

The Impacts of Domestic Violence on Workers and the Workplace

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Abstract

Domestic violence is a complex social issue with far-reaching health, legal, and economic consequences. International research has increasingly recognised that the effects of domestic violence extend beyond the domestic sphere and into the work lives and workplaces of victims. However, to date, no research exists in New Zealand examining the impact of domestic violence on workers and their workplaces.

The aims of this study were to assess the frequency of domestic violence among workers, gain insight into the impact of domestic violence on worker productivity, absenteeism and impaired work performance, and learn about what policies, procedures and attitudes surround victims dealing with the effects of domestic violence while employed.

A self-report questionnaire modified from the Australian Domestic Violence Workplace Rights and Entitlements Project (McFerran, 2011a) was distributed by the New Zealand Public Service Association (PSA) to 10,000 randomly selected members. A total of 1,626 valid responses were received (16% response rate). The data provided was descriptive and was compared using chi-square analysis according to age, gender, sector of the PSA, employment type, and employment role.

The majority of participants in this study were women (75%). Participants' ages ranged from 18 to over 65, with the majority over the age of 35 (85%). Nearly 80% of participants were in permanent full time employment and 55% of participants reported having some experience with domestic violence either in their personal lives or through someone they knew. Those with personal experience of domestic violence made up 26% of participants and, of them, more than half (58%) reported being in paid employment at the time the domestic violence occurred.

Domestic violence affected the ability to get to work for 38% of participants, with 62% reporting that physical injury or restraint was responsible for their difficulties and 65% reporting that concerns over childcare were responsible. Over half (53%) of participants in paid employment reported that they needed to take time off from work because of the abuse. Most participants reported that the domestic violence impacted on their work performance by either making them late for work (84%) or making them distracted, tired or unwell (16%). Slightly more than half of participants (53%) did not disclose their abuse to anyone in their workplace, with privacy and shame being the most commonly cited reasons (92%).

There is a need to increase awareness of domestic violence as a workplace issue in New Zealand. The economic and resource costs of domestic violence for employers and victims are likely to be

significant. Workers experiencing domestic violence would benefit from legislation and workplace policies and practices that would provide job protection and make resources available to help victims leave abusive situations.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

The workplace is not the location most people think of when they hear the words ‘domestic violence’. Domestic violence is primarily associated with the home and the immediate intimate relationships people have with those closest to them. Victims of domestic violence suffer mental, physical, and emotional harm with effects that can last for years. So there is little doubt that domestic violence can have a deleterious effect on a person’s ability to work, and can potentially cause a range of problems in the workplace. International research has shown that it is not unusual for victims of domestic violence to experience repercussions in their work lives from the violence they experience in their private lives. Frequently perpetrators of domestic violence engage in actions to sabotage victims’ ability to maintain successful employment. Often these activities include controlling finances in such a way that the victim can’t afford necessities for work or transportation, through not showing up for childcare or damaging existing childcare arrangements, and even physically threatening or restraining victims. Additionally, perpetrators will sometimes bring their abusive behaviours to the victim’s workplace by ringing her or texting her repeatedly, coming to the workplace and disrupting operations or interfering with her ability to work, or showing up and stalking the victim while she is at work. Sometimes perpetrators violently attack their victims and their co-workers while they are at work (LeBlanc & Barling, 2005; Tiesman, Gurka, Konda, Coben, & Amandus, 2012; Tombs, 2007).

It is estimated that in New Zealand one out of three women experience some form of domestic violence in their lifetimes (Fanslow & Robinson, 2004) Women also make up 47% of the labour force in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2011). Domestic violence can affect both men and women and can include any close intimate relationship between people of either opposite or same genders. However, the vast majority of domestic violence takes place between opposite sex intimate partners, with men offending most frequently against female victims (Flood, 2006; Johnson, 2006; Kimmel, 2002; UNICEF, 2001). Furthermore the abuse women experience at the hands of their male partners tends to involve more extreme acts of violence, along with more prolonged and systematic efforts to terrorise, manipulate, and dominate their victims (Flood, 2006; Johnson, 2006). It is unsurprising then that victims’ employment should become a target for abusers. Interfering with work helps to ensure control and the dependence of the victim. These actions engaged in by abusers are part of a larger pattern meant to isolate and restrict victims with the intention of limiting their ability to realise any form of independence (Shepard & Pence, 1988; Widiss, 2008).

The ability to maintain employment can play a key role in a victim's ability to escape her abusive situation. Economic independence ensures that a victim can meet expenses associated with moving house, applying for a protection order, acquiring an attorney, and even simply paying for day to day living expenses after separation and the loss of the former partner's income. However, employers seldom have explicit policies in place for dealing with the effects of domestic violence and frequently respond to the disruptions it can cause by terminating the victim (Moe & Bell, 2004). This loss of financial independence has the unfortunate consequence of forcing the victim to remain with the abuser out of economic necessity.

It is this lack of support and assistance from people in the workplace that can further isolate and marginalize the victim. Furthermore, evidence suggests that the ability to keep stable employment is affected for years after the experience of domestic violence, likely as the result of health ramifications stemming from the abuse, leaving victims financially vulnerable and with limited resources (Crowne et al., 2011)

Employers experience problems resulting from domestic violence as well. Lost productivity, worker tardiness and absenteeism, disruptions and even acts of violence in the workplace against both the primary victim of the domestic violence and co-workers all contribute to the financial and resource costs companies experience due to domestic violence (Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007). Several researchers describe domestic violence as a serious and important occupational safety issue (Chappell, 2006; Tiesman et al., 2012; Tombs, 2007).

The interlinked health and economic implications of domestic violence make it a significant human rights issue (World Health Organization, 2004). With people spending anywhere from a few hours to upwards of 40 hours in their workplaces every week, it is not surprising that domestic violence would have an impact on workers and the workplace. Recently the International Labour Organization (ILO) issued a call to action around the issue of gender-based violence in the workplace (International labour Organization, 2013). Understanding the effects of domestic violence on the workplace and on victims in terms of their roles as workers and their ability to be employed is fundamental to being able to address domestic violence as occupational safety and human rights issues, as well as in creating policies that can help victims achieve economic security and leave abusive situations.

1.2 Research Objectives

This research is a descriptive quantitative study using a self-report survey to collect data on the types of experiences workers have with domestic violence, and to ascertain how it affects their employment and their workplace. The study is patterned after the Australian Domestic Violence Workplace

Rights and Entitlements Project (McFerran, 2011a) and was conducted in partnership with the New Zealand Public Service Association (PSA).

There are three main objectives of this study, which include:

- (1) Assessment of the frequency of domestic violence among workers;
- (2) Assessment of the impact of domestic violence on worker productivity, absenteeism, and impaired work performance and;
- (3) Gain an understanding of current workplace policies, procedures and attitudes surrounding the needs of workers experiencing domestic violence.

1.3 Thesis Structure

This thesis is presented in six chapters. Following the introduction, Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature. This is done over five sections. The first section will give a definition of domestic violence and examine the prevalence rates both in New Zealand and globally. Literature discussing the nature of domestic violence, the characteristics of victims and perpetrators, and the structure of the relationships that most commonly experience violence will be assessed. This section will also examine the health and economic costs of domestic violence for both victims and society. The second section will look at the theories underpinning the causes of domestic violence and examine frameworks for its prevention. This section will focus on the elements of the ecological model of domestic violence and prevention as well as on gendered organisation theory and how the impacts of domestic violence in the workplace are influenced by male-dominated business structures. The third section of the literature review will explore the effects of domestic violence on both workers and the workplace. In this section recent relevant literature will be highlighted looking at how domestic violence impacts victims' ability to maintain employment as well as how it affects interoffice dynamics between the victims, their co-workers and supervisors. This section will also examine what effects domestic violence has on employers, including the financial and resource costs and the impact on company morale and reputation. The next section of the literature review will examine what actions have been taken by governments and employers to address domestic violence as a workplace issue. This section will look at legislation in other countries as well as a variety of company responses. Finally, the strengths and weaknesses of the presented literature will be examined and the objectives of the present study will be presented.

Chapter Three outlines the methods used in this project. The chapter will discuss the methodology used to inform the research procedures and will outline why the method chosen was appropriate for this project. Chapter Three will also discuss how participants were selected along with what the characteristics of the sample population were and how the sample size was determined. Discussion

around the modification of the questionnaire to fit the context of this project and the given definition of domestic violence are also included in this chapter. Ethics issues are also considered. Finally, this chapter outlines the procedures taken when pilot testing the survey, during the distribution of the survey to the study population, and concludes by explaining how data analysis was conducted.

Chapter Four presents the results section. The chapter will present the findings according to themes in the study. This begins with the response rate of the study and demographic characteristics of the study participants. It then explores if and when participants' experienced domestic violence as well as whether or not they were employed at the time the domestic violence occurred. The results are then presented according to what kinds of events and actions were experienced by those who were in abusive relationships while they were employed. Finally the chapter examines the opinions of all participants on the effects of domestic violence on workers and the workplace.

The findings are discussed in Chapter Five. This chapter is divided into three main parts. The first section summarises the results in the context of existing literature and discusses what the findings might mean in New Zealand. Following that, the limitations and strengths of the study are explored in depth, along with reflections on what could have improved the study. Last, the implications of the study for policy and practice in New Zealand are explored

Finally, Chapter Six presents the conclusion and recommendations. The Conclusion will briefly summarise the objectives and findings of the study and outline what conclusions can be drawn about the affects of domestic violence on workers and the workplace. This chapter will also make recommendations for future research related to domestic violence as a workplace issue.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter begins by examining the definition of domestic violence as well as providing an overview of the literature on the prevalence and effects of domestic violence in both an international and New Zealand context. Next, this chapter will examine the relevant theories surrounding domestic violence and how it relates to inequality in the workplace. This is followed by a look at the literature documenting how domestic violence affects both the workplace and workers. Next this chapter will examine what policy and legislative interventions have been taken by employers and governments to support victims and manage the workplace issues that are created by domestic violence. Finally, this chapter will finish by reviewing the strengths and weaknesses of the presented literature and discuss the objectives of the present study.

2.1 Domestic Violence

2.1.1 Definitions

There is no universally agreed upon definition of domestic violence among researchers. Domestic violence is complex and can encompass a wide range of behaviours and relationships. The term is often used interchangeably with other terms such as intimate partner violence, family violence and spousal abuse, among others, each with their own nuances and variations. Nevertheless, there are several themes in common between most definitions, including physical violence, sexual violence and emotional/psychological violence (Saltzman, Fanslow, McMahon, & Shelley, 2002). The relationships between abusers and their victims are dynamic. Those who abuse can be of any gender, as can their victims; their relationships are varied, and not limited to just intimate partners. However, it is generally thought that the relationship should be a close one, based around a domestic or intimate connection.

In New Zealand the legal definition of domestic violence is given in the Domestic Violence Act (1995), which describes domestic violence as any violence against another person by someone they are in a domestic relationship with. The domestic relationship can be with a spouse or partner, a family member, someone that they share a household with, or someone with whom there is a close intimate relationship.

