of partner abuse and the specific conditions under which it could be mitigated are necessary to prevent its worsening impact on organizational life.

To address this current gap in the literature, the present study builds on prior research on family-work spillover using the ecological model as an overarching framework. The model generally illustrates how multilevel processes of proximal as well as distal systems contribute to a person's development (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). Analysis of the person-context interaction provides insight on IPV victim's response to perpetration in various life domains (Lindhorst & Tajima, 2008). But unlike much of the preliminary research that examined limited domain-specific proximal consequences, our study constitutes an attempt to further investigate the family-work link by testing the relationship between IPV and multiple attitudinal and behavioral work outcomes.

The main effect results reveal the pattern of IPV-work interaction which is indicative of a negative spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 1999). As hypothesized, employees who experienced IPV reported low job satisfaction. They similarly obtained low supervisor ratings of in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior and oppositely high ratings of organizational deviance. These findings are robust in light of the control variables (e.g., neuroticism, educational attainment, tenure, employment status, age, number of children, years married, and partner employment status) that were used in this study. Our results demonstrate that attitudinal and performance-based work outcomes are susceptible to distress caused by

partner abuse. Negative spillover is manifested when IPV generated emotions are generalized and carried over to the workplace (Judge & Ilies, 2004). As predicted, IPV is detrimental to performance-based outcomes and pose a direct threat to an organization's financial viability. Low in-role performance and OCB is likely to be manifested given that consequences of IPV evidently impair physical and psychological well-being and prevent employed victims to perform job functions efficiently. For instance, negative affect resulting from partner abuse is theorized to spillover to work and lower performance (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Moreover, the present result on job satisfaction suggests that transmitted feelings of relationship dissatisfaction alter emotional state at work and lower positive appraisal of one's job. Although job satisfaction compared to employee performance does not directly impact company profit, it still warrants attention given its influence on employee motivation, absenteeism, and turnover all of which presents impending organizational costs (Spector, 1997). Lastly, surveyed supervisors reported higher instances of organizational deviance among employed IPV victims. In accord with reactive compensation theory, organizational deviance is demonstrated as a form of retaliation through pursuit of rewards from the constraints imposed by perpetrators at home (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Likewise, we infer that employee's engagement in organizational deviance centers on the intention to use company resources to cope and seek support from partner abuse (Ruckelshaus, 1996). This inference justifies the significance of available IPV workplace support as also a form of deviance prevention strategy.

Our findings affirm existing empirical evidences (Moe & Bell, 2004; Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007) that demonstrate associations between IPV and negative work outcomes, putting forward partner abuse not only as a pervasive domestic issue but also as a serious organizational concern. As evidenced by prior research, IPV-related concerns emanating from home are

expected to infiltrate and eventually influence organizational life even if the perpetration occurs outside of work (Reeves & O’Leary-Kelly, 2009; Swanberg, Macke, & Logan, 2006). Our findings confirm the increasing permeability of the boundaries between family and work life which likewise show that employees do bring along personal problems to work in addition to their skills and abilities. The family-work spillover theory lends strong support to these inferences (Crouter, 1984). Taken together, the main effect results suggests that IPV prevents employees’ ability to control deviant behaviors, possess positive work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction) and carry out valuable behaviors (e.g., in-role performance and OCBs) imperative for organizational stability and productivity.

One implication that is apparent from the main effect findings is that IPV spillover is associated with multiple negative work outcomes detrimental to both employee and organizational well-being. The IPV literature has documented managers’ awareness of these consequences at the same time their uncertainty about the organization’s role in alleviating its negative impact (O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2008). Given this presenting organizational concern, we sought to determine how specific work conditions might mitigate family-work negative spillover. One of the unique contributions of this study is its attempt to explore not only the outcomes of IPV spillover but also to determine conditions that underscore the active role of the organization in mitigating IPV outcomes. Social support literature has established its significant a supportive environment’s protective effect and coping value but majority of IPV-related studies focused on non-work contexts and sources of support (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Previous research that explored the work context and potential of employer-based supports (e.g., flexible working schedule) also found similar positive outcomes such as its enhancing effect on job attitudes and performance (Crouter, 1984). Correspondingly, a meta-analysis of POS-related studies revealed

that employee perceptions of the extent to which organizations show care and valuation of their personal and professional well-being are as important as the availability of tangible workplace support. Although predictors of POS are well examined, there are limited empirical attempts to explore its interactive effect (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The present study aimed to address this gap and build on prior research that examined outcomes associated with workplace support by attempting to empirically test the buffering effect of POS between IPV and work outcomes. This is likewise in response to Stamper and Johlke's (2003) call to investigate specific organizational moderators in order to expand the POS literature.

