



DOES DOMESTIC INTIMATE PARTNER AGGRESSION AFFECT CAREER OUTCOMES? THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

LARAMIE R. TOLENTINO, PATRICK RAYMUND JAMES M. GARCIA*, SIMON LLOYD D. RESTUBOG*, KRISTIN L. SCOTT, AND KARL AQUINO

Drawing upon the conservation of resources theory, we developed and tested a moderated mediation model linking domestic intimate partner aggression (IPA) to job performance and career advancement. Our model posits that the indirect relationship between IPA and career advancement via in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) is moderated by perceived organizational support (POS). Overall, multisource and multiwave data obtained from two independent samples of employed women from the Philippines supported our predictions. Specifically, results suggest that: (1) IPA was negatively associated with supervisor-rated in-role performance and OCBs; (2) there was a stronger negative relationship between IPA and in-role performance and OCBs for employees with low as opposed to those with high levels of POS; and (3) the conditional indirect effects of IPA in predicting supervisor-rated promotability and actual promotion via in-role performance and OCBs were stronger under conditions of low as opposed to high POS. Implications for theory and practice are discussed. © 2016 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

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The World Health Organization (WHO) reported that more than one in three women worldwide were targets of various forms of aggression inflicted by their intimate partners (WHO, 2013). Southeast Asia was classified as one of the worst affected regions with its high prevalence of violence

against women. In the Philippines, an alarming increase of 49.4% in reported cases of violence against women was recorded by the Philippine National Police in 2013. This percentage is by far the highest number in the country since 1997 (Philippine Commission on Women, 2014). Collectively, these statistics suggest that intimate

Correspondence to: Laramie R. Tolentino, Monash University, PO Box 197, Caulfield East, Victoria 3145, Australia, Phone: +61 3 99034159, E-mail: lara.tolentino@monash.edu.

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*These authors contributed equally.

partner aggression (IPA) is a global social problem that warrants not only public awareness but also scientific inquiry to better understand its causes and consequences.

Although both men and women may engage in IPA, women's motivation is often retaliatory (e.g., self-defense), while men's violent behaviors tend to be control-motivated (e.g., restoration of power and dominance; Kimmel, 2002). For instance, the Philippine National Demographic and Health Survey reported that violence initiated by married women is more common among those who have been battered by their spouse (Philippine Statistics Authority & ICF International, 2014). Despite the apparent gender symmetry in the prevalence of IPA, women still suffer far more

A common perception of IPA is that it is a private, nonwork issue that should be treated exclusively as a domestic concern. Yet, an emerging stream of research on partner aggression and employment shows that its detrimental effects extend into the workplace.

injurious effects. First, women as opposed to men experience greater psychological distress and risk for posttraumatic stress disorder from partner-initiated aggression (Archer, 2000). Furthermore, gender differences in body size and physical strength make women, as opposed to men, more susceptible to serious injuries requiring sustained medical care and attention (Ansara & Hindin, 2005). Second, over the course of their lifetime, women are more likely to report repeated and multiple forms of abuse and suffer more severe injuries as a result (Sacket & Saunders, 1999; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Thus, women have become the first priority in violence prevention and control as they suffer more frequent and severe injuries than men (Saunders, 2002). Finally, given that women in many societies confront more career barriers and nonwork demands (e.g.,

glass ceiling effects and conflicting demands of multiple role obligations; Chronister et al., 2009; Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009) than men, the effects of IPA on female employees may be particularly pernicious. Indeed, Rothbard and Edwards (2003) suggested that the work-family interface is more fluid and permeable for women than for men. This means that women are also more likely to experience family-to-work interference given the centrality of their role as domestic caretakers. For these reasons, we focus on the work-related consequences of IPA among employed women.

A common perception of IPA is that it is a private, nonwork issue that should be treated exclusively as a domestic concern (O'Leary-Kelly, Lean, Reeves, & Randel, 2008). Yet, an emerging

stream of research on partner aggression and employment (Galvez, Mankowski, McGlade, Ruiz, & Glass, 2011; LeBlanc, Barling, & Turner, 2014) shows that its detrimental effects extend into the workplace. Consequently, we regard IPA as a legitimate organizational concern because it not only restricts an abused employee's personal growth, health, and well-being but also impairs workforce participation, productivity, and economic advancement (Duffy, Scott, & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). IPA has also been found to be costly for organizations with estimated 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) exceeding \$5.8 billion a year (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2003).

The conservation of resources (COR) theory posits that people expend resources during stressful situations and that we strive to maintain and protect our remaining resources (Hobfoll, 1989). In line with this theoretical perspective, we conceptualize IPA as a stressor that depletes women's personal resources (e.g., self-esteem, time, and energies), leaving them with insufficient resources to fulfill work demands. We extend previous research that has shown the spillover effects of IPA on work outcomes by examining its long-term impact on women's career progression (Galvez et al., 2011; LeBlanc et al., 2014). Furthermore, we examine how perceived organizational support (POS) may mitigate these negative consequences through helping abused women protect remaining resources. By examining these empirical linkages, we make three important contributions to the literature. First, we propose and test a theoretical model that links IPA to women's job performance and subsequently to their career advancement. Drawing from COR theory, we identify both short and long-term outcomes of experiencing IPA in the work domain.

Second, although managers are aware of the consequences of IPA, little empirical work has been done to clarify the role of organizations in mitigating these consequences (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2008). This is a critical oversight, as this knowledge can result in more effective and actionable policies that can potentially reduce costs for both employees and organizations (Swanberg, Logan, & Macke, 2005). Finally, research on IPA has traditionally surveyed unemployed women in shelters or women seeking employment (Kelloway, Barling, & Hurrell, 2006). Little research to date has been conducted with working women despite evidence showing that women who experienced

partner-related aggression are likely to be employed and motivated to sustain employment (Farmer & Tiefenthaler, 2004; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2008). Thus, we test the proposed relationships in samples of employed women who have been relatively underrepresented in the literature. Figure 1 shows our proposed theoretical model. In the sections that follow, we elaborate on our proposed model, generate and test predictions concerning the expected relationships among them, and discuss the implications of our findings.

Theory and Hypotheses

Intimate Partner Aggression and Job Performance

Intimate partner aggression refers to any pattern of behavior and continued threat directed toward the goal of dominating and inflicting physical and/or psychological harm to a current or former marital or nonmarital partner who is motivated to avoid such treatment (O’Leary & Woodin, 2009; Saltzman, Fanslow, McMahon, & Shelley, 1999). We conceptualize IPA as including both physically aggressive behavior that is overt and recognizable to others (e.g., kicking, punching, or using a gun or knife to inflict harm) as well as psychologically aggressive actions that are less obvious to others (e.g., intimidation, ridiculing, blaming, and ignoring; Sacket & Saunders, 1999; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Although the severity of psychological aggression is often less visible to observers, its consequences are as physiologically and mentally damaging as physical aggression (Coker, Smith, Bethea, King, & McKeown, 2000). Furthermore, the two forms are often correlated (Murphy & O’Leary, 1989; O’Leary & Woodin, 2009).

COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that stress occurs when there is a threat to valued resources, an actual loss of resources, or insufficient gain following the investment of resources.

We conceptualize IPA as a stressor that emanates from the domestic environment. That is, IPA produces negative effects by threatening a person’s pool of personal resources, where resources are defined as those “objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued in their own right or that are valued because they act as conduits to the achievement or protection of valued resources” (Hobfoll, 2001, p. 339). The experience of IPA depletes personal resources such as one’s sense of self-worth, time, and physical energy (Aguilar & Nightingale, 1994; Swanberg et al., 2005). Abused women also experience diminished physical and mental health resources (Arias & Pape, 1999; Coker et al., 2000). For example, psychological abuse has been found to be associated with chronic pain, migraine, and indigestion (Coker et al., 2000) as well as symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Arias & Pape, 1999). Similarly, physical abuse negatively affects physiological health due to sustained injuries (e.g., broken bones and injury to sensory organs; Cascardi, Langhinrichsen, & Vivian, 1992).

We propose that resource loss from the experience of IPA can carry over into the workplace directly affecting job performance. Among the reasons why is that perpetrators can behave in ways that directly interfere with their abused partner’s ability to work efficiently. For example, abusive partners directly interfere by preventing their spouse from attending work (e.g., physically restraining the victim) or harassing them while at work (e.g., showing up at work, making harassing phone calls, stalking; Wettersten et al., 2004). Aside from direct job interference, IPA may also result in a more indirect “loss spiral” whereby the deprivation of resources from one domain (i.e., home) leads to subsequent losses in another domain (i.e., work, Hobfoll, 2001; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). For instance, IPA may deplete cognitive and physical energy as negative cognitions and

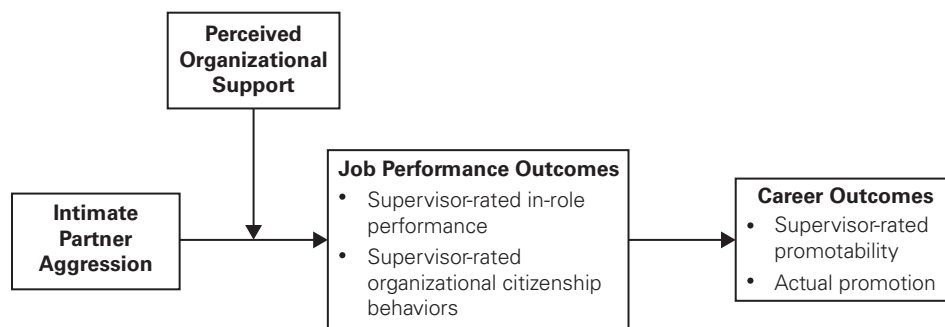


FIGURE 1. A Moderated Mediation Model of the Relationships between Intimate Partner Aggression, Job Performance Outcomes, Career Outcomes, and Perceived Organizational Support

emotions from the family domain (e.g., IPA) persist in the workplace (Rothbard, 2001). Employees would then need to expend psychological resources to suppress these negative thoughts and emotions if they do not want them to impair work performance. Unfortunately, this is not always easy, as IPA-related psychological interference has been shown to reduce mental concentration, which can be detrimental to work productivity (Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007).

Resource loss experienced from home can also degrade other aspects of performance that lie outside the employee's prescribed work role. These aspects include organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) or voluntary and altruistic behaviors performed at work (Horton & Johnson, 1993). It seems reasonable to presume that an employee whose cognitive and emotional resources are depleted by IPA is most likely to channel available resources to satisfy in-role demands. As a result,

Resource loss experienced from home can also degrade other aspects of performance that lie outside the employee's prescribed work role.

the amount of resource available to perform extra-role behaviors is likely to be considerably reduced. This possibility is consistent with COR theory's resource conservation principle, which states that because individuals are primarily motivated to conserve and gain back lost resources, they avoid engaging in behavior that may result in further resource loss. Moreover, even if they have surplus resources, women may devote them to activities that help them cope with their IPA-induced traumas. For instance, instead of helping out a coworker or spending time volunteering for organizational committees, employees who experi-

ence IPA may decide to spend their time and effort in therapy or pursuing legal action against their partner. Sacrificing OCBs to deal with IPA-related concerns is economically rational because the failure to exhibit such behaviors is generally not punished by organizations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Based on the above arguments, we propose that:

Hypothesis 1: Intimate partner aggression is negatively related to in-role performance (H1a) and OCBs (H1b).

Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support

COR theory predicts that people will reduce their net loss of resources by investing in or drawing from other resources that they possess or are

accessible from their environment. In an elaboration of the COR theory, ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) proposed that in addition to their own resource pool, the environments in which people are embedded may also serve as a resource that can be used to buffer the spillover effects of aversive home experiences into the workplace. One workplace resource that has been shown to buffer the stressor-strain relationship is perceived organizational support (POS). Organizational support theory (OST) suggests that employees form expectancies of support based on the degree to which the organization both values employees' contributions and demonstrates concern for their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986).

Based on OST, we expect POS to buffer the negative relationship between IPA and work outcomes for several reasons. First, POS provides access to relevant resources at work, which can help abused women replenish or conserve their stock of resources. For instance, instrumental support in the form of organizational policies like personal leave and flexible work arrangements can offer respite from work and opportunities for women to cope with IPA (Allen, 2001). A supportive work environment could also help in reducing work demands, such as when coworkers take over tasks assigned to the employee, which may help conserve remaining resources (Ray & Miller, 1994). Second, a supportive work environment signals that the employee is a valued member of the organization, which can lead to resource accumulation through its positive impact on one's sense of self-worth and its satisfaction of the fundamental human need for belongingness (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Self-esteem and feeling a sense of belonging are both important socio-emotional resources and so events or experiences that replenish or increase them can potentially counteract the resource demands that coping with IPA places on the employee. Based on these theoretical assertions, we offer the following predictions:

Hypothesis 2: The negative relationship between IPA and both in-role performance (H2a) and OCBs (H2b) is moderated by POS, such that the negative relationship is stronger for low as opposed to high levels of POS.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Intimate Partner Aggression on Career Progression

In the previous section, we discussed how IPA negatively influences short-term work outcomes

in the form of in-role performance and OCBs. We also propose that a possible consequence of these effects is that an employee's long-term career prospects can be compromised. The decrease in in-role performance will be noticed by the organization eventually translating into reduced promotion opportunities (Hoobler et al., 2009). Performance evaluations are considered key determinants of promotion decisions (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). Lam and Schaubroeck (2000) found that job performance was strongly associated with promotion decisions. Managers make promotion decisions that are based not only on job performance but also on work behaviors that are voluntary in nature and transcend job requirements (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Although not formally required, OCBs may influence promotion decisions because of its distinctiveness. That is, the behavior stands out as it is over and above one's duties and is likely to be retained in memory, which serves to enhance performance evaluations (Podsakoff et al., 2000). For example, Allen and Rush (1998) found that employee engagement in OCBs increased positive affect toward the subordinate and managers' perception of the subordinate's commitment. These, in turn, contributed to salary increases and promotions. Similarly, Hui and colleagues (2000) found that employees who engage in greater OCBs were more likely to be promoted as compared to those with lower levels of OCBs. Thus, we also expect decreased OCBs arising from IPA to have a negative relationship with promotability.