Relationships

While ‘domestic violence’ can be used to refer to abusive relationships between anyone in a domestic environment, it most often is used synonymously with intimate partner violence. Also, while domestic violence can occur in same sex relationships, or with women perpetrators against male victims, it is most often thought of in the context of male violence against a current or former female intimate partner (Flood, 2006). Other types of domestic violence are sometimes referred to

as family violence and are differentiated with terms specific to the connections the victim and perpetrator have with one another, such as elder abuse, child abuse or sibling abuse (Flood, 2006; Lievore, Mayhew, & Mossman, 2007). There can be multiple abusive relationships within a domestic environment and there are sometimes instances where victims are also perpetrators, such as when victims of partner violence are abusive towards children, or when victims of child abuse harm their siblings (Lievore et al., 2007). For the purposes of this literature review, domestic violence, unless otherwise stated, is generally referring to heterosexual partnerships with a male perpetrator and a female victim.

Gender

Many definitions also take into account the gendered nature of domestic violence. Estimates vary, but overwhelmingly, domestic violence is perpetrated by men against women (Flood, 1999; Flood, 2006; Garcia-Moreno, Jansen, Ellsberg, Heise, & Watts, 2006; Khan, 2000; Kimmel, 2002; UNICEF, 2001; Watts & Zimmerman, 2002). There is debate about gender symmetry in domestic violence, with some researchers claiming that women are perpetrators of domestic violence at equal and sometimes higher rates than men (Archer, 2000; Archer, 2002; Straus, 2004). However, other researchers explain that findings which claim women and men are equally abusive use methodology which can contribute to misleading results and fail to account for the motivations and severity of the abuse experienced by women (Flood, 1999; Flood, 2006; Johnson, 2006; Kimmel, 2002; Taft, Hegarty, & Flood, 2001). Women's violence towards men tends to be resistant violence that occurs either in self-defence or in retaliation to abuse she is experiencing at the hands of her male partner, while men's violence against women tends to involve more acts of terrorism, control, and extreme violence (Johnson, 2006). The injuries women sustain as a result of domestic violence tend to be more severe than the injuries men sustain, and, male partners are responsible for far greater numbers of intimate partner homicides of women (Kimmel, 2002). These gender disparities play out similarly in New Zealand.

A study by Fanslow and Robinson (2004) found that one out of every three women in New Zealand had experienced physical or sexual violence at the hands of an intimate partner. Men in New Zealand also experience abuse, with data from the New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims indicating that about 1 out of every 5 reported some experience of intimate partner violence (Morris, Reilly, Berry, & Ransom, 2003). Nevertheless, the Family Violence Death Review Committee (2013) found that of all intimate partner related homicides in New Zealand, 76% are committed by men. Men account for the majority of domestic violence arrests and women apply for 90% of protection orders (New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse, 2013a). The effects of

domestic violence on women are far reaching and have profound implications for New Zealand and society overall.

2.1.2 Prevalence of Domestic Violence

Global Prevalence

The World Health Organization estimates the average global prevalence of domestic violence at 30% (Garcia-Moreno et al., 2013). Domestic violence occurs in all countries and at every socioeconomic level. However prevalence does vary drastically from one country to another. The WHO Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women (García-Moreno, Jansen, Ellsberg, Heise, & Watts, 2005) examined the prevalence of domestic violence in ten countries with a broad range of social and cultural settings. The study conducted face-to-face interview surveys of households with a standardised questionnaire, and a total of 24,097 women took part in the study. The researchers found that the percent of women who had ever experienced some form of physical violence from a male partner ranged from 13% to 61% and that the percent of women who had experienced extreme violence (characterised as being burnt, punched, kicked, harmed or threatened with a weapon, among other actions) was between 4% and 49%. The percent of women who experienced sexual violence by their intimate partner was between 6% and 59%. Emotional and psychological abuse was found to have occurred to between 20% and 75% of women across all countries surveyed (García-Moreno et al., 2005). These results demonstrate the pervasiveness of domestic violence in women's lives.

New Zealand Prevalence

There are several studies that look at the prevalence of domestic violence in New Zealand. Results vary between studies, likely due to differences in measurement and methodology, as well as in what types of violence are included in the definitions of domestic violence in the studies. One major study by Fanslow and Robinson (2004) surveyed women with interviews between the ages of 18 and 64 in the Auckland and Waikato regions. The study used a modified version of the questionnaire from the WHO Multi-country Study on Violence Against Women reported the prevalence of physical and/or sexual domestic violence at 36%. This is higher than the prevalence found by the New Zealand National Crime Victimization Survey, which found that 21% of women who had ever had a partner had experienced physical violence in their lifetimes (Morris et al., 2003).

Another study by Koziol-McLain et al. (2004) looked at the prevalence of domestic violence among women who had visited the emergency department for care either for themselves or for a child. The researchers screened 174 women between the ages of 16 and 88 years and found that 44% of them

reported having experienced domestic violence at some point in their lifetimes. The authors explain that this number is higher than the population estimates, as women with experience of domestic violence have a higher likelihood of presenting in the emergency department than women who have not experienced domestic violence. This study does demonstrate that domestic violence has affected a significant number of female emergency patients.

2.1.3 Consequences of Domestic Violence

Health Consequences

García-Moreno et al. (2005) also found that, in every country, women who experienced domestic violence reported having more health issues and poorer health outcomes than women who had never experienced domestic violence. Women who experienced domestic violence had more reported mental health issues or distress, and they were more likely to have considered or attempted suicide. This is supported by other studies that show chronic health problems are positively correlated with experiencing domestic violence (Abramsky et al., 2011; García-Moreno et al., 2005; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003). Women who have experienced domestic violence report experiencing back and head pain along with many neurological problems such as dizziness and fainting (Diaz-Olavarrieta, Campbell, Garcia de la Cadena, Claudia, Paz, & Villa, 1999; McCauley et al., 1995). It is suspected that neurological problems could be because many women report being choked or being hit in the head and losing consciousness, possibly causing lasting physical damage (Campbell, 2002). There are higher rates of chronic stress and anxiety among women who have experienced abuse and they also tend to self-report more infections, migraines, and gastrointestinal distress (Campbell, 2002; Leserman, Li, Drossman, & Hu, 1998). Gynaecological problems are also common among women who have experienced domestic violence (Coker, Smith, Bethea, King, & McKeown, 2000). This increased likelihood of gynaecological problems is observed in victims of domestic violence regardless of whether they had experienced physical, sexual or emotional/psychological abuse (Letourneau, Holmes, & Chasedunn-Roark, 1999). Frequent illness, hospitalisations, mental health issues and long-term disability also have significant financial ramifications for women who experience domestic violence.

Economic Consequences of Domestic Violence

It is difficult to measure the full cost of domestic violence in economic terms. Many of the effects of domestic violence are hard to track. Frequently the violence isn't reported and health affects stemming from domestic violence can often be attributed to other causes. These difficulties in quantifying what costs come from domestic violence are compounded by the fact that many studies examining the economic toll of domestic violence employ different methodologies and include

different categories of costs when calculating total impact (Waters, Hyder, Rajkotia, Basu, & Butchart, 2005). Estimates vary significantly from one study to another, though all studies attempt to be conservative in their calculations.

Several authors categorize the costs of violence according to whether they are direct or indirect (Day, McKenna, & Bowlus, 2005; Laing & Director, 2001; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003; Waters et al., 2005). Day et al. (2005) divided the economic costs of domestic violence into four categories: *direct tangible costs*, *indirect tangible costs*, *direct intangible costs* and *indirect intangible costs*. *Direct tangible costs* are the costs that can be immediately counted from goods and services consumed as a result of the violence. *Indirect tangible costs* are the costs associated with lost potential, such as lost income. *Direct intangible costs* are costs that have no monetary value but come directly from domestic violence, such as pain and suffering. Finally, *indirect intangible costs* are costs that come indirectly from domestic violence and that have no monetary value, such as the emotional impact on children from witnessing domestic violence. Most studies focus on direct and indirect tangible costs, with a few including some estimates of direct intangible costs (Waters et al., 2005).

Day et al. (2005) explain that the costs of domestic violence are shouldered by multiple groups including, victims, perpetrators, witnesses, employers, government and society overall. The costs of violence to individuals and businesses means that in the end, society as a whole is ultimately responsible not only for the costs associated with the resources that must be devoted to caring for victims of domestic violence, but also for the loss in economic stimulus from the taxes victims are no longer contributing to the Gross National Product (GNP) (Access Economics, 2004; Day et al., 2005). Domestic Violence slows economic growth by diverting financial resources that would otherwise have been spent elsewhere, towards goods and services needed to deal with the impact of violence, resulting in lowered standard of living, reduced productivity, and lost investments and savings (Day et al., 2005). Moreover, the damage to the GNP is increased by the economic multiplier effect, which makes the income lost from domestic violence exponentially greater than the initial costs. In other words, each dollar spent on the effects of domestic violence, is a dollar not being invested in or spent on increasing human capital or creating long term interest (Buvinic, Morrison, & Shifter, 1999).

There are several international studies that quantify the economic costs of domestic violence. According to a study from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003) the costs from domestic violence towards women in the U.S. are more than US \$5.8 billion each year. Another study from Canada calculated the economic costs

of domestic violence at CA \$1.5 billion per year (Day, 1995). In Australia costs of domestic violence are estimated to be about AUS \$8.1 billion per year (Access Economics, 2004). UK estimates place the cost of domestic violence at £23 billion British pounds sterling per year (Walby, 2004).

In New Zealand, a study by Snively (1994) looked at the total economic costs of domestic violence, including violence against women and children. Snively examined data from multiple agencies about the costs expended on domestic violence related services and created a comprehensive estimated accounting of the financial impact of domestic violence on New Zealand. Snively estimated that the total costs from domestic violence to the New Zealand economy are approximately NZD \$5.3 billion per year.

On an individual level, victims of domestic violence face severe direct and indirect tangible costs. Consumption of goods as well as savings and effort are changed or eliminated as the result of finances being used to cope with domestic violence, which affects the overall economic wellbeing of victims and their families (Day et al., 2005). Victims are more likely to have medical expenses, have to relocate and pay moving costs, need to replace destroyed property, and pay for legal advice or representation (Day et al., 2005). Women in abusive relationships tend to have a harder time meeting financial demands and experience more difficulty providing for the basic needs of their families than women who are not in abusive relationships. It is not unusual for victims to have trouble paying utilities, experience food insecurity or face eviction or foreclosure on their housing (Adams, Sullivan, Bybee, & Greeson, 2008; Brush, 2004; Romero, Chavkin, Wise, & Smith, 2003; Tolman, Danziger, & Rosen, 2002). This economic insecurity stems both from the financial outputs that are required because of domestic violence as well as the loss of financial inputs that come from decreased income.

In industrialised countries, women comprise approximately 51% of the workforce (Fawole, 2008). Women who experience domestic violence are more likely than women with no experience with domestic violence to have partners who do not want them to work (Tolman, 2011). Abusers interfere with work by taking various steps to limit access to resources or by using violence and harassing behaviour to either stop the woman from working or make working difficult (Adams, Tolman, Bybee, Sullivan, & Kennedy, 2012; Anderson et al., 2003). As a result, victims experience significant losses in wages from taking time off of work and from experiencing job loss, as well as lower overall wages, making them more likely to need financial support through welfare programmes (Tolman, 2011). The NCIPC (2003) estimates that the cost of domestic violence just from lost productivity from employment and household chores costs nearly \$1 billion U.S. annually

for all victims. A study by Smith (2001) found that women who experience domestic violence at any time as an adult earn on average \$3,900 US less per year than women who have never experienced abuse. In another study, Greenfeld et al. (1998) found that American victims lose approximately \$18 million U.S. in income each year. In addition to lost wages the instability created by the abuse often results in women being unable to stay with a single employer for an extended period of time, contributing to significant losses in future promotions, benefits, and fringe perks that come with longer employment (Moe & Bell, 2004). The reasons abusers control resources and attempt to limit women's economic independence are varied and are part of complex models of interactions.