As hypothesized, POS moderated the relationship between IPV and work outcomes. Employed IPV victims who felt supported by their organization reported higher job satisfaction. They likewise obtained high supervisor ratings of in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior and oppositely low ratings of organizational deviance. As explained through our hypothesized arguments based on organizational support theory, POS attenuates the negative relationship between IPV and beneficial work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, OCBs, and in-role performance). These findings are congruent with evidences suggesting POS' strong relationship with positive work outcomes. Conversely, POS reduces the positive relationship between IPV and organizational deviance. As suggested earlier, perceived support from the working environment lowers employees' deviant behavior. In the case of IPV, high POS satisfies the employees' intention to compensate and seek rewards and diverts them from doing deviant acts. We infer that POS may not only lessen the impact of negative spillover but more importantly it could also equip employees with beneficial work attitudes and behaviors critical to job maintenance. Employed IPV victims ability to sustain employment facilitates economic independence and self-reliance which are important predictors of abusive relationship

termination (Jewkes, 2002; Raghavan et al., 2005). Taken together, our findings show that POS has an empowering value for employed IPV victims as it buffers the negative spillover of partner abuse to the workplace. In line with the ecological model, it also further strengthens the reciprocal link between family and work contexts. Thus, organizations should also treat IPV as a serious organizational concern by taking initiatives to create a supportive working environment for victimized employees.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There are a number of limitations that should be noted in light of the present findings. First, the cross-sectional nature of the study only captured the associations between IPV and work outcomes. It does not permit inferences about causality because temporal factors were not included in the current investigation. Longitudinal research designs are recommended to further build causal relationships related to IPV and other work outcomes (e.g., job stability). A second limitation is the restricted generalizability of results given that the sample we used were mainly employed women who experienced IPV. Limiting the current sample to the working population is called for to fully examine the extent of IPV spillover in the work context. Although beyond the scope of the present study, future research could conduct comparative studies across various samples of IPV victims (e.g., working and non-working groups) in order to understand more fully the nature of their vulnerability as well as to determine how contextual variables (e.g., job condition) may provide resources essential for coping. Finally, we only accounted for one form of workplace support, specifically the moderating role of POS, because empirical evidence suggests that POS compared with co-worker support is more influential to IPV victim's overall well-being (Reeves & O'Leary, 2009). Given that the form of support reported is based on

perceptions, implications provided in the present study do not apply to actual organizational support.

Despite these limitations, this study offers relevant practical implications to organizations. The current results generally suggest that IPV is a workplace issue that warrants serious attention from organizational agents. However, employers sometimes respond to IPV by terminating the victim which consequently exacerbates the harmful effects of abuse (Kelloway et al., 2006). As shown in the findings, high POS results in increased productivity and economic savings. Perceived organizational support specifically reaps benefits by enhancing job satisfaction, OCBs, and in-role performance as well as reducing organizational deviance. Hence, companies must instead invest in workplace interventions that help IPV victims maintain employment. The availability of workplace interventions increase signals of organizational support which consequently reduces negative spillover. This evidence clarifies the role uncertainty among managers and underscores the significant contribution of organizations in addressing IPV. In line with previous research, the present findings calls for the establishment of specific policies and on-going programs that prevents, protects, and assists IPV victims in the workplace (Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2009; Swanberg et al., 2005). Organizational assistance may include formal (e.g., flexibility of work location and schedule) as well as informal (e.g., providing a listening ear) support for employed IPV victims. Correspondingly, we strongly suggest that organizations promote recognition of IPV risks among employees, supervisors, human resource and security personnel through on-going educational training and campaigns about the nature and outcomes of partner abuse. It is advisable that training programs also include discussion of organizational procedures in terms detecting symptoms, handling disclosure, securing confidentiality, and equipping victims with coping strategies because

awareness of available workplace resources and POS increases the likelihood of disclosure among victims (Duffy et al., 2005). Written policies that clarify provisions for employed IPV victims should likewise be accessible to employees. These interventions will increase resource utilization which is found to be an important aspect of abusive relationship termination (Horton & Johnson, 1993; Raghavan et al., 2005). The promotion of these supportive measures equally benefits the employees' and the organization's well-being.