We expect POS to buffer the loss spiral triggered by IPA. Aside from providing instrumental (e.g., through employee assistance programs [EAPs]) and socio-emotional support (e.g., social companionship), the negative impact of IPA on work outcomes and career progression may be contingent on the organization's understanding and consideration of the employees' situation. That is, a supportive work environment can serve as a "safe haven" for those women who experienced IPA by offering them respite to replenish lost resources (e.g., generous leaves and health-related benefits; Allen, 2001; Wettersten et al., 2004). Regained resources may lessen the likelihood of performance deficits and increase available resources for enacting extra-role behaviors. This in turn minimizes IPA's negative impact on women's career progression. Based on these theoretical considerations, we propose that:

Hypothesis 3: The conditional indirect effect between intimate partner aggression and promotability via in-role performance (H3a) and OCBs (H3b) is stronger under conditions of low as opposed to high POS.

We tested the strength of our research model in two independent samples of working women. We collected supervisor ratings of in-role performance, OCBs, and career promotability in Samples 1 and 2. Using a multiwave temporal research design, we collected data at three measurement periods in Sample 2. We also sought constructive replication (Lykken, 1968) by using diverse operationalization of promotability across the two samples. For example, career progression was measured using supervisor ratings of promotability in Samples 1 and 2 and actual self-reported promotion in Sample 2.

Method

Research Context

Given the salience of patriarchy and traditional gender role socialization in the Philippines, we expect less duality of IPA in our research. Specifically, most women in the Philippines are socialized from a young age to embrace femininity, domestication, conformity, and familism (Felix & Paz-Ingente, 2003). Therefore, female subordination is embedded in Filipino family roles and gender role socialization. Filipino women are more likely to be at risk for greater resource loss associated with family-to-work interference given the social value attributed to self-sacrifice for love of family and fulfilment of domestic duties. The values associated with femininity (e.g., tolerance) and norms of domestication may also explain why women underestimate, downplay, and normalize the abusive behaviors of their intimate partners (Kimmel, 2002). Indeed, the internalized traditional feminine roles of Filipino women, such as being the *tagasalo* (rescuer), *mapagtiis* (tolerant), and *mapagtimpi* (self-controlled) has been shown to influence their decision to stay in an abusive relationship (Estrellado & Loh, 2014). These sociocultural factors implicate a higher risk for women than men in the Philippine setting.

Similar to other collectivistic cultures, family-centeredness (e.g., close family ties) is a salient characteristic of Philippine society (Restubog & Bordia, 2006). The Philippine Corporate Family Responsibility Survey reported that Filipinos are generally accepting of family issues permeating

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the workplace and managers are more sympathetic to employee family situations (Caparas, 2014). Indeed, employees from the Asian region experienced higher family-to-work interference (Allen, French, Dumani, & Shockley, 2015). Additionally, women compared to men were found to be more open and proactive in seeking support to manage their work and family life. They also expressed greater appreciation for work-family support initiatives in the organization regardless of the source (Caparas, 2014). These contextual characteristics underscore the relevance of family-supportive organizational culture in the Philippine setting. It is for this reason that we examine how POS may mitigate the harmful effects of IPA on women's work and career outcomes.

Sample 1: Organizational Sample

Participants and Procedure

We surveyed 500 married women who were employed full-time in various occupations across eight organizations composed of banking ($n = 3$), retail ($n = 2$), manufacturing ($n = 2$), and hotel ($n = 1$) workers. Survey kits were sent directly to the employees' employment address through female employee union representatives. Each employee worked at one of the eight organizations located in the central business district in the Philippines. The survey kit contained a letter from the union representatives indicating the nature of the research and ensuring confidentiality of responses along with a survey questionnaire and a postage-paid envelope. Participants were also provided a brief questionnaire for their immediate supervisor to complete containing questions about the participants' work behaviors. 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 envelopes that were provided. Upon completion of the survey, employee participants received a coffee voucher (PhP100 or US\$2.72) as a token for participating in the study. 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) an excessive number of missing cases, and (c) without a matched supervisor

questionnaire, we were left with a final sample of 214 matched supervisor-subordinate dyads.

The average age of the participants who completed the employee surveys was 34.97 years. The average tenure with the organization was 7.99 years. In terms of employment status, a large majority of the participants were permanent (82.3%), while a few were probationary (7.5%), contractual (3.7%), and casual (6.5%). A large proportion of the participants have university degrees (83.2%). Participants' job classification varied considerably, with 19.6% in marketing and sales; 18.7% in accounting and finance; 15% in customer service; 14.5% in general management, secretarial, and administration; 12.6% in advertising, media, and public relations; 10.7% in manufacturing, engineering, and production; and 8.9% in information and systems technology. All participants were married and living with their partner/spouse. Average years of marriage were 8.95 years and average number of children was 1.84.

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 Filipinos, especially in its educated social strata (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 Aggression

IPA was measured using the psychological aggression and physical assault subscales of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996). In line with prior work, we combined these two dimensions into an overall score because physical aggression is most often inflicted along with psychological aggression (Murphy & O'Leary, 1989; O'Leary & Woodin, 2009). The CTS2 scales demonstrated high internal consistency, ranging from .79 to .95 and construct validity with the physical assault and psychological aggression subscales obtaining high correlations (men = .71, women = .67; Straus et al., 1996).

In this study, employees were asked to rate the extent to which their partner/spouse exhibited aggressive behaviors toward them in the past year (0 = this has never happened to 7 = more than 20 times). As with prior work (Straus, 1990), a one-year referent period was used to reduce highly skewed data because marital violence is a low base

phenomenon, with a rate of 16% within a one-year period. Sample items include “My partner/spouse punched or hit me with something that could hurt”; “My partner used a knife or gun on me”; “My partner/spouse insulted or swore at me”; and “My partner/spouse destroyed something belonging to me.” In this sample, coefficient alpha was .92.

Perceived Organizational Support

POS was measured using eight-items from the scale developed by Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades (2001). Sample items from the scale include “My organization cares for my well-being” and “Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.” In this sample, coefficient alpha was .97.

In-Role Performance

Supervisors were asked to rate the in-role performance of their employees using four items derived from Williams and Anderson (1991). Example items include, “This employee meets formal requirements of her job” and “This employee adequately completes assigned duties.” In this sample, coefficient alpha was .96.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Supervisors were asked to rate the extent to which their employees engage in behaviors that are beneficial to both their organization and colleagues. We used a 20-item scale developed by Podsakoff and colleagues (2000). Example items include “This employee helps others who have heavy workloads” and “This employee willingly gives her time to help others who have work-related problems.” In this sample, coefficient alpha was .90.