2.2 Theory and Frameworks

In order to understand the impact of domestic violence on workers and the workplace it is crucial to examine the circumstances that contribute to the perpetration of violence against women and how those circumstances interact with the economic and social systems surrounding employment. There are several models that examine the factors involved with domestic violence, many of which focus on the role of gender in the larger sociocultural context. The ecological model is frequently favoured by researchers for examining the factors that contribute to domestic violence (Carlson, 1984; Heise, 1998; Reilly & Gravdal, 2012; World Health Organization/London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, 2010). It is also valuable to look at the organisational structures that play a role in the effects of domestic violence on workers and their workplaces. Gendered organisation theory has been used by several researchers to explain many of the inequalities women experience in the workplace as well as why women are disproportionately affected in the workplace by domestic violence (Acker, 1990; Britton, 2000; Kwesiga, Bell, Pattie, & Moe, 2007; Swanberg, 2004).

2.2.1 The Ecological Model for Domestic Violence

In its World Report on Violence and Health, the World Health Organization explains that the ecological model (see figure 1) is comprised of four interacting levels in which factors can contribute to domestic violence (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg, & Zwi, 2002). These levels are: *individual, relationship, community and societal*. The *individual* level includes anything in a person's background and biology that might increase the possibility of experiencing domestic violence. The *relationship* level includes issues that arise from the associations with people in the immediate circle of friends, family and intimate partners. The *community* level is about the broader relationships people have, such as with their workplaces and schools. The *societal* level includes the macro-level determinants, such as policies, inequalities and social beliefs.

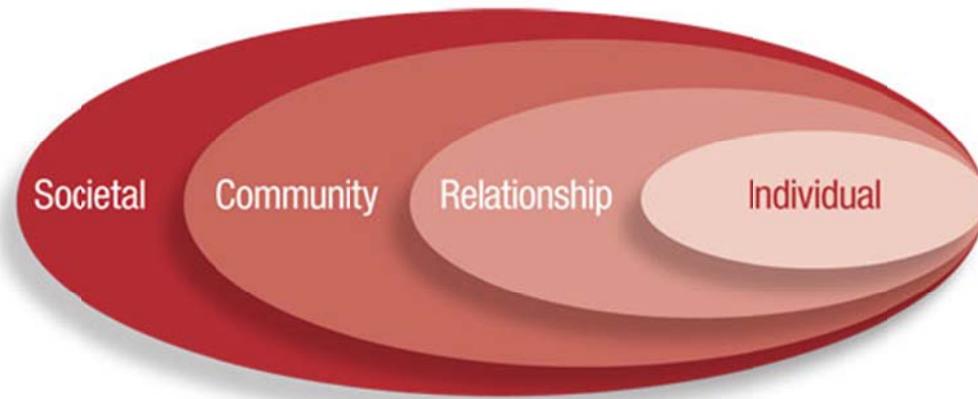


Figure 1: The Ecological Model

From: Dahlberg LL, Krug EG. Violence-a global public health problem. In: Krug E, Dahlberg LL, Mercy JA, Zwi AB, Lozano R, eds. World Report on Violence and Health. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2002:1–56. Reprinted with Permission.

The model is beneficial for understanding domestic violence and the antecedents that influence its continued perpetration in society and against women. It specifically makes space to examine the ways gender inequality and rigid social structures around masculine and feminine roles can potentially create environments where domestic violence is not only common, but accepted. Use of the model makes it easier to see the connections between individual experiences with domestic violence and the larger culture's acceptance of violence. The model also shows how having a history of violence contributes to its perpetuation through families and across multiple generations. The contributing sources of domestic violence can be examined from each level of the model along with the individual risk of experiencing or perpetrating domestic violence. The model emphasises the intricate interactions that take place both independently and simultaneously within each level and between each level. Perhaps most importantly, the model gives a guideline through which interventions can be directed, helping to target specific areas where domestic violence is addressed most easily.

At the *individual* level the WHO (2010) identifies several risk factors for becoming a perpetrator or a victim of domestic violence. Some of these factors include; young age, education level, being abused as a child, and attitudes towards violence. Carlson (1984) explains that understanding the factors contributing to domestic violence at the individual level involves looking at what kinds of experiences and attributes each person has in the relationship. For example, Carlson discusses how the individual resources a person has in a relationship can contribute to violence. As the WHO points out, factors like being young or not having much of an education can play a part in being at risk for violence, which is unsurprising given that a person is likely to have less resources if they are young or uneducated. Carlson further explains that family history is likely one of the significant

influences at the individual level. Having a history of child maltreatment has been shown to increase the likelihood of becoming a perpetrator of domestic violence as an adult for men (Gil-González, Vives-Cases, Ruiz, Carrasco-Portiño, & Álvarez-Dardet, 2008; Jespersen, Lalumière, & Seto, 2009). Likewise, studies have also shown that experiencing violence as a child increases the probability of being a victim of domestic violence in adulthood for women (Martin, Taft, & Resick, 2007; Söchting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004; Vung & Krantz, 2009). Experiences with violence at a young age may influence a person's thinking about violence as an adult and shape their attitude in a way that makes them more accepting of domestic violence (Heise, 1998).

The *relationship* level also presents several unique risk factors for violence. Carlson (1984) suggests that gendered labour division in the home and changes in economic power within the family can contribute to conflict. When one or both partners subscribe to socially constructed concepts of masculinity and gender norms within the relationship, it can generate tension when one of the partners has to step outside of their expected role. Heise (1998) cites a study by Yllo and Straus (1990) that discussed the relationship between patriarchal values in families and domestic violence. Yllo and Straus found that the rate of domestic violence in U.S. states with the most residents who subscribed to conservative patriarchal values, was twice that of states with more residents who subscribed to liberal egalitarian values. Further, attitudes accepting of male dominance and control may contribute to men placing low importance on their relationships with women. Jewkes et al. (2006) reported that when men place little value on connection and relating with their female partners, they are more likely to have several simultaneous sexual relationships. Multiple studies have shown that men who are sexually involved with numerous partners have a higher rate of domestic violence perpetration than those who are monogamous (Abrahams, Jewkes, Hoffman, & Laubsher, 2004; Jewkes et al., 2006; Vung & Krantz, 2009). Finally, Carlson (1984) also notes that when one or both partners in a relationship are socially isolated and lack support from outside sources, the risk for domestic violence increases.

Carlson (1984) explains that formal and informal institutions that create the parameters in which people operate influence the factors that contribute to domestic violence. At the *community* level this can include economic pressures, levels of deprivation and available resources, as well as legal practices and social mores. The WHO (2010) identifies lack of repercussions for domestic violence and poverty as two major factors that contribute to domestic violence on the community level. Several researchers have reported that communities that lack serious legal or cultural prohibitions against domestic violence have higher rates of domestic violence (Abramsky et al., 2011; Harvey, Garcia-Moreno, & Butchart, 2007; Jewkes, 2002). The role of poverty in domestic violence is less clear. Victims of domestic violence come from every social and economic background. However,

living in poverty is known to be a significant risk factor for domestic violence (Heise & Garcia-Moreno, 2002; Jewkes, 2002). It is probable that poverty increases stress and that a lack of resources contributes to conflict within the family (Kiss et al., 2012; Lloyd, 1997; Lloyd & Taluc, 1999). Poverty likely brings together multiple social dynamics that contribute to the experience of domestic violence.

The *societal* level examines the overarching cultural systems and beliefs that influence every aspect of society. Cultural systems that place greater value on men and their roles in society, fostering male dominance and superiority tend to be more permissive and even encouraging of male violence (Taft, Bryant-Davis, Woodward, Tillman, & Torres, 2009). This cultural system of patriarchy enforces strict gender norms on men and women and creates vast inequalities between the genders. Russo and Pirlott (2006) explain that domestic violence by men is legitimated by patriarchy as women are meant to be subordinate and deferent to men. In patriarchal societies, women experience drastic disparities in all sectors of life and experience frequent discrimination and violence at the hands of men (Russo & Pirlott, 2006). Domestic violence serves to maintain systems of male dominance and control and enforces the social and economic restriction of women (Taft et al., 2009).

2.2.2 Gendered Organisation Theory

In many cultures, patriarchal values have influenced how the economic system has been set up and how businesses are organised. Capitalism, as it exists in the current global market place, is very much dependant upon the unpaid or low waged labour of certain segments of the population, frequently, women (S. Wright, 1994). Thus, as women have traditionally been working in the home, business structure has been established around a model that benefits men and takes advantage of his lack of commitments to the care and upkeep of the home and children (Ferree, 1990; Williams, 1999). Acker (1989) explains that with this cultural setup, men were able and expected to engage in paid employment that often made significant demands on their time, keeping them away from the domestic sphere. This meant that for women as a whole, entering the workforce was seen as a burden on men and undesirable by society.

The result of this gendered view of work is that businesses have developed in such a way that values an unencumbered and openly available worker. The demands of the workplace often require employees keep schedules and meet productivity demands that treat them as though work is their sole obligation. According to Swanberg (2004) these demands exist in their current form because employment practices predominantly only recognise a male employee archetype, which is the underpinning of all practices and organisational structures that make up businesses. The classic

employment model does not easily allow for work life balance or make room for female needs, like time off following childbirth or accommodations for breastfeeding (Williams, 1999).

Acker (1990) describes five reasons why a gendered theory of organisations is important. First, the way businesses organise helps to reinforce the way labour is divided between genders. This includes traditional separations placing women in unpaid work while men are in paid work. Next, she explains that these divisions in work by gender contribute to social and economic inequality between men and women. This inequality is contributed to by the fundamental practices of capitalism. Third, according to Acker, social construction of gender is largely produced and distributed through workplace practices. Fourth, Acker explains, some elements of gender identity, particularly masculine gender identity, are created and reinforced by the demands of gendered organisation in business. Lastly, recognising the gendered nature of business helps to address where changes can be made, such as by challenging gendered expectations for work roles, to make employment more equal for all people.

Acker (1990) describes how the gendering of business occurs through the establishment of practices that institutionalise inequalities between men and women. These practices can include the hierarchies of the workplace (which nearly always have men in the top positions), the way work tasks are divided, how performance is evaluated, what kind of worker gets promoted, the gendered way people are expected to dress, and what kind of space people are afforded in the workplace. All of these things serve to emphasise gender differences and legitimate the disparities that are caused by the organisational segregation of men and women. Estébez-Abe (2006) explains that gendered segregation in the workplace can be divided into two categories: *vertical* segregation and *horizontal* segregation. *Vertical* segregation is created by the low numbers of women in high-status positions, such as management jobs, and the high-numbers of women in low-status positions, such as clerical work. *Horizontal* segregation refers to the extreme gendering of certain sectors, leading to women or men being either over or underrepresented, depending on the industry. This segregation is likely due to employers choosing employees based on presumed return for their hiring investment based on the perceived skills of an applicant, which can be strongly influenced by gendered expectations (Estevez-Abe, 2006). These gendered hiring practices and exchanges in the workplaces help create self-identity among workers, which ultimately results in influencing what kind of skill sets and career paths men and women develop and follow (Acker, 1990). This is relevant in today's work market as gendered segregation can easily be observed in the current structures of New Zealand's business organisations. According to the Human Rights Commission's *New Zealand Census of Women's Participation* (2012) there are only five female CEO's among the top 100 companies

listed on the New Zealand stock market (NZSX) and only 55 out of the 100 have a single female director on their boards.