We have shown that personal concerns (e.g., IPV) emanating from home could traverse in the work setting and produce similar harmful consequences. Although this initial attempt to investigate a broader range of work outcomes is promising, further empirical studies on other behavioral outcomes are necessary to fully understand the impact of partner abuse on organizational life. It is also noteworthy to explore non-victim (e.g., co-workers and supervisors) work attitudes and behaviors toward IPV victims. For instance, future research may look into employed IPV victims' susceptibility to be targets of abusive supervision or exclusion from co-workers due to their potential negative work outcomes (e.g., poor attitude, work withdrawal, or deviance) and the stigma associated with it. Lastly, the empirical evidence demonstrating the substantial economic costs associated with partner abuse warrants an investigation of organizational mechanisms that may mitigate IPV-related problems and promote job maintenance. A comparative evaluation of existing IPV organizational interventions may provide preventive insights that will aid companies to design responsive programs that accommodate employee and organizational needs.

In conclusion, we extended the management literature on negative family-work spillover by examining the relationship between IPV and multiple work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, OCBs, in-role performance, and organizational deviance). These findings has undoubtedly

established the interrelatedness of the family and work domains. In response to existing research gaps, the study also provided empirical evidence for the moderating effects of POS. We have demonstrated that high level of POS attenuates the negative impact of IPV on work life. More importantly, we have highlighted the critical role of the organization as a viable and significant source of support for IPV victims.

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Table 1. Means, standard deviations (SD), and inter-correlations for the study variables

	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	35.41	8.75														
2. Tenure	7.72	7.35	.76**													
3. Employee status	1.36	.83	-.04	-.16*												
4. Educational attainment	1.95	.40	.13*	.03	.06											
5. No. of years married	8.66	7.88	.76**	.75**	-.27**	.11										
6. No. of children	1.22	.42	-.34**	-.26**	.02	-.20**	-.40**									
7. Employment status of husband	1.20	.52	.10	.20**	-.07	-.06	.08	-.10								
8. Employee neuroticism	2.97	1.29	-.11	.05	.03	-.12	.08	.04	.02	.92						
9. Intimate Partner Violence	.80	1.00	-.05	-.08	-.15*	-.15*	.14*	-.14*	-.13*	.22**	(.92)					
10. Perceived organizational support	5.37	1.19	.23**	.16*	-.09	.17*	.22**	-.24**	.07	-.36**	-.19**	(.97)				
11. Supervisor-rated in-role performance	5.72	1.09	.16*	.16*	-.01	.14*	.11	-.02	.15*	-.19**	-.35**	.42**	(.96)			
12. Supervisor-rated OCB	5.33	.97	.20**	.23**	-.17*	.11	.20**	-.05	.12	-.18**	-.32**	.48**	.79**	(.90)		
13. Supervisor-rated organizational deviance	1.73	1.15	-.12	-.07	-.12	-.09	.06	-.05	-.02	.38**	.40**	-.19**	-.37**	-.42**	(.92)	
14. Job satisfaction	5.81	1.16	.29**	.22**	-.06	.03	.23**	-.24**	.14*	-.27**	-.25**	.65**	.49**	.47**	-.30**	(.93)

Table 2. Results of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for Supervisor-rated In-role Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Steps/Variables	Supervisor-rated In-role Performance			Supervisor-rated OCB		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
<i>Control variables:</i>						
Age	-.01	-.02	.06	-.01	-.02	.02
Tenure	.14	.04	.07	.17	.08	.09
Employee status	.04	.01	-.05	-.12	-.14	-.17**
Educational attainment	.14*	.06	.06	.10	.01	.01
No. of years married	.07	.10	.02	.09	.11	.06
No. of children	.08	.08	.12	.05	.06	.08
Employment status of husband	.12	.06	.06	.09	.02	.02
Employee neuroticism	-.19**	.00	-.07	-.20**	.01	-.03
<i>Main effects:</i>						
Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)		-.28***	-.17**		-.26***	-.21**
Perceived organizational support (POS)		.36***	.27***		.41***	.36***
<i>Two-way interaction:</i>						
IPV x POS			.34***			.18**
F	3.04**	8.56***	11.58***	4.18***	11.22***	11.31***
Adjusted R^2	.07**	.26***	.35***	.10***	.31***	.34***
ΔR^2		.19***	.09***		.21***	.03***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 3. Results of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for Supervisor-rated Workplace Deviant Behavior and Job Satisfaction