Promotability

Supervisors were requested to rate the employee’s likelihood of promotion with two items from previous research (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997). The items were “How promotable is this employee (Definitely not promotable; Definitely promotable) and “What is the likelihood that this employee will be promoted to a higher position sometime during his/her career within your organization” (1 = No likelihood; 7 = High likelihood). These two items had a strong correlation ($r = .72, p < .001$).

Control Variables

Consistent with previous research (Jewkes, 2002; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980; Thompson et al., 2006), we included several control variables 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 seven-item semantic differential scale developed by Goldberg (1992). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .92. Second, we controlled for tenure and gross monthly salary because these variables can serve as an indication of economic independence and social empowerment (Jewkes, 2002). Tenure was assessed in terms of years. Monthly gross salary was assessed in terms of salary bands per month (in Philippine Peso): 1 (less than 10,000), 2 (10,001 to 20,000), 3 (20,001 to 30,000), 4 (30,001 to 40,000), 5 (40,001 to 50,000), 6 (50,001 to 60,000), 7 (60,001 to 70,000) and 8 (greater than 70,000). Finally, we controlled for employee’s age (Jewkes, 2002) and number of children (Straus et al., 1980) because these are indicators of low bargaining strength or less autonomy and power (i.e., younger women with children; Jones & Ferguson, 2009).

Results

Descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and reliability coefficients for all study variables are summarized in Table I. To test the proposed hypotheses, we conducted a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses to assess the incremental explanatory power of variables in each block and to control statistically for demographic variables (Aiken & West, 1991). The independent and moderator variables were mean-centered prior to conducting the moderation analyses. Simple slope analysis was conducted at high and low levels of POS. Table II presents the results of the regression analyses. In general, the results provided empirical support for Hypotheses 1a and 1b. IPA was negatively related to supervisor-rated in-role performance ($b = -.35, p < .001$) and supervisor-rated OCBs ($b = -.27, p < .001$).

Hypotheses 2a and 2b state that POS moderates the relationship between IPA and work outcomes. Table II shows that the two-way interaction term (IPA \times POS) explained a significant amount of variance in supervisor rated in-role performance $\Delta R^2 = .07, F(1, 204) = 24.52, p < .001$ and supervisor-rated OCBs, $\Delta R^2 = .02, F(1, 204) = 4.38, p < .05$. Figures 2 and 3 suggest that at low levels of POS, there was a stronger negative relationship between IPA and supervisor-rated in-role performance, $b = -.53, t = -6.65, p < .001$, and OCBs, $b = -.30, t = -4.14, p < .001$. However, at high levels of POS the relationship between IPA and supervisor-rated in-role performance, $b = .15, t = .16, ns$,

T A B L E I Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Reliability Coefficients, and Intercorrelations of Variables in Sample 1

| Variables | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---|-------|------|--------|--------|---------|--------|---------|---------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| 1. Age | 34.97 | 7.72 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Tenure | 7.99 | 7.44 | .76*** | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gross monthly salary | 3.77 | 2.08 | .29*** | .15* | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Number of children | 1.84 | 1.37 | .53*** | .48*** | .14* | | | | | | | |
| 5. Neuroticism | 2.94 | 1.28 | -.09 | .07 | -.23*** | .00 | (.92) | | | | | |
| 6. IPA | .82 | 1.03 | -.07 | -.09 | -.04 | .08 | .25*** | (.92) | | | | |
| 7. POS | 5.38 | 1.17 | .22*** | .16* | .25*** | .28*** | -.37*** | -.21** | (.97) | | | |
| 8. Supervisor-rated in-role performance | 5.73 | 1.09 | .18** | .18** | .13 | .03 | -.19** | -.37*** | .45*** | (.96) | | |
| 9. Supervisor-rated OCBs | 5.33 | .97 | .23*** | .25*** | .17* | .12 | -.19** | -.33*** | .51*** | .69*** | (.90) | |
| 10. Supervisor-rated promotability | 5.99 | 1.01 | .11 | .09 | .18* | .05 | -.31*** | -.29*** | .34*** | .48*** | .42*** | (.72) |

Note. N = 214. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

and OCBs, $b = -.04$, $t = -.40$, *ns*, was nonsignificant. These results support Hypothesis 2.

To test the predicted moderated mediation relationships, we used Hayes's (2013) "Process" macro (Model 7) to obtain bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals for the conditional indirect effects. Table III summarizes the moderated mediation results. Hypotheses 3a and 3b stated that the conditional indirect effects of IPA on promotability (via in-role performance and OCBs) were stronger under low as opposed to high POS. As predicted, the conditional indirect effects of IPA on promotability ratings via in-role performance and OCBs were significant when POS was low (-1SD, indirect effects via in-role performance = -.18, Boot SE = .03, 95% CI: -.29 to -.09; indirect effects via OCBs = -.11, Boot SE = .04, 95% CI: -.20 to -.05). In contrast, the conditional indirect effects were not significant when POS was high (+1 SD, indirect effects via in-role performance = .03, Boot SE = .03, 95% CI: -.02 to .09; indirect effects via OCBs = -.02, Boot SE = .03, 95% CI: -.07 to .04). Overall, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

On the whole, the results in Sample 1 supported our hypothesized predictions, but it is not without limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of our data inherently does not permit strong causal inferences. Second, the measurement of the variables at the same time point increases the risk that mood states may influence the predicted relationships (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). To bolster confidence in the predicted and observed patterns of relationships reported in Sample 1, we conducted a second study that addresses these limitations and to examine if our results would replicate in a different sample of women.

Sample 2: Working Women in a Community Sample

Sample 2 extended Sample 1 in three important ways. First, we replicated our results among a community sample of working women, thus lending greater external validity to our findings. Replications are the key to testing the generalizability of results as replications provide evidence of whether the same results would hold in a different population or under different conditions (Lindsay & Ehrenberg, 1993). Second, in addition to supervisor-rated promotability ratings, we used a different operationalization of promotability: self-reported actual promotion. By using a parallel measure of our dependent variable, we increased confidence in the internal validity of our model should our results replicate (Lykken, 1968). Third, we used a lagged design wherein we measured the substantive variables in three measurement

TABLE II Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Supervisor-rated In-role Performance and OCBs in Sample 1

| Variables | Supervisor-Rated In-Role Performance | | | | Supervisor-Rated OCBs | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| | Step 1 b | Step 2 b | Step 3 b | Step 4 b | Step 1 b | Step 2 b | Step 3 b | Step 4 b |
| Age | .01 | .01 | .01 | .01 | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| Tenure | .03 | .02 | .01 | .02 | .03 | .03 | .02 | .02 |
| Gross monthly salary | .03 | .03 | .00 | .02 | .04 | .05 | .02 | .02 |
| Number of children | -.07 | -.03 | -.12 | -.12 | -.01 | .03 | -.06 | -.06 |
| Neuroticism | -.16** | -.08 | .03 | -.04 | -.14** | -.09 | .03 | .00 |
| IPA | | -.35*** | -.28*** | -.19** | | -.27*** | -.21*** | -.17** |
| POS | | | .39*** | .29*** | | | .38*** | .34*** |
| IPA × POS | | | | .29*** | | | | .11* |
| R ² | .08** | .18*** | .31*** | .38*** | .11*** | .19*** | .34*** | .36* |
| R ² change | | .10*** | .13*** | .07*** | | .07*** | .15*** | .02* |