Britton (2000) explains the gendered division of organisations in three main points. The first is that businesses are gendered if characteristics that are defined as male or female are disparately valued and evaluated, creating inequalities in status and resources. For example, certain professions that had been traditionally male-dominated, such as clerical work, have become female-dominated and tend to be professions at the bottom of organisational hierarchy and pay. Second, she argues that individual gender domination of an organisation will create significant gender disparities within a field. This can be seen in the way certain occupations are male or female dominated and how that has transitioned through history. Third, Britton states that businesses are gendered if they are ideologically founded on concepts of strictly distinct masculinities and femininities which contribute to the continuation of gender inequality by valuing skills commonly attributed to men over those attributed to women.

Gendered Organisations and Domestic Violence Among Workers

Research demonstrates how gendered organisation structures create advantages and disadvantages according to whether a person is a man or a woman. Swanberg (2004) conducted a case study of 30 workers employed at a municipal government to examine if and how gendered organisational assumptions affect employee ability to navigate the demands of work and life. She found that gendered organisational practices did contribute to strain for workers attempting to access certain benefits, such as leave or overtime, and that this did result in significant inequalities along gender lines for workers. Swanberg found that assumptions about gender prevented the workplace from responding appropriately to the needs of the workers in regards to their lives outside of work. Despite company policy allowing for leave, managers behaved in ways that demonstrated active dislike towards taking time off. They failed to adequately prepare for employees' impending absences and later evaluated female employees who took leave less favourably than their male counterparts. In other cases, Swanberg also discovered that requests for flex time or telecommuting was denied because management felt that family reasons were not appropriate reasons for those accommodations. Swanberg goes on to explain that since women are usually responsible for the majority of child and home care, dismissing women's concerns about their responsibilities outside of work creates an unfair disadvantage for women in the workplace.

Swanberg's (2004) study demonstrates that businesses can have difficulty creating work life balance for their employees. This trouble meeting the need for a more appropriate level of

accommodation from employers stems largely from workplaces' not taking into consideration the way gendered structures play a part in established practices, policies and cultures (Swanberg, 2004).

Failure to recognise how these practices, policies and cultures are influenced by gendered assumptions also contributes to a lack of workplace responses to domestic violence. With the model for employment established around a male model there has been little reason for businesses to consider the needs of women employees. Under the gendered organisation theory, the needs of female employees would be considered 'extra' or 'other', and beyond the scope of organisational policies. Acker (1990) goes so far as to say that these attitudes continue a cycle of gendered division and ultimately play a large part in the marginalisation of women in society. When domestic violence affects workers and the workplace, it is an extreme example of how the gendered expectations of business organisation fail to account for the needs of women employees, since predominantly the victims of domestic violence are women (Swanberg & Macke, 2006).

Several researchers have found that there is often workplace conflict when domestic violence begins interfering with a women's ability to perform according to expectations in her employment role (Perin, 1999; Rothman & Corso, 2008; Schmidt & Barnett, 2012; Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009). Swanberg and Macke (2006) posit that gendered organisation assumptions mean that employers are unable and unwilling to accept that what happens in an employee's home life will invariably come to work and impact on performance. This perspective contributes to a general lack of awareness around the impacts of domestic violence on workers and the workplace and limits the ways in which businesses are willing to respond to the unique and complex demands of women experiencing domestic violence. This perception leaves victims without potentially valuable support or resources and may rob them of the economic security to seek help and escape their abusive situations. The result of not providing better support for victims is that it is potentially expensive for businesses, as multiple studies have shown that the effects of domestic violence on the workplace are costly (Arias & Corso, 2005; Max, Rice, Finkelstein, Bardwell, & Leadbetter, 2004; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003; Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007; Snively, 1994). Until employers and the public have a broader understanding of how domestic violence impacts the lives of workers and affects the workplace, it is unlikely that workplaces will make wholesale changes to their policies and procedures to protect the employment and safety of women who are abused, as the patriarchal construction of business limits their ability to see that the problem even exists.

2.3 Domestic Violence and Work

There has been very little research about the effects of domestic violence on workers and the workplace in New Zealand. Snively's (1994) study does take into account some of the financial repercussions from lost work attributed to domestic violence in her estimates of the economic costs for New Zealand and there is a study examining the impact of Domestic Violence on Māori women's ability to work (Pouwhare, 1999). However, these studies are both more than 15 years old and are limited in their assessment of domestic violence as a workplace issue. There are also studies examining workplace violence in New Zealand, but these do not specifically mention domestic violence (Bentley, Forsyth, Tappin, & Catley, 2011; Coggan, Hooper, & Adams, 2002). To date, the majority of research exploring the frequency of domestic violence among workers, its impact on workers and the workplace and assessing the policies and procedures pertaining to domestic violence as a workplace issue comes from international sources, mainly the U.S. and Australia.

2.3.1 Effects of Domestic Violence on Workers

Abusive Tactics by Perpetrators of Domestic Violence

Victims of domestic violence experience a range of abusive and disruptive behaviours designed to harm them or interfere with their ability to work. Swanberg, Logan and Macke (2005; 2006) divide the tactics that abusers take into three categories: *sabotage*, *stalking* and *on the job harassment*. They explain that *sabotage* consists of actions the abuser takes to either stop the victim from going to work or cause them to arrive late. These behaviours usually take place while the victim is at home with the abuser. Examples of these types of actions include disabling the car, failing to arrive for childcare or interfering with existing arrangements, hiding or destroying work uniforms or clothes, hiding car keys and even physically restraining or harming the victim (Brandwein & Filiano, 2000; Johnson & Indvik, 1999; Shepard & Pence, 1988; Swanberg et al., 2005). *Stalking* involves the perpetrator behaving in threatening ways directed at the victim (Swanberg et al., 2005; Swanberg et al., 2006). This can include watching the victim while she works, lurking around outside of her workplace, waiting for her after work or meeting her along her route home. *On the job harassment* consists of behaviours that directly interfere with the victim working (Lloyd, 1997; Raphael & Tolman, 1997; Shepard & Pence, 1988; Tolman & Rosen, 2001). It differs from stalking in that harassment involves the perpetrator actually entering the workplace or making contact with the victim in the workplace, whereas stalking involves menacing behaviours just outside of the workplace (Swanberg & Macke, 2006). Harassing behaviours can include making a scene at her workplace, not allowing her to finish her work, and repeatedly calling the victim or the workplace (Brush, 2000; Swanberg & Logan, 2005).

Research in New Zealand by Pouwhare (1999) examined the impact of domestic violence on Māori women's ability to work. Pouwhare interviewed and conducted focus groups with 30 women who were recruited from refuges across New Zealand. Most participants had been in long-term employment and the many were the sole earners of income in their households. She found that the women experienced many different abusive behaviours from the perpetrator aimed at limiting their ability to work including: not following through on promises to provide childcare, harassing the participants at work, threatening the participants' colleagues, destroying work clothes and using physical violence to restrict participants from going to work. While Pouwhare's study focused specifically on Māori women and took into account many of the racial and cultural factors contributing to the marginalisation of Māori women, similar results were seen in international literature.

The Australian Domestic Violence Rights and Entitlements Project (McFerran, 2011a) surveyed 3,611 people from six different employment organisations and unions. The study found that nearly one third of those who participated had personal experience with domestic violence and of them, almost half reported that their ability to get to work was affected. Approximately 67% of those who reported that their ability to get to work was affected said that physical injury or restraint was the reason. Other interference tactics reported by participants included hiding or stealing car keys or transportation money (28%), refusal to show up to care for children (22%) and having personal documents hidden or stolen (21%). Participants also reported that their work performance was impacted, with 16% describing feeling distracted, tired or unwell and 7% reporting being tardy to work. A full 10% of participants reported that it was necessary to take time off from work because of domestic violence. The domestic violence also entered the workplace, with 17% of participants reporting that perpetrators engaged in abusive behaviours while the participants were at work. Abusive behaviours reported to have occurred at the workplace included harassing phone calls and emails, and physically turning up at the workplace.

A study by Swanberg, Macke and Logan (2006) looked at what types of abuse tactics perpetrators engage in to interfere with the work of their victims. The researchers sampled 518 women who had recently become employed and also had current domestic violence orders of protection. They found that 85% of the participants had experienced some kind of work interference by their partners and that the abusers used a variety of tactics to impede women's employment. The most common tactic reported was sabotaging the victim's ability to go to work or find work. Perpetrators frequently stole victims' car keys or transportation money to prevent victims from going to work. When victims were harassed at work, 62% reported they received repeated phone calls, and 40% reported the perpetrator physically turned up at the workplace and harassed or threatened them. Almost half

of those who were physically harassed at work said that it occurred multiple times. Additionally, stalking occurred to 35% of women, the majority of whom reported that it was a recurrent behaviour.

Stalking has been shown to have several unique ramifications for victims. There is evidence to suggest that stalking may make violence at work more likely (Wright et al., 1996). It is believed that the increased risk of violence in the workplace is the result of the fact that, while a woman will usually take precautions to avoid running into her stalker, her workplace is the one place that will generally stay consistent and be a reliable location to find her (Wright et al., 1996). Logan, Shannon, Cole and Swanberg (2007) conducted a study looking at the consequences of stalking on victims' employment. They found that stalked women were significantly more likely to experience harassment and work disruption than those who were not stalked. In other words, although women in abusive relationships who are not stalked do sometimes experience harassment at work, Logan et al. (2007) found that 95% of women who were stalked also experienced harassment and interference in the workplace. Additionally, a study by Nicastro, Cousins and Spitzberg (2000) found that when women were employed at the time they were stalked, their stalkers used significantly more harassing tactics and the stalking continued three times longer than it did for women who were unemployed at the time they were stalked. The physical presence of a perpetrator at the workplace because of stalking or harassment can have severe repercussions, as on rare occasions, perpetrators may become physically violent towards their victims and the victim's co-workers. This can lead to injuries and sometimes even homicide (Tiesman et al., 2012; Tombs, 2007).

While the prevalence and experiences of workplace violence and injuries in New Zealand has been examined (Bentley et al., 2011; Coggan et al., 2002), this literature review found no research in New Zealand that specifically looks at what role domestic violence plays in workplace violence. However, the *Women's Safety Survey*, which was a supplementary study done as part of the *New Zealand Survey of Crime Victims* and gave a more in depth look at women who had experienced violence from their male partners, found that 17% of study participants had experienced stalking by their ex-partners outside their workplace or house (Morris, 1997). This has serious implications for New Zealand women and their workplaces, as international research has shown that partners and ex-partners who stalk are more likely to become physically violent (Bailey et al., 1997; McFarlane, Campbell, & Watson, 2002; Meloy, Davis, & Lovette, 2001; Meloy, 2002). Research by Tiesman et al. (2012) from the United States found that from 2003 to 2008, 33% of homicides of women that occurred while at the workplace were committed by someone the victim was close to, and that of those, 78% were committed by an intimate partner. Tiesman reports that this is particularly

interesting as overall, workplace injuries and fatalities had decreased in the U.S., with the largest declines seen in the area of workplace homicides. However, in the case of the murder of women while at work, the rate had actually gone up, with workplace homicide being a leading cause of occupational death for women in the U.S. (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011).