Steps/Variables	Supervisor-rated Organizational Deviance			Job Satisfaction		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
<i>Control variables:</i>						
Age	-.09	-.07	-.10	.16	.16	.23*
Tenure	-.21	-.12	-.13	.00	-.05	-.03
Employee status	-.10	-.07	-.05	-.04	-.05	-.10*
Educational attainment	-.08	-.02	-.02	-.04	-.12*	-.12*
No. of years married	.20	.10	.14	.04	.00	-.07
No. of children	-.07	-.03	-.05	-.17*	-.11*	-.08
Employment status of husband	-.02	.02	.02	.12	.06	.06
Employee neuroticism	.37***	.31***	.34***	-.27***	-.02	-.09
<i>Main effects:</i>						
Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)		.28***	.23***		-.17**	-.07
Perceived organizational support (POS)		-.02	.01		.57***	.49***
<i>Two-way interaction:</i>						
IPV x POS			-.14**			.30***
F	6.80***	7.60***	7.37***	6.39***	20.27***	24.12***
Adjusted R^2	.17***	.23***	.24***	.17***	.47***	.54***
ΔR^2		.06***	.01***		.30***	.07***

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Figure 1

The interactive effects between IPV and POS in predicting supervisor-rated in-role performance.

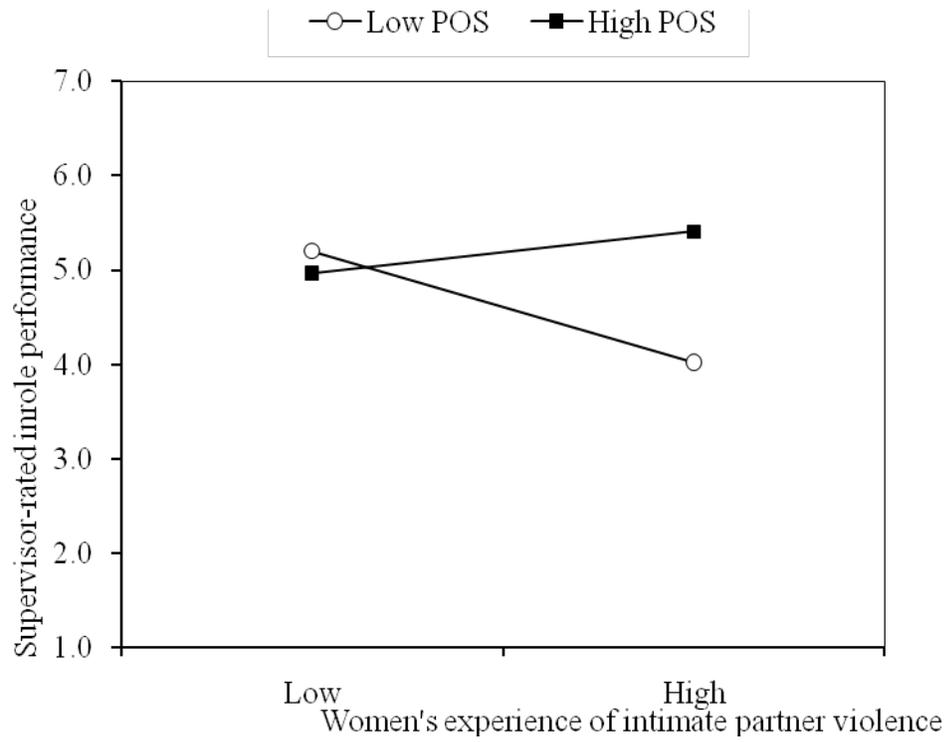


Figure 2

The interactive effect between IPV and POS in predicting supervisor-rated OCBs

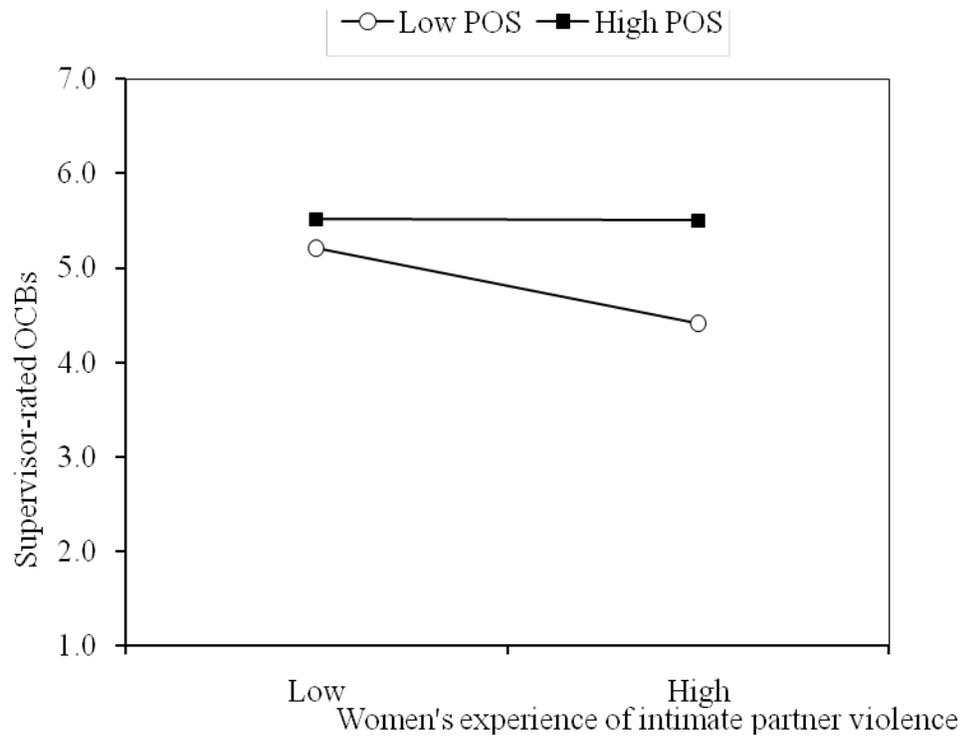


Figure 3

The interactive effect between IPV and POS in predicting supervisor-rated organizational deviance

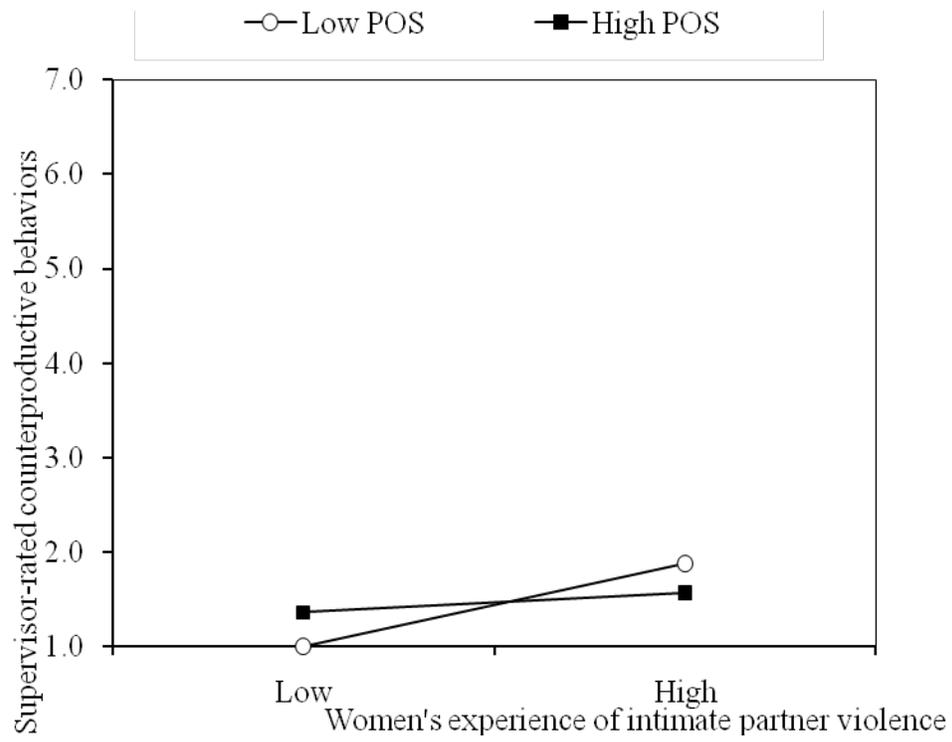


Figure 4

The interactive effect between IPV and POS in predicting self-reported job satisfaction