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

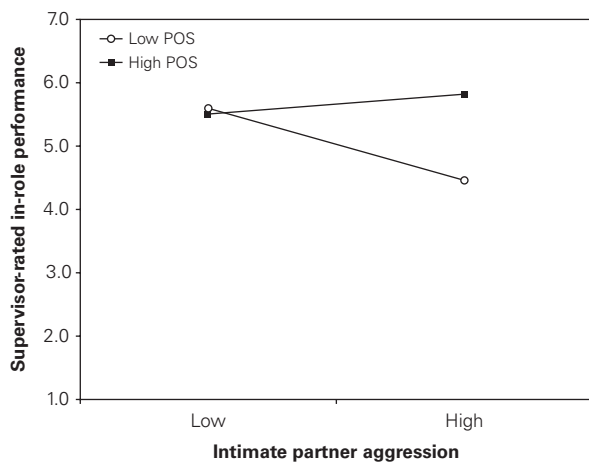


FIGURE 2. Interactive Effects between IPA and POS in Predicting Supervisor-Rated In-Role Performance in Sample 1

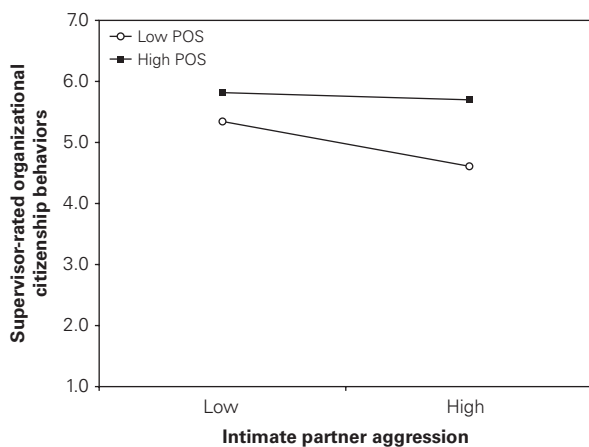


FIGURE 3. Interactive Effects between IPA and POS in Predicting Supervisor-Rated OCBs in Sample 1

periods, which allowed us to make stronger causal inferences than would be justified using a cross-sectional design.

Participants and Procedure

We examined the predicted relationships with data collected at three measurement periods. At Time 1, with the assistance of community officers, research assistants approached 650 households in a community district in Manila, Philippines. Women who were married and employed and had direct supervisors were invited to participate in the study. Of those invited, 52 women were not eligible for the study (i.e., unemployed, have their own business or not formally supervised at work), 83 refused to participate, and 515 eligible individuals agreed to participate. Participants completed a survey assessing their experiences of intimate partner aggression, perceived organizational support, and demographic questions. Out of the 515 who participated, 428 completed and returned surveys via the postage-paid envelopes provided, yielding a response rate of 83.11%. Upon completion of the survey, employee participants received a fast-food voucher (PhP100 or \$US2.72) as a token for participating in the study. Similar to Sample 1, we asked participants to create a unique code identifier so that the survey responses could be matched with surveys completed at Time 2.

The second wave of data collection took place six weeks after the first wave. The same set of research assistants approached the same participants who responded in the Time 1 surveys and were invited to complete a brief follow-up survey. At Time 2, participants were requested to pass on a brief survey (assessing their in-role performance, OCBs, and promotability) to their immediate supervisors. Among the 428 participants

TABLE III Conditional Indirect Effects of IPA on Promotability and Actual Promotion via Supervisor-Rated In-Role Performance and OCBs at Low and High Levels of POS for Samples 1 and 2

| Sample 1: Supervisor-Rated Promotability as Outcome Variable | Indirect Effects | Boot SE | 95% CI |
|--|-------------------------|----------------|---------------|
| Indirect effects for low POS via supervisor-rated in-role performance | -.18 | .03 | -.29 to -.09 |
| Indirect effects for high POS via supervisor-rated in-role performance | .03 | .03 | -.02 to .09 |
| Indirect effects for low POS via supervisor-rated OCBs | -.11 | .04 | -.20 to -.05 |
| Indirect effects for high POS via supervisor-rated OCBs | -.02 | .03 | -.07 to .04 |
| Sample 2: Supervisor-Rated Promotability as Outcome Variable | | | |
| Indirect effects for low POS via supervisor-rated in-role performance | -.21 | .06 | -.34 to -.10 |
| Indirect effects for high POS via supervisor-rated in-role performance | -.05 | .07 | -.23 to .04 |
| Indirect effects for low POS via supervisor-rated OCBs | -.10 | .04 | -.20 to -.05 |
| Indirect effects for high POS via supervisor-rated OCBs | .08 | .04 | -.03 to .20 |
| Sample 2: Actual Promotion as Outcome Variable | | | |
| Indirect effects for low POS via supervisor-rated in-role performance | -.38 | .17 | -.77 to -.11 |
| Indirect effects for high POS via supervisor-rated in-role performance | -.08 | .16 | -.49 to .09 |
| Indirect effects for low POS via supervisor-rated OCBs | -.13 | .08 | -.33 to -.02 |
| Indirect effects for high POS via supervisor-rated OCBs | .10 | .08 | -.0001 to .32 |

approached, 60 declined to participate, 22 were unavailable (i.e., traveling or away), and 346 agreed to participate. Out of the 346 who agreed to participate, 249 returned surveys via the postage-paid envelopes provided, representing a response rate of 71.97%. We also received 196 supervisor rating forms, which were returned via the reply paid envelopes. We disregarded supervisor rating forms and self-reported surveys with wrong or missing code identifiers and with a large number of missing responses. Thus, the two waves of data collection resulted in 165 matched employee-supervisor dyads. As an additional check, research assistants randomly contacted 20% of the participating supervisors using the optional e-mail or mobile information that was obtained in the supervisor rating forms to verify whether they had actually completed the surveys. All supervisor participants provided accurate information supporting the integrity of the data.

At Time 3, a brief survey assessing actual promotion was mailed 18 months after the second survey to the remaining 165 participants with a corresponding supervisor rating. To increase response rates, we sent a follow-up reminder two weeks after the survey was sent. Research assistants also visited the participants to personally deliver food vouchers (PhP100 or \$US2.72) and to encourage further participation. In total, 145 participants returned the completed surveys; 20 were returned because of change of address.

The participants' average age was 35.68 years. The average tenure was 7.54 years. Eighty-four percent were permanent employees; 72.7% have

university degrees. All participants were married and living with their partner/spouse. Average number of children was 2.26. Participants worked in a variety of occupations including, retail (17.6%), accounting and finance (17.6%), marketing and sales (21.2%), public relations (10.3%), general management and administration (15.8%), information technology (7.9%), and manufacturing and production (9.6%).