Abusive actions towards women by perpetrators have effects that reach beyond the immediate impacts she experiences and extend into the work environment. Anyone connected with the victim's workplace could potentially be affected. Witnessing another person experience violence is known to be distressing in and of itself (Bnriing, 1996; Chen, Hwu, Kung, Chiu, & Wang, 2008; Hoel, Sparks, & Cooper, 2001), to say nothing of the trauma that occurs when co-workers and bystanders are harassed, threatened or harmed. Furthermore, given that perpetrators regularly utilise varied and persistent methods to interfere with a woman's work, it is foreseeable that victims would have trouble maintaining regular employment and as a result, experience greater levels of poverty, stress and ill health effects, creating far reaching impacts for the woman, her family, and wider society (Brush, 2000; Brush, 2004; Moe & Bell, 2004; Reeves & O'Leary-Kelly, 2007; Tolman & Rosen, 2001).

Job Stability While Experiencing Domestic Violence

Multiple studies have shown that the abusive behaviours perpetrators engage in have consequences for women's ability to function successfully at work. Victims report feeling distracted, tired and unwell, needing to take time off for medical or legal reasons, being forced to take time off by the abuser, being late for work, and being too upset to work (Crowne et al., 2011; McFerran, 2011a; McFerran, 2011b; Moe & Bell, 2004; Swanberg et al., 2006). In addition, when abusers engage in harassing tactics towards the victim or her co-workers while she is working, there is a higher likelihood that the victim will lose her job or have her working hours reduced to remove the disruption from the workplace (Swanberg & Logan, 2005). Being distracted and unfocused at work can contribute to poor work performance or even workplace accidents, also jeopardising the victim's employment as well as potentially the safety of themselves and those around them (Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009).

The effects of the abusive tactics by the perpetrators on victims' ability to succeed at work are also severe. Many women who had left their abusive partner reported that they were unable to look for work or accept a position because they were afraid their abuser would be able to find them and cause them harm (Logan et al., 2007). Studies have shown that victims of domestic violence have difficulty maintaining consistent employment, as frequently they are forced to resign or have their positions terminated because of the way domestic violence interferes with work (Swanberg et al.,

2006; Swanberg & Logan, 2005). Having a work history that is filled with frequent job changes makes it increasingly difficult to obtain work as time goes on, as many employers are unwilling or unable to take on the cost of hiring and training a new employee, only to have them leave the job shortly thereafter (Swanberg & Macke, 2006).

A study by Lloyd (1997) looked at the results of a survey examining the impact of domestic violence on the ability to be employed. She found that women who had experienced abuse were significantly more likely to have had periods of unemployment and have more health problems than those with no experience of domestic violence. Other studies support this finding. Crowne et al. (2011) found that victims of domestic violence are more likely to experience low employment stability both concurrently with the abuse and also longitudinally six to eight years following their experience with domestic violence. Pouwhare (1999) also found that experiencing domestic violence severely limited the participants' ability to find and maintain employment. Long-term impact from domestic violence on employment has been observed in several studies. Frequently victims of domestic violence see a reduction in annual work hours and have difficulty with job retention for years after the abuse has ended (Browne, Salomon, & Bassuk, 1999; Tolman & Wang, 2005).

Help Seeking

Given the difficulties in maintaining employment that frequently plague victims of domestic violence, it is unsurprising that many women are reluctant to tell their managers or co-workers they are being abused (Swanberg & Macke, 2006; Swanberg et al., 2006). Many businesses are less than supportive of private life issues interfering with work, even when they have stated formal policies surrounding work life balance (Swanberg, 2004). Swanberg, Macke and Logan (2007) explain that business policies and practices centred around assisting employees with issues they may be having in their personal lives are either formal policies or informal practices. When a business hires extra security or gives paid leave that falls under the umbrella of formal policy. When supervisors and co-workers offer support in the form of listening, advice and compassion, it is considered informal practice. Frequently, whether or not a victim of domestic violence is able to access either type of support depends largely on company culture and how steeped in gender divisions the workplace is (Swanberg, 2004). Furthermore, many victims are reluctant to disclose their abuse to their employers out of shame and a deep sense of privacy around the issue of domestic violence (Logan et al., 2007). Nonetheless, ideally workers should have some provisions available to them in the event they do wish to disclose and seek help dealing with abuse.

A study by Swanberg, Macke and Logan (2006) looked at the company responses towards victim disclosure when they were experiencing abuse. The vast majority of participants reported that they did receive some informal support from managers or co-workers to help them deal with the domestic violence they were experiencing. Additionally, 83% of participants reported that they received some formal supports also, the most common of which was some schedule flexibility. The results from this study suggested that victims who disclosed had better employment outcomes, implying that disclosure may offer some protective factors when domestic violence is disruptive in the workplace. It is also possible that having open communication with managers about what was happening prevented the victim from being blamed for losses in productivity or frequent absences. This is supported in another study by Swanberg, Macke and Logan (2007), which looked for the association between domestic violence disclosure and employment status. They found that disclosure was associated with increased level of support and understanding in the workplace and ultimately, increased employment.

Another study by Rothman, Hathaway, Stidsen and de Vries (2007) examined the ways employment helps victims of domestic violence. They identified six ways employment assists victims: improving their finances, promoting physical safety, increasing self esteem, improving social connectedness, providing mental respite, and providing motivation or a 'purpose in life'. Rothem et al. found that the economic security provided by employment gave victims a stronger sense of self and feelings of competence. Furthermore, the researchers found that the workplace acted as a respite from their abusers, with stretches of time where they had physical safety and could make plans to leave their abusive relationships. The fact that employment and the subsequent economic security that arises from employment, helps to create pathways out of the violence is significant because research has shown that when victims rely on their abusers for financial support, they are more likely to stay in the abusive situation (Tolman & Wang, 2005).

2.3.2 Economic Costs of Domestic Violence to Employers

Employers also shoulder economic and resource costs associated with domestic violence. As discussed in previous sections, workers experiencing domestic violence frequently have to take time off from work, are tardy, change jobs often and have decreased concentration leading to poor productivity (Johnson & Gardner, 2000; Swanberg & Logan, 2005). A U.S. study by Fitzgerald, Dienemann and Cadorette (1998) reported that productivity by victims of domestic violence is reduced by as much as 49%. Reeves and O'Leary-Kelly (2007) found that the loss in individual employee productivity lead to greater overall organisational losses in productivity. They also found that the average expenditure output from businesses per employee resulting from missed work was higher for victims of domestic violence than for employees who were not victims. The effects of

domestic violence on both physical and mental health can also cause employers to have to increase expenditure on certain benefits, such as health-insurance premiums as well as sick and annual leave benefits (Bell, Moe, & Schweinle, 2002). In addition to the direct costs and losses to businesses that come from within the organisation, business can also suffer from a damaged reputation and the loss of clients when the quality of goods or services being bought is affected or, more drastically, when an abuser disrupts or harms people at the workplace (Duda, 1997). Johnson (2000) cites an article by Levin (1995) in which it was estimated that domestic violence cost employers U.S \$3 to \$5 billion dollars annually.

There are also costs for co-workers of victims of domestic violence. When victims have to take time from work, their responsibilities must then be given to co-workers, thereby increasing the colleague's workload, which can potentially decrease their productivity (Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009). Co-workers also often provide emotional support and advice to victims, and will sometimes be the ones who intervene if an abuser is harassing a victim at work (Johnson & Gardner, 2000; Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009). This would almost certainly cause some level of trauma and which could potentially have financial repercussions for both the co-worker and the company with which they are employed.

Another area that is frequently overlooked when examining the impact of domestic violence on businesses is the cost of employing perpetrators. Most studies focus on the resources needed to address domestic violence for victims. However, perpetrators place significant burden on businesses due to using work time or equipment to engage in abusive behaviours (Widiss, 2008). A study by Rothman and Corso (2008) examined whether there was a relationship between being a perpetrator of domestic violence and work absenteeism and loss in productivity. They found that even when controlling for factors like education, income, marital status, and age, perpetration of domestic violence was correlated with missed work and decreased productivity. Specifically, 75% of abusers missed at least one day of work and 46% reported being late for reasons related to engaging in domestic violence. These reasons included going to court or speaking with the police. Additionally, 78% of abusers reported that they used work time and resources to threaten or harass their victims. Most abusers in this study stated that they faced no repercussions at work for their actions, rather their employers were supportive of them and sometimes provided assistance including posting bail or speaking on the abuser's behalf in court. Research by Schmidt and Barnett (2012) found similar results in their study looking at the relationship between abusers' use of workplace resources and their perpetration of abuse. They found that one third of their participants took either paid or unpaid days from work to either engage in abuse or deal with issues stemming from being abusive, such as going to court.

Another potential problem for businesses that is associated with domestic violence occurs when actual physical violence takes place in the workplace. The victim's place of work is a place that she arrives to and leaves from at the same time everyday. It is the one place where she can be located reliably, either by phone or in person (Levin, 1995; Logan et al., 2007). Perin (1999) explains that when violence comes into the workplace, the victim is not the only person who is affected and she is often not the only person who is targeted or harmed. In the U.S., domestic violence accounted for a significant amount of workplace violence every year. According to Zachery (1998) 13,000 cases of violence occur on worksites as a result of domestic violence each year. Given how pervasive domestic violence is, the problem of it spilling over into the workplace is almost certainly not isolated to the U.S. (Johnson & Gardner, 2000).

2.3.2 Workplace Interventions

Why Workplaces Should Respond

The workplace provides an ideal place to focus interventions and raise awareness since the workplace is a location that managers and co-workers have sustained interaction with victims who are removed from their abusers for several hours in a day (Murray & Powell, 2007; Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009). Employers have the opportunity to reach a significant number of victim because even though abusers often do not want their victims to work and engage in tactics interfering with work, many victims are nonetheless involved in paid employment out of necessity to support their families (Allard, Albelda, Colten, & Cosenza, 1997; Pouwhare, 1999). The workplace may see signs of domestic violence in the forms of poor work performance and tardiness without the victim ever disclosing the violence. It is possible that it could be helpful for managers and co-workers to know the signs and symptoms of domestic violence in order to offer assistance through the workplace (McFarlane et al., 2000).

Having policies in place to recognise and support victims can help limit the costs associated with domestic violence by helping victims to stay in paid employment and eliminate the need to hire and train new employees (Crowne et al., 2011; Moe & Bell, 2004). Furthermore, with economic security and access to domestic violence resources, victims are more likely to be able to leave their abusive situations, limiting the financial losses due to poor work performance, distraction, and absenteeism (Murray & Powell, 2007; Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009). However, despite the costs associated with domestic violence for employers, most workplaces do not have explicit policies designed to deal with the repercussions of violence or provide resources to victims (Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009).

A study by the Corporate Alliance to End Partner Violence (2007) surveyed a random sample of 200 CEOs and 500 employees of Fortune 1500 companies in the U.S. The study found that while most CEOs and employees believe domestic violence is a serious social problem and believe it can have harmful effects for the workplace, CEOs were shown to drastically underestimate the impact of domestic violence in their company. Most CEOs believed that approximately six per cent of their employees were victims or survivors of domestic violence, while employees estimated the number to be nearly 18%. This research makes clear that employees recognise that domestic violence impacts a much larger portion of their co-workers than CEOs realise.

According to Widiss (2008) the lack of awareness among CEOs of the domestic violence experienced by employees leads to underestimation of the costs associated with lost productivity, absenteeism, and employee turnover as a result of domestic violence and contributes to the lack of policies designed to deal with the impacts of domestic violence. Researchers know that victims often feel intense shame and embarrassment about experiencing domestic violence and feel fear of losing their job, creating the desire to keep abuse secret (Logan et al., 2007). Ultimately this reinforces the belief among CEOs that domestic violence is rarer than it is among employees in their companies (Widiss, 2008). Compounding the issue of underestimation of prevalence, is the issue of overestimation of risk. Widiss goes on to explain that high profile cases of extreme violence in the workplace may lead to employers overestimating the risk of an attack when they discover they have an employee experiencing domestic violence. This belief, along with any noticed harassing or stalking activity by a perpetrator, often leads to employers simply firing victims (Widiss, 2008).

Examples of and Suggestions for Interventions

There are several examples of U.S. companies that have taken steps to address the effects of domestic violence on the workplace and for employees. Companies such as Liz Claiborne, Polaroid, and Dupont, have engaged in active awareness-raising campaigns, implemented manager training programs, funded research, and provided counselling through Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) (Levin, 1995). The Digital Equipment Corporation, a company with 25,000 employees, sends emails to staff with information about domestic violence and a list of community resources for victims from all over the U.S. (Gardner, 1997). Harman International Industries Incorporated requires training on domestic violence for all 3,000 of its employees, consults with security personal about domestic violence issues, and provides a system of referrals to resources for victims (Sherve, 2004). All of these companies have policies and practices in place aimed at minimising the risks and costs associated with domestic violence while giving parameters for actions and resources to managers and employees about how to handle domestic violence situations

should they arise. The policies remove the shroud of secrecy around domestic violence, encourage victims to seek help, and managers to recognise signs of abuse (Woodward, 1998). It is important to note, that while these programmes are often cited as examples of excellent workplace interventions, there was no literature found for this review that examined their effectiveness.

Maggio (1996) outlines the importance of establishing workplace policies regarding workplace violence, particularly domestic violence. Maggio explains that training and raising awareness helps to give managers and employees the knowledge necessary to recognise the signs of issues that may lead to workplace violence or conflict. Having familiarity with domestic violence issues helps contribute to the skills needed to communicate effectively about the issue and helps those in leadership positions respond appropriately to the needs of employees. Woodward (1998) explains that in addition to knowledge of domestic violence, managers need clearly defined guidelines detailing their responsibilities pertaining to the identification, referrals and support of domestic violence victims. Woodward goes on to describe how managers are not responsible for providing solutions for an employee's problems with domestic violence, but that policies can give strategies on how to approach a suspected victim or how to deal with workplace harassment from perpetrators. Finally, Woodward also points out that actions as simple as making EAP contact information easily accessible and domestic violence resources visible can provide employees with a tremendous amount of support while increasing the likelihood they will seek assistance.

2.3.3 Legislative Interventions

Though there are examples of businesses taking proactive steps to deal with the impacts of domestic violence on workers and the workplace, it is still not widely accepted that domestic violence is a workplace issue (Swanberg, Ojha, & Macke, 2012). Reeves and O'Leary-Kelly (2007) explain that unless businesses understand the financial and resource costs associated with domestic violence and find that it is in their financial interests, they are not likely to institute policies explicitly dealing with domestic violence. Thus, legislative policies play an important part in incentivising employers to develop practices protecting the rights and safety of workers.

Swanber, Ojha and Macke (2012) divide legislative policies regarding domestic violence as a workplace issue into three broad categories: *work leave policies*, *antidiscrimination employment policies*, and *workplace awareness and safety policies*. These policies encompass a wide range of actions and protections governments can enforce to ensure workplaces don't violate the rights of domestic violence victims. *Work leave policies* allow employees to request time off to take care of any issues related to domestic violence such as medical or legal appointments, moving house, or going to court. *Antidiscrimination employment policies* protect employees experiencing domestic

violence from being discriminated against in the workplace such as being penalised or fired for being a victim. *Workplace awareness and safety policies* force businesses to provide training or education for managers about the rights of domestic violence victims and safety measures for employees.

Several states in the U.S. have legislation ensuring work leave policies in workplaces. California, Colorado, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Kansas, Maine, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, and Washington all have domestic violence leave laws ensuring victims can take time off from work to attend to legal issues pertaining to domestic violence (Swanberg et al., 2012; Widiss, 2008). In Australia, as of July 2013, the Fair Work Act (2009) allows victims of domestic violence to negotiate for a 'flexible working arrangement' with their employers (Tobin & Vipond, 2013). Work leave policies are beneficial in that they can be drafted to allow leave allotments for needs outside of medical or legal appointments, such as to move house or meet with social workers. They protect employees from workplace sanctions resulting from having to take excess time off and ensure that other benefits, such as holiday time and sick time are not depleted (Widiss, 2008).

Antidiscrimination employment policies provide job security and prevent employers from reacting with prejudice against victims as the result of the victim's situation (Widiss, 2008). Most of these laws prevent employers from firing workers because of their victim status or because they request time off to deal with domestic violence related issues. These laws are often crafted as part of antidiscrimination legislation or are added onto existing legislation and establish 'victim of domestic violence' as a protected class of person (Widiss, 2008). For example, in Australia the Racial Discrimination Act 1975, the Sex Discrimination Act 1984, the Disability Discrimination Act 1992, the Age Discrimination Act 2004 and Australian Human Rights Commission Act 1986 are all pieces of legislation that provide protections to workers based on certain attributes (Smith & Orchiston, 2011). Smith and Orchiston (2011) argue that gender, family responsibilities, and disability are all characteristics that can be used to argue for employment protections for domestic violence victims under existing antidiscrimination legislation in Australia. A similar argument could be made for domestic violence victims in New Zealand under the Human Rights Act 1993. In the U.S. examples of states with antidiscrimination laws directly pertaining to domestic violence are seen in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois and Kansas among others (Swanberg et al., 2012; Widiss, 2008). Many of these states also impose fines on workplaces should they be found noncompliant with the laws (Swanberg et al., 2012).

Another important area covered by antidiscrimination employment policies is unemployment benefits. In the U.S., women who become unemployed because of domestic violence may be

denied unemployment insurance if it is found that they quit or were fired ‘with good cause’, or denied welfare benefits if they are unable or unwilling to look for new work (Swanberg et al., 2012). In Australia, ‘Welfare to Work’ policies have pushed many women into low paid more insecure work and off of government assistance (Franzway, Zufferey, & Chung, 2007). Currently in New Zealand unemployment benefits have undergone reforms changing them to Job Seeker Support, requiring those in need of assistance to actively look for a new job. While there are some exceptions in place for health or disability, there are none explicitly outlined for domestic violence victims (Work and Income New Zealand, 2013). This can have disastrous consequences for women who lose their jobs because of domestic violence and cannot seek government assistance to buffer the loss in income. Wetterstein et al. (2004) argue that many women find it difficult to look for work following experiences with domestic violence as they have higher rates of emotional distress and medical issues. Furthermore, women who have experienced stalking, or threats of violence may be reluctant or fearful of becoming employed if it means that their abuser will know where to find them (Logan et al., 2007). As a result of unemployment and a lack of governmental assistance, victims of domestic violence have a higher chance of finding themselves experiencing food insecurity or homelessness (Tolman & Rosen, 2001).

In response to domestic violence being a cause of job loss and barriers preventing victims from looking for and achieving work, 30 U.S. states have instituted laws allowing victims who have lost their jobs to claim unemployment benefits and exempting them from having to search for new work to receive unemployment benefits under certain provisions (Swanberg et al., 2012). In addition, the U.S. Federal Government also put in place the Family Violence Option 1996 (FVO) to the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA) 1996, which allowed states to recognise domestic violence as an impediment to work, exempting victims from some of the requirements of PRWORA, and ensuring they can access Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) (Smith, 2001).

In addition to legislation protecting domestic violence victims against discrimination and ensuring leave for victims, several U.S. states (New York, Illinois and Oklahoma) have enacted workplace awareness and safety policies that also require employers to provide training to employees and managers about the rights of domestic violence victims and available resources (Swanberg et al., 2012). Resources can include having pamphlets or posters up detailing domestic violence policies and rights as well as information or training outlining community domestic violence organisations and EAPs (Swanberg et al., 2012; Widiss, 2008). Legislation can also require that businesses have safety provisions in place and institute policies prohibiting perpetrators from entering the victim’s workplace (Widiss, 2008).

According to Swanberg et al. (2012) there are also ten U.S. states that have begun allowing businesses to apply for restraining orders against perpetrators of domestic violence, similar to the protection orders victims receive. These restraining orders take the onus off victims to prevent perpetrators from harassing or disrupting the workplace and ensure protection of the workplace. Swanberg et al. explain that employers can apply for a restraining order regardless of whether or not a victim has a current protection order; however, many states do require that there has been a credible threat towards an employee. Restraining orders provide protection for workers anytime they are at the workplace or somewhere that work is performed. These restraining orders also have the added benefit of reframing a perpetrator's harassing behaviour as being a crime against the workplace, rather than just against an individual employee, making it clear that the problem is caused by the perpetrator and not the victim (Widiss, 2008).

2.4 Summary of Literature

2.4.1 Main Points

Domestic violence is a social issue that can affect anyone. However, it predominately impacts women, who are victimised through physical, sexual or psychological and emotional violence by their male intimate partners. The costs associated with domestic violence for society are high and difficult to calculate. Nonetheless, it is known that domestic violence costs billions in legal fees, health costs, and support resources. Victims experience profound effects on their physical and mental health as well as experience economic impacts that ultimately affect the GNP of a nation.

It is known that financial security plays a vital role in the ability of victims to leave an abusive situation. For this reason, employment can be an important element in a victim's pathway out of violence. In spite of this fact, research has shown that women experiencing domestic violence have difficulty maintaining steady employment. Perpetrators often interfere with a victim's ability to work and engage in tactics to disrupt her workplace or harass her while she is at work. These behaviours often result in the victim being late or absent from work, her productivity and attention at work to suffer, and ultimately often lead to her quitting or being fired from her job.

For workplaces, domestic violence can be an expensive problem. Domestic violence increases the likelihood that they will experience losses in productivity and have to deal with the costs associated with hiring and training new employees. Workplace morale may be affected when one employee is consistently failing to meet their work obligations and causing the workload to increase for other employees. Furthermore, on rare occasions, domestic violence can lead to actual physical acts of violence happening in the workplace to the main victim and even to co-workers and clients.

The economic and resource impacts of domestic violence on workers and the workplace could possibly be prevented through effective intervention strategies and policies aimed at raising awareness of domestic violence as a workplace issue and providing support for victims. These policies could be put in place legislatively or through individual workplace action. Legislatively, victims could be guaranteed leave time or protected through non-discrimination laws. At the workplace level, staff can be trained to recognise the signs of domestic violence and accommodations can be made to assist victims. Research plays an important role in helping to direct what policies or actions would be most helpful to victims and workplaces.