Measures

The Time 1 survey assessed demographic characteristics, experiences of intimate partner aggression, and POS. The second survey assessed supervisor-rated in-role performance, OCBs, and promotability. The third survey assessed a dichotomous self-reported measure of actual promotion. IPA, POS, and in-role performance were assessed using the same scales used in Sample 1. Promotability was assessed in two ways. As in Sample 1, we asked supervisors to rate the employees' likelihood of promotability. We also assessed promotability using self-reported actual promotion, which was measured at Time 3. Specifically, participants were asked to report whether they had been promoted to a higher position or rank within the same organization that they worked for. We coded 1 for "yes" and 0 for "no." Indeed, prior research suggests that actual promotion is an important indicator of objective career success (Hui et al., 2000).

Given the practical constraints of collecting data from a community sample, we used the civic virtue behavior dimension (as opposed to the full OCB measure) to operate as an indicator

of OCB because it is clearly directed to aid the organization (Organ, 1988). Supervisors assessed their subordinates' extra-role performance using a four-item civic virtue behavior scale developed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). An example item is "This employee attends functions that are not required, but that help the company image." To examine whether the four-item measure of civic virtue behavior used in the present study was equivalent to the full (20-item) measure of OCB, we collected data from an independent sample of 138 bank employees in the Philippines. Bivariate correlations revealed that the four-item civic virtue behavior scale and the 20-item OCB full scale were highly correlated ($r = .80, p < .001$). The high correlation obtained between civic virtue and the other OCB dimensions is supported by meta-analytic findings suggesting that OCB dimensions are strongly related to one another (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Thus, we are confident that our measure is a good and practical alternative to the full OCB scale. Similar to Sample 1, we controlled for the participants' age, tenure, number of children, and monthly gross salary, all of which were assessed using the same measures used in Sample 1.

Results

Data were analyzed using the same methods described in Sample 1. Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations for Sample 2 are presented in Table IV. We used 165 participants to analyze all outcome variables (except the dichotomous promotion measure). Results showed that Time 1 IPA was associated with supervisor-rated in-role performance ($b = -.44, p < .001$) and supervisor-rated OCBs ($b = -.25, p < .05$) at Time 2. Thus, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported. As shown in Table V, entry of the interactive term (IPA × POS) explained additional variance in predicting Time 2 supervisor-rated in-role performance, $\Delta R^2 = .03, F(1, 156) = 5.01, p < .05$ and OCBs, $\Delta R^2 = .05, F(1, 156) = 10.66, p < .001$. As shown in Figures 4 and 5, simple slope analyses suggest that under low levels of POS, there was a stronger negative association between Time 1 IPA and Time 2 supervisor-rated in-role performance, $b = -.51, t = -4.67, p < .001$, and OCBs, $b = -.35, t = -2.83, p < .01$. Conversely, at high levels of POS, the relationship between IPA and in-role performance, $b = -.14, t = -.87, ns$, and OCBs, $b = .28, t = 1.65, ns$, was nonsignificant. Overall, these results support Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

Mirroring the results of Sample 1, the conditional indirect effects of Time 1 IPA on Time 2 promotability via Time 2 in-role performance (indirect effects via in-role performance = $-.21$, Boot

TABLE IV Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Reliability Coefficients, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables in Sample 2

| Variables | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|--|-------|------|--------|--------|--------|------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|----|
| 1. T1 Age | 35.68 | 8.21 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. T1 Tenure | 7.54 | 7.15 | .74*** | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. T1 Gross monthly salary | 2.51 | 1.03 | .33*** | .24** | | | | | | | | |
| 4. T1 Number of children | 2.26 | 1.15 | .47*** | .54*** | .09 | | | | | | | |
| 5. T1 IPA | .72 | .80 | -.06 | -.09 | -.11 | .04 | (.93) | | | | | |
| 6. T1 POS | 5.49 | 1.09 | .29*** | .21** | .33*** | .20* | -.22** | (.96) | | | | |
| 7. T2 Supervisor-rated in-role performance | 5.75 | 1.05 | .18* | .16* | .22** | -.04 | -.36** | .29*** | (.95) | | | |
| 8. T2 Supervisor-rated OCBs | 5.73 | 1.16 | .16* | .08 | .06 | .01 | -.18* | .34*** | .66*** | (.90) | | |
| 9. T2 Supervisor-rated promotability | 5.61 | 1.17 | .14 | .13 | .13 | .12 | -.27*** | .19* | .39*** | .31*** | (.69) | |
| 10. T3 Self-reported actual promotion | .30 | .46 | .13 | .07 | .09 | .17* | -.10 | .19* | .24** | .17* | .39*** | |

Note. $N = 145$; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

TABLE V Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Supervisor-Rated In-Role Performance and OCBs in Sample 2

| Variables | T2 Supervisor-Rated In-Role Performance | | | | T2 Supervisor-Rated OCBs | | | |
|-----------------------|---|----------|----------|----------|--------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| | Step 1 b | Step 2 b | Step 3 b | Step 4 b | Step 1 b | Step 2 b | Step 3 b | Step 4 b |
| Age | .02 | .02 | .02 | .01 | .04 | .04 | .03 | .03 |
| Tenure | .02 | .01 | .01 | .01 | -.01 | -.02 | -.01 | -.01 |
| Gross monthly salary | .07 | .07 | .02 | .04 | -.07 | -.08 | -.17 | -.13 |
| Number of children | -.16 | -.13 | -.15 | -.12 | -.08 | -.06 | -.11 | -.05 |
| IPA | | -.44*** | -.39*** | -.32*** | | -.25* | -.15 | -.04 |
| POS | | | .19* | .19* | | | .36*** | .36*** |
| IPA × POS | | | | .18* | | | | .29*** |
| R ² | .07* | .18*** | .21* | .23* | .04 | .07 | .16 | .22 |
| R ² change | | .11* | .03* | .03* | | .03* | .13*** | .05*** |

Note. **p* < .05, ****p* < .001.

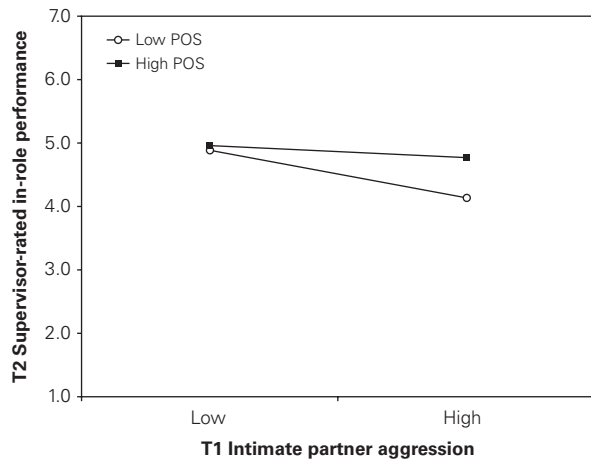


FIGURE 4. Interactive Effects between IPA and POS in Predicting Supervisor-Rated In-Role Performance in Sample 2