2.4.2 Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths

The current literature demonstrates that much has been done in this area of research. There is an increasing awareness of and interest in domestic violence as a workplace issue. There are theoretical frameworks in which to understand the contributing factors that play a role in the impacts of domestic violence on workers and their employers. The costs associated with domestic violence have been quantified by multiple studies internationally (Access Economics, 2004; Day, 1995; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003; Snively, 1994; Walby, 2004), many of which include estimates of the impact on workers and the workplace (Access Economics, 2004; National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003; Snively, 1994). This research has contributed to an increased recognition of the prevalence of domestic violence in overall populations and specifically among workers. The importance of these studies should not be underestimated; as they show the profound implications domestic violence has on the financial well-being of victims and their workplaces, as well as the overall economic implications for the GNP of a country. Ultimately, this research has given a clear rationale for response to domestic violence in the workplace and has led to some employers implementing policies to counter the effects of domestic violence and support employees who are victims (Gardner, 1997; Levin, 1995).

Weaknesses

Despite the clear strengths in the presented research, serious gaps remain. The majority of the research focuses on the effects of employing victims of domestic violence. There was very little found examining the impact that abusers have on the workplace or their contributions to economic and resource costs. Furthermore, while there are several examples of workplaces with policies aimed at addressing the effects of domestic violence, most of those are also directed towards victims with next to no literature examining workplace interventions directed towards perpetrators. This fact could be because there are so few workplace programmes to begin with that there are only an infinitesimal number aimed at perpetrators. However, without more research, there is no way to

know. Additionally, while by all accounts the interventions that are mentioned in the literature are seen as positive, this review found no evaluations of their effectiveness or of how well they had been integrated into workplace culture. Swanberg's (2004) study demonstrated that even when employers have stated policies surrounding work life balance and personal issues, employers can have some difficulty creating an atmosphere conducive to employees utilising those benefits. Finally, there is a large gap in the literature surrounding this subject that is set in the New Zealand context. This literature review found only one other study examining the impacts of domestic violence on workers in New Zealand (Pouwhare, 1999). Though Pouwhare's study provided valuable insight, there is still much unknown about the situation in New Zealand.

2.5 The Present Study

2.5.1 Development of the Present Study

Internationally there are many players involved in developing the work in this area. Governments create legislation that protects the rights of victims, fund research about domestic violence as a workplace issue and fund resources for victims. They can also play a role in helping to raise awareness among employers. Businesses, such as Polaroid and Liz Claiborne, have shown that workplaces can be responsive to research and legislation by creating policies that raise awareness among staff, support victims, and encourage disclosure. Businesses can also help fund as well as participate in research. Unions have the ability to collectively bargain for the interests of workers to get entitlements regarding domestic violence implemented as part of workers' employment contracts. Domestic violence advocates can encourage unions and workplaces to be responsive to the needs of victims and campaign for collective acknowledgement of domestic violence as a workplace issue. Finally, researchers play a vital role in bringing attention to this issue. The research demonstrates that there is a clear impact from domestic violence on work and subsequently on the economic productivity of society.

The role of research in directing change is especially apparent when examining the work done in Australia. The Australian Domestic Violence Rights and Entitlements Project was an eighteen month project with the objectives of promoting the implementation of domestic violence entitlements for workers across Australia (McFerran, 2011a). The resulting advocacy from the project has helped lead to some of the world's most progressive collectively bargained domestic violence workplace policies, with nearly 1.2 million workers receiving 20 days of paid leave for domestic violence related issues (Rea, 2013). Ludo McFerran, the director of the Domestic Violence Rights and Entitlements Project, has campaigned internationally for the rights of workers who are victims of domestic violence and spoken at several international conferences and organisations, including two workshops in New Zealand in November of 2012. Her advocacy, as

well as the success of the Workplace Rights and Entitlements Project, has contributed to the growing interest in domestic violence as a workplace issue for New Zealand workers and played a role in the impetus for the development of the present study. The PSA has taken a lead with advocating for awareness of impacts of domestic violence on workers and the workplace and was interested in undertaking a project similar in scope to the Australian research by McFerran. This lead to the development of a partnership between the PSA and the New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse for the purposes of conducting the research for this study.

2.5.2 Study Objectives

This literature review demonstrates that much is known internationally about the effects of domestic violence on workers and the workplace and that there have been efforts to address the problems domestic violence creates for workers and employers. However, it is clear that there is a substantial gap in the literature about the types of impacts domestic violence has on employment and businesses in New Zealand.

With this gap in mind, the present study had three aims; to work with the New Zealand Public Service Association to survey members of their association to: first, assess the frequency of domestic violence among workers; second, assess the impact of domestic violence on worker productivity, absenteeism, and impaired work performance; and third, gain an understanding of current workplace policies, procedures and attitudes surrounding the needs of workers experiencing domestic violence.

Among the PSA sample, the specific study questions were:

1. Who are the workers that experience domestic violence in New Zealand?
 - What is the prevalence of domestic violence among the working population?
 - What are the demographic characteristics of victims and perpetrators?
 - In which sector, role and employment type are victims most represented?
 - How long ago did the domestic violence take place?
 - Are victims still living with their perpetrators?

2. What are the impacts of domestic violence on work?
 - Did domestic violence affect the victims' ability to get to work?
 - Did domestic violence have an effect in the workplace?
 - What kind of behaviours did perpetrators engage in to interfere with work?
 - Was work performance affected by the domestic violence?
 - Were co-workers affected by the domestic violence?

3. What kind of help seeking do victims engage in at the workplace?
 - Did victims disclose the domestic violence to co-workers or managers?
 - What were the reasons that stopped victims from disclosing?
 - What were the outcomes when they did disclose?
 - Who was the most helpful when domestic violence was disclosed?
 - What kind of policies or practices would offer the most support and assistance to victims in the workplace?

Chapter 3: Methods

This chapter will detail the methods used to conduct this study by describing the methodology, participants, the materials, the procedure and the data analysis.

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 Choosing a Research Method

The purpose of this project was to look at the association between the experience of domestic violence and its impact on the workplace and employment. Primarily this analysis required a quantitative approach to assess what actions and behaviours workers were engaging in and experiencing. However, since this study was also interested in employee attitudes and opinions about the impact of domestic violence on workers and the workplace, there was also a need for qualitative analysis as well. As such, it was important to use a study method that allowed for a significant amount of data to be collected to satisfy both objectives. For this reason an analytical descriptive methodology was employed with the use of a questionnaire.

A literature review of research methods by Baker (2000) found that surveys are a preferred method of research when the goal is to analyse behaviour, attitudes, and opinions of a population by looking at a representative group of that population. Baker found that surveys offer a high level of versatility in what can be researched and that surveys can yield comprehensive data. In an article examining the usefulness of surveys in descriptive research, Hart (1987) explains that questionnaires are particularly beneficial when both qualitative and quantitative data is sought, noting that a single survey is able to examine a wide range of concepts.

It is important to determine what concepts the research is examining and what type of questions fit within the study objectives (Aday & Cornelius, 2011). Equally as important as the concepts the study was examining, was how best to ask the questions. Mayer (1965) divides surveys into three categories: factual surveys, which look at actual actions or behaviour; opinion surveys, which look at feelings and attitudes on a subject; and interpretive surveys, which look at the reasons underpinning opinions. The type of questions needed for this project had to supply both factual information, such as demographic data and descriptions of experiences with abuse, as well as opinion information, such as subjective feelings about experiences with abuse.

Another important consideration when using a survey as a research method is how to administer the questionnaire. Aday and Cornelius (2011) explain that surveys can be administered either by interviewers in person or on the telephone, or they can be self-administered. Self-administration

can take place with pen and paper through mail or in person or through a web-based system such as email.

3.1.2 Web-Based Research

With the proliferation of the Internet into most workplaces and homes, using web-based research is a versatile and easy way to reach a large audience while incurring minimal costs in terms of time and finances. Usually web-based research takes the form of an online survey that is posted either on a website or sent through email with a form to be filled out and sent back or with a coded URL linking participants to the survey (Fricker, Galesic, Tourangeau, & Yan, 2005). Web-based research is not without drawbacks. Namely, issues with sampling bias and response rate are often identified by researchers as being of concern. Nevertheless, despite the potential drawbacks of online research, it is used frequently and has become common in some disciplines (van Gelder, Bretveld, & Roeleveld, 2010).

Strengths of Web-Based Research

The increased use of online questionnaires coincides with increased Internet connectivity (Benfield & Szlemko, 2006). It is estimated that there are more than 2 billion people using the Internet worldwide, and that roughly 80% of homes and 94% of businesses have Internet access in New Zealand (Nardi, 2003; Statistics New Zealand, 2012; Statistics New Zealand, 2013b). This wide spread use of the Internet has made web-based research attractive as it provides a flexible, convenient and inexpensive platform. Research by Kwak and Radler (2002) found that the data quality from web-based research tends to be slightly better than the data quality from mail-in research, with fewer nonresponse items and more detailed open-ended responses. This may be because study participants can complete surveys according to their own schedules, with submission being mostly effortless and nearly instant. This has the added benefit of making turnaround time on web-based questionnaires usually faster than for those done through mail (Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Couper, Blair, & Triplett, 1999; Kwak & Radler, 2002). Additionally, web-based surveys incur less cost, as the need for postage, stationary and travel are eliminated (Hailu & Rahman, 2012). The reduced costs also make reminders to encourage participation more feasible and often programming can also allow researchers to see who has not yet responded to a survey (van Gelder et al., 2010).

Surveys done through web-based systems can usually be created quickly and with relative ease either through existing survey software or by someone with programming knowledge (Solomon, 2001). There is also the added benefit of being able to program in branching questions so that skips are followed correctly and participants only answer the questions relevant to them (Evans &

Mathur, 2005). Many researchers also find that it is easier to provide additional detailed information about their studies and about questions contained within the survey through the use of built in links or popups (van Gelder et al., 2010). This way participants are able to seek clarification on topics they are unsure of, whereas they might not be able to do this with a pen and paper survey. Another advantage is that the need for data entry of results can sometimes be eliminated as it can often be exported directly into a statistical program, therefore reducing transcription errors (Tingling, Parent, & Wade, 2003).

There is debate about whether or not web-based surveys increase or decrease response rates. Some research has found that response rates are adequate with online questionnaires (Braithwaite, Emery, De Lusignan, & Sutton, 2003; Cobanoglu et al., 2001; Yun & Trumbo, 2000). Response rates to web-based surveys have improved drastically since early usage and it is likely that as Internet access becomes faster, more consistent and ubiquitous, response rates to online surveys will continue to increase (Smith, Smith, Gray, & Ryan, 2007). Several studies have also found that participants have a preference for online questionnaires over classic pen and paper surveys or telephone surveys (Akl, Maroun, Klocke, Montori, & Schünemann, 2005; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Gunn, 2002). It is also important to note that as web-based surveys have become more common, techniques to improve response rates have been developed or modified from practices used with pen and paper surveys (Swoboda, Mühlberger, Weitkunat, & Schneeweiß, 1997; Yun & Trumbo, 2000). However, the literature is ambiguous on whether response rates with online surveys is better or worse than traditional pen and paper surveys.

Weaknesses of Web-Based Research

Many researchers feel that web-based surveys have consistently poor response rates (Couper et al., 1999; Schuldt & Totten, 1999; Sheehan & McMillan, 1999; Sheehan, 2001; Swoboda et al., 1997). In an email survey, Swoboda et al. (1997) had a response rate of 21%. Couper et al. (1999) found an email response rate of 43% versus a 71% response rate with regular mail. Schuldt and Totten (1994) found similarly disappointing email response rates with only 19% of participants returning questionnaires through email, compared with 57% through regular mail. One of the reasons researchers postulate as to why web-based surveys often have lower response rates is because online questionnaires have become common and have lost their novelty to people (Sheehan, 2001). Another reason considered by Dillman and Bowker (2001) is that as internet technology has become more accessible to populations, there is a wider range of people to sample from. In the early days of web-based research, samples were drawn from people who had consistent Internet access, such as university students, people in certain businesses or people who had an interest in internet technology and were therefore more likely to respond (Dillman & Bowker, 2001). With the

proliferation of the Internet into most people's day-to-day lives, there are more casual users of web technology with less specialised interest in the Internet, which may make them less likely to respond to online surveys.

Other potential weaknesses of web-based research are issues with sampling and coverage. With sampling and coverage errors there is the possibility that the sample is not representative of the population being studied. Some researchers have suggested that the population of people with Internet access, while expanding, is not representative of society as a whole (Evans & Mathur, 2005; Hailu & Rahman, 2012; Skitka & Sargis, 2006; Wilson & Laskey, 2003). There are still multiple populations who lack internet access either for financial reasons, living in an area that doesn't have a service provider, or simply opting not to have a connection (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, & John, 2004). This bias in sampling can affect the ability to generalise results as regardless of sample size there will be groups that are excluded or over represented (Tingling et al., 2003). However, there are other researchers who have found that web-based surveys are not any more likely than other survey techniques to have sampling bias as all survey methods produce some amount of bias (Fricker et al., 2005; Smith, 1997). It has been suggested that the effects of these sampling issues can be combated by using large sample sizes and polling from populations with known demographics and then applying the results to comparable groups in the wider population (Fricker et al., 2005).

3.2 Participants

3.2.1 Population

In the present study participants were recruited from the email rolls of the PSA, which is an organisation with an abundance of information about its membership and a large population from which to sample. The PSA represents approximately 58,000 New Zealand workers and is New Zealand's largest union. Membership is divided into six sectors representing various areas of public service. These sectors are: community public services; district health boards; local government; public service; state sector, and associate members. The membership numbers of each sector are shown in table 1.

Table 1 Percentage of Members in Each PSA Sector

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
PSA Membership (n=58,000)		
Public Service	20925	36.1
District Health Boards	16374	28.2
State Sector	8023	13.8
Local Government	5892	10.2
Community Public Services	4398	7.6
Associate Members	2388	4.1

Each sector covers varying employment rolls. The Community Public Services includes jobs in areas such as non-government organisations, disability support workers and individuals working in publically funded social and community services. District health board membership is made up primarily of allied health professionals, such as physiotherapists and dental therapists, and those in clerical roles. It also includes mental health nurses, but not general registered nurses. Local government includes employees of councils and council controlled organisations. The public service sector consists of public service departments, such as the Ministry of Education, non-public service departments, such as defence, and offices of parliament. The state sector is comprised of crown entities, crown research institutes, state owned enterprises and former state agencies. Finally, there are also associate members who make up the smallest sector of the PSA and are mostly retired members and non-financial members such as people on parental leave.

3.2.2 Sample Size

The sample size was determined by the PSA based on their desire to obtain information about all sectors across the breadth of their membership without placing undue time demands on members and employers by inviting the total membership to participate. The survey was sent to a random sample of 10,000 PSA members. Of the 10,000 members invited to participate, 1,638 completed the survey. Twelve participants were excluded because they did not reply about domestic violence or were not the victim of domestic violence. Of the twelve excluded participants, nine responded about workplace bullying, one was concerning an abusive client, one responded about being abused by a social worker, and one identified himself as a perpetrator. This left the final number of responses at 1,626.

3.3 Questionnaire

3.3.1 Overview

Because this study was aiming to achieve generalisability to workers in New Zealand, it was necessary to distribute the questionnaire to a large number of people. This meant that due to time and labour constraints, interviews were not possible. Moreover, it was also important to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of participants. Therefore it was decided that a self-administered

survey was the most appropriate option for this study. In the present study, the PSA had email addresses of their members and had the IT expertise to design and host an online survey on their servers so a web-based approach was utilised.

This study used a series of closed and open-ended question types. The closed questions examined demographic information, specific experiences, and specific behaviours. The open-ended questions focused on the participants' attitudes and opinions about their experiences. However, many of the closed questions also had space for participants to include their own words if they wanted to add something more or different from the options offered.

The questionnaire was modified from the Domestic Violence Workplace Rights and Entitlements Project survey (McFerran, 2011a). There was an interest in keeping the questionnaire similar to the Australian survey for the sake of international comparability. The modified survey (see appendix A) used in this project had eight sections and collected data on the following: *demographic profile, experience of domestic violence, impact of domestic violence on getting to work, impact of domestic violence in/on the workplace, support given in the workplace to help cope with domestic violence, protection orders/family court involvement, experiences of employed friend/colleague with domestic violence* and *general open ended responses*. Each section contained three to four questions, some with multiple parts. The final questionnaire contained a total of 38 questions that were grouped according to theme. Participants were not asked to answer every question in every section due to the branching design of the survey.

There were three different pathways through the survey that were determined by what experiences of domestic violence the participants had. Participants only answered the questions that were relevant to their particular pathway. Those with experiences with domestic violence while in paid employment were directed towards further questions focused on the details of their abuse and how it impacted their work. Participants who knew someone who had experience with domestic violence who was also in paid employment at the time of the abuse, were asked a series of questions about how the domestic violence impacted the workplace and the work of the person they knew. Those who were not in paid employment at the time they experienced domestic violence, along with those who knew someone who experienced domestic violence but was not in paid employment, and those who had no experience with domestic violence at all, were directed to a series of open ended opinion questions about how they felt domestic violence impacts workers.

Several of the questions for those who experienced domestic violence while in paid employment, had multiple nested parts that could only be accessed depending on the response options the participants selected. Participants were also able to elect not to answer any questions. This meant

that different questions had different numbers of responses. There were several questions that allowed participants to select multiple answers.

3.3.2 Development of the Questionnaire

Modifications made to the Australian survey were done to make it a more appropriate fit for this project and the New Zealand context. A definition of domestic violence, based on the New Zealand Domestic Violence Act (Domestic violence act, 1995), was added to the questionnaire to help give participants a clear understanding of what the survey was examining. The definition read:

By domestic violence we mean any abuse by any other person such as a spouse or partner, a family member, someone you ordinarily share a household with or have a close personal relationship with. Abuse may include:

- *Physical violence: hitting, shoving, having things thrown at you, etc.*
- *Sexual violence: being sexually touched in inappropriate and uncomfortable ways, or being forced to touch other people, being forced to have sex when you don't want to, being forced to watch sexual activity, etc.*
- *Psychological violence: being called names, being threatened, threatening people you care about, isolating you, being excessively critical of you, belittling or humiliating you, etc.*

Demographic Profile

The questions examining demographic information were changed to better match New Zealand and the population sampled. Ethnicities were changed to match 2013 New Zealand census categories (Statistics New Zealand, 2013a). The PSA was also interested in analysis of the impact of domestic violence according to employment sector and role. For this reason, two questions about what sector participants were employed in and what type of role they had were included.

Experience of Domestic Violence

Under *experience of domestic violence*, question 6 asked participants to specify if the violence happened while the participant was in paid employment or not. This was a change from the Australian questionnaire, and was done to differentiate between: participants who may have experienced domestic violence in the past when they were not working but who had continued to suffer residual effects in their lives and employment, from those who had experienced domestic violence while they were working and had the domestic violence affect their employment at the time. Another change from the original Australian survey was the addition of a question asking the gender of the abusive person, and a question asking about the relationship between the participant

and the abusive person for the purpose of examining how the genders of victims and perpetrators and the relationships between victims and perpetrators in New Zealand compare to international literature.

Impact of Violence on Getting to Work

This section retained the questions from the original version of the survey aside from two. A question asking if the participant had dependent children and a question asking about home tenure were removed. These questions were not considered to be relevant to the objectives of this project in examining how work is affected by domestic violence.

Impact of Violence in the Workplace

Question 12, which asks what kind of experiences with domestic violence the participant had in the workplace, was changed from the Australian survey to include specific options of behaviours an abusive person might engage in if they physically turned up to the workplace. This was to explore what types of abusive behaviours were most commonly encountered in the workplace.

Additionally, questions 20a and 20b were included from the Brimbak City Council Survey on Domestic Violence (2012) and asked if a work colleague took time off work to assist the participant with domestic violence related issues and how much time the colleague took.

3.4 Ethics Approval

Potential ethical issues that could arise were considered prior to commencing the study. As the survey was examining domestic violence, the sensitive nature of the topic made confidentiality and anonymity important for participants. This was ensured through the use of an anonymous questionnaire. No identifying information was asked for in the survey and no names or internet service provider (ISP) information was collected. The survey was built and run using ASP, VBScript and JavaScript and a unique coded universal resource locator (URL) was attached to each survey sent out, to ensure it was not possible to identify the source of the returned questionnaires.

The PSA ensured participants were fully informed of the study's purpose and aim when they sent the email invitation to participate to PSA members. The participants were able to access additional information about the study through a link on the email that took them to an information sheet with frequently asked questions (FAQ) and detailed answers (see appendix C). The introductory email explained that participants were under no obligation to complete the survey, they did not have to answer any questions they did not want to, and could stop participating and not submit the survey at any point. It was also made clear that submission of the survey was considered consent, and that due to the anonymous nature of the survey, withdrawing after submission was not possible.

There was the potential that the PSA could have been perceived as having a conflict of interest because they were conducting a survey about their own members and the members' workplaces. It was made clear in the FAQ's that the survey was an independent study being commissioned by the PSA and was not being done by the participants' employers. It was also made clear that the decision to participate or not, would not affect participants' relationships with their workplaces, or provision of services to participants by the PSA, or any future relations with the PSA.

Another possibility was that the questionnaire topic could have caused some participants unease, discomfort, or raised issues about experiences with domestic violence. For this reason, participants were made aware of Women's Refuge's 0800 crisis phone line available 24 hours per day, seven days per week, for addressing any concerns about domestic violence or related problems. Furthermore, if participants had any questions about the survey itself, they were given the number to a PSA freephone helpline for general queries about surveys done by the PSA and also the name number of a person with specific information about the survey for this study.

The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee granted ethics approval for this study for a period of three years on 24, May 2013 (Ref number: 9671).

3.5 Procedure

3.5.1 Pilot Testing of the Modified Questionnaire

To ensure that the revised survey was readable and understandable, it was piloted on a selection of seven employed individuals who are not members of the PSA. All participants in the pilot test reported that they found the questionnaire easy to follow and understand. However, some minor changes were made to the wording of some questions in response to suggestions made by the participants of the pilot test. For example, some questions told the participant to 'check all that apply'. This phrase was changed to 'tick all that apply' to better fit the New Zealand context.

Following the pilot test of the survey, it was handed over to the PSA so that the online version could be generated and distributed. This process was undertaken by the PSA's IT department. Once the survey was converted into an online format, the survey was reviewed to check for errors in skip