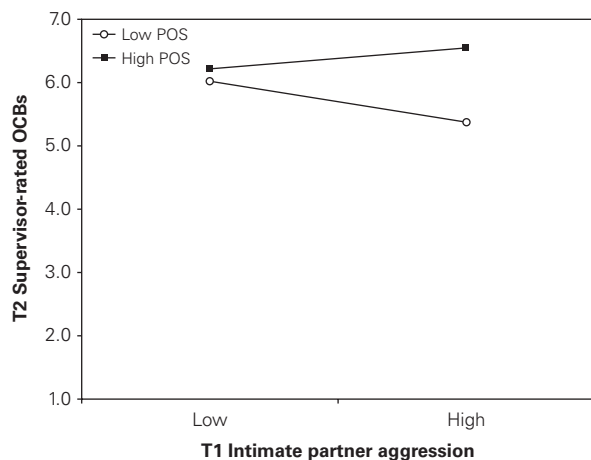


FIGURE 5. Interactive Effects between IPA and POS in Predicting Supervisor-Rated OCBs in Sample 2

SE = .06, 95% CI: -.34 to -.10) and Time 2 OCBs (indirect effects via OCBs = -.10, Boot SE = .04, 95% CI: -.20 to -.05) were significant at low but not at high POS (+1SD, indirect effects via in-role performance = -.05, Boot SE = .07, 95% CI: -.23 to .04; indirect effects via OCBs = .08, Boot SE = .04, 95% CI: -.03 to .20; see Table IV). Similarly, the conditional indirect effects of Time 1 IPA on Time 3 self-reported actual promotion was significant at low POS (-1 SD, indirect effects via in-role performance = -.38, Boot SE = .17, 95% CI: -.77 to -.11; indirect effects via OCBs = -.13, Boot SE = .08, 95% CI: -.33 to -.02) but not at high POS (+1 SD, indirect effects via in-role performance = -.08, Boot SE = .16, 95% CI: -.49 to .09; indirect effects via OCBs = .10, Boot SE = .08, 95% CI: -.0001 to .32). Overall, Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported.

General Discussion

Prior work has established the negative relationship between IPA and work outcomes (Galvez et al., 2011; LeBlanc et al., 2014; Swanberg et al., 2005). However, these studies focused on short-term job performance outcomes failing to account for IPA's long-term impact on women's career advancement and the role of organizational support in mitigating family-to-work interference. Across the two samples, we found support for our predictions even after controlling for neuroticism, age, number of children, income, and organizational tenure. Consistent with prior work, IPA is negatively related to both supervisor-rated in-role performance and OCBs. Poor performance consequently harms the employees' chances to progress within the organization. That is, the employees' underperformance negatively affects supervisors' assessments of promotability and actual job promotion. Indeed, prior research has found that women who experienced IPA may find it difficult to function

at work (Swanberg et al., 2005; Wettersten et al., 2004), which consequently leads to difficulties in maintaining employment and effectively managing their careers. We contribute to this literature by demonstrating that IPA can also derail career advancement.

Another contribution of our paper is that it provides evidence for how organizations, as potential sources of resource replenishment and accumulation, can mitigate the negative consequences of IPA at work. Our findings concur with existing empirical evidence demonstrating the beneficial role of supportive organizations in reducing negative work outcomes among employed women (Bagger & Li, 2014; Clark, Rudolph, Zhdanova, Michel, & Baltes, 2015). Perceived organizational support has a protective function, as it entails the availability of instrumental, emotional, and appraisal aid that buffers work-related demands. At the same time, POS protects employees experiencing IPA from nonwork stressors and subsequent resource loss that affect ability to perform efficiently at work and over time reduce career promotability. Indeed, Hobfoll (2001) noted that individuals with greater resources are more capable of regenerating lost resources. The workplace is generally regarded as a safe haven for women experiencing partner aggression (Wettersten et al., 2004). Thus, POS may not only lessen the impact of family-to-work conflict when employees are confronted with multicontextual stressors but also potentially contribute to successful coping critical to job maintenance.

Individuals utilize existing resources they possess to generate more resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Indeed, a work-family supportive culture positively influences employee commitment and career expectations (Chang, Chin, & Ye, 2014) in both developed and emerging countries (Stock, Strecker, & Bieling, 2015). Along similar lines, the workplace is an important context from which resources can be acquired to recover from abusive intimate relationships. Specifically, the ability to sustain employment facilitates economic independence and self-reliance, which are important predictors of recovery and abusive relationship termination (Jewkes, 2002; Raghavan, Swan, Snow, & Mazure, 2005). Hence, one's work productivity and opportunities for career progression are considerably affected by the experience of IPA under low conditions of POS because the employee's depleting resources are expended further instead of conserved and regenerated.

Theoretical Implications

Despite the high global prevalence of domestic intimate partner aggression, we still know little

about how it interferes with work life and career progression. It is in this vein that our study makes substantive contributions to the IPA and management literature. First, Perceived organizational support may not only lessen the impact of family-to-work conflict when employees are confronted with multicontextual stressors but also potentially contribute to successful coping critical to job maintenance (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Results from the two independent samples further strengthen our contention that the injurious effects of IPA are no longer confined within the home context.

Furthermore, our work offers a theoretical foundation for understanding *how* specific workplace conditions such as POS act as a contextual resource that can buffer the negative effects of IPA on work and career outcomes. The results support this contention and signal a clear message to the important role of organizations in the practical management of IPA-work interference. It also confirms the POS assumption that support from work is most relevant during a critical event such as when employees experience intimate partner aggression.

Managerial Implications

Our study offers practical implications that are directly relevant to the career and performance management of vulnerable employees. One way by which organizations can counteract the negative consequences of IPA at work is through increasing employee POS by promoting a supportive organizational culture that communicates zero tolerance for domestic abuse. POS signals to employees that the organization values their contributions and well-being, which also consequently act as a resource gain providing employees with the needed respite to recover and cope with experienced distress from domestic partner aggression (Allen, 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wettersten et al., 2004). Undeniably, supportive human resource practices will only be beneficial if they are accompanied by a change of how the organization views work-family issues such as IPA (Lobel & Kossek, 1996). To effectively foster a supportive organizational culture, managers need to advocate work-life initiatives by committing to implement policies and encourage use of support resources at work (Bardoel & De Cieri, 2014). For instance, the pioneering work of Liz Claiborne,

Perceived organizational support may not only lessen the impact of family-to-work conflict when employees are confronted with multicontextual stressors but also potentially contribute to successful coping critical to job maintenance.

Inc. sets a good example of how social issues such as domestic violence can be integrated in organization's corporate social responsibility initiatives (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2008). Indeed, a supportive organizational culture characterized by awareness of IPA as a critical social and workplace issue may assist managers to be more responsive to the needs of affected employees. Consequently, the perception of the workplace as a safe haven may increase organizational support utilization, which is found to be an important aspect of abusive relationship termination among women as it provides an avenue for economic self-sufficiency and independence (Horton & Johnson, 1993; Raghavan et al., 2005).

Given the sensitive nature of IPA, it is important that affected employees can avail of EAPs in confidence. To address fear associated with stigmatization, employers should clearly stipulate in their policies that utilization of work-family support will not jeopardize job performance evaluations.

Employers can optimize the advantageous position of managers and coworkers to detect risks and provide immediate assistance to affected employees given their daily face-to-face interaction with them. One way by which employers can promote a positive and supportive culture toward vulnerable employees is by offering opportunities to educate managers and employees on how to safely respond to sensitive family issues when they interfere with work (e.g., occupational health and safety training on detecting risks, managing disclosure, securing confidentiality, accessing referral systems and employee assistance programs). This is particularly important as managers and coworkers can do more harm than good to others and themselves if they attempt to respond without an understanding of the complex nature of IPA and the appropriate occupational health and safety procedures available at work. For instance, desirable supervisor support varies according to a woman's state of change, specifically ranging from limited preference to full receptiveness for instrumental organizational support to completely terminate the abusive relationship (Perrin, Yragui, Hanson, & Glass, 2011). Finally, given the sensitive nature of IPA, Given the sensitive nature of IPA, it is important that affected employees can avail of EAPs in confidence. To address fear associated with stigmatization, employers should clearly stipulate in their policies that utilization of work-family support will not jeopardize job performance evaluations.

From the employees' perspective, increased awareness that support is *available* and *accessible*

at work also encourages help-seeking behaviors, which can potentially prevent the escalation of IPA's negative consequences at work (e.g., turnover costs; Duffy et al., 2005). Flexible work arrangements may also reduce work demands because they can help in resource conservation. Furthermore, work-family support in the form of job sharing as well as access to secure and flexible work locations increases psychological safety and protects affected employees from possible perpetration at work (Swanberg et al., 2005). However, the presence of work-family structural and formal support (e.g., employee assistance policies and programs) does not necessarily guarantee utilization among employees who need it the most due to fear of stigmatization (Kwesiga, Bell, Pattie, & Moe, 2007). Indeed, women are less likely to use family support initiatives in organizations that implement a formalized managerial discretion approach (Kelly & Kalev, 2006). This could be due to the fact that women face greater pressure to demonstrate lesser family-to-work interference and high dedication to work. Thus, a supportive organizational culture is especially relevant for employees experiencing IPA as it fosters psychological safety at work.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

There are a number of limitations that should be noted in light of the present findings. A major limitation is the restricted generalizability of results given that we only focused on married and employed women. Although men and women may experience IPA, women feel more fearful, angry, and insulted by partner-initiated aggression than men (Archer, 2000). Furthermore, gender differences in body size and physical strength make women more susceptible than men to serious injuries requiring medical attention (Ansara & Hindin, 2005). A second limitation is that the mean levels of IPA are quite low. This is expected given that the sample of interest is composed of functional and employed women. We should note, however, that limiting the current sample to the working population is called for to fully examine the extent of IPA in the work context (Farmer & Tiefenthaler, 2004). It is important to look at working women given that a large majority of studies focused on either unemployed or women in shelters. An examination of the frequency distribution suggests that participants reported a wide range of responses in which some participants had high to very high levels of IPA. While IPA in our study may have low incidence or low visibility, its impact has important implications for women's well-being and performance at work and thus requires continued empirical attention. Although beyond the

scope of the present study, future research can conduct comparative studies across gender and various samples of women experiencing IPA (e.g., working and nonworking groups) order to understand more fully the nature of their vulnerability as well as to determine how contextual variables (e.g., job conditions) may provide resources essential for coping.

In terms of research design, while we have replicated and employed a temporal research design in which there was a six-week and 18-month time lag between our independent and dependent variables, we still cannot infer causal relationships between IPA and work-related outcomes. A multiwave longitudinal panel design where the independent, mediator, moderator, and dependent variables were collected independently across time points would have enabled us to determine bidirectional relationships and reverse-causation effects (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010) and strengthen causal inferences among the study variables (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996). Finally, we measured only perceptions of organizational support and not its actual availability. That is, employees may not be aware of the actual benefits available to them. However, we believe that not all supportive policies are beneficial to employees who experienced IPA. As such, employees who experienced IPA are in a better position of judging whether the organization is supportive of their current conditions.

We recommend that future research examine a broader range of outcome variables (e.g., organizational commitment, retention) and work support systems (e.g., match/mismatch of supervisor support; Yragui, Mankowski, Perrin,

& Glass, 2012) to fully understand the impact of partner abuse in organizational life. It is also noteworthy to incorporate the role of third parties' (e.g., coworkers and supervisors) work attitudes and behaviors toward women experiencing IPA, because these women are potential targets of exclusion at work and the stigma associated with it. Future work may explore the conditions that either facilitate or prevent disclosure of IPA in the workplace because some women fear that disclosure may result in job loss and diminish their career options (Tolman & Wang, 2005). Moreover, future research can investigate a feedback loop mechanism that explicates how workplace support traverses to the home domain and influences abusive relationship termination. Finally, the substantial economic costs associated with partner abuse warrants an investigation of organizational mechanisms that may mitigate IPA-related problems and promote proactive approaches that results in work-life balance and job maintenance. A comparative evaluation of existing IPA organizational interventions may also provide preventive insights that will aid companies to design responsive programs that accommodate employee and organizational needs. We hope that the research presented here stimulates continued scholarly attention to understand and prevent intimate partner aggression from interfering with women's career advancement.

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LARAMIE R. TOLENTINO is a lecturer of management in the Monash Business School at Monash University Australia. Her research interests include career development and managing the work-family interface. Her work has been published in journals such the *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *Journal of Career Assessment*, and *Journal of Research in Personality*.

PATRICK RAYMUND JAMES M. GARCIA is an assistant professor of management in the Grossman School of Business at the University of Vermont. He received his PhD in management from the Australian National University. His research focuses on workplace aggression/deviance and career decision making. His research has been published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Leadership Quarterly*, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, among others.

SIMON LLOYD D. RESTUBOG is a lab director of the Work Effectiveness & Leadership Lab (www.wellab.org) and professor of management in the Research School of Management at the Australian National University. He received his PhD in industrial/organizational psychology from the University of Queensland. His primary research interests include psychological contracts, abusive supervision and career development. His work has appeared in leading

outlets such as the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Management Studies*, *Organization Studies*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *Leadership Quarterly*, *Human Resource Management*, and *British Journal of Industrial Relations*.

KRISTIN L. SCOTT is an associate professor of management in the College of Business and Behavioral Science at Clemson University. She received her PhD from the University of Kentucky. Her current research interests focus on workplace exclusion, dysfunctional organizational behavior, and employee rewards. Her articles have been published in the *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Management Studies*, among others. Prior to obtaining her PhD, she worked as an HR manager for several multinational corporations including General Electric Corporation, Computer Associates, and Ingersoll-Rand Company.

KARL AQUINO is the Richard Poon Professor of Organizations and Society in the Sauder School of Business at the University of British Columbia. He received his PhD in organizational behavior from Northwestern University. His primary research interests include workplace victimization, moral cognition and behavior, forgiveness, and reconciliation. His work has been published in top-tier journals such as the *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Organization Science*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *Psychological Science*, *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, among others.

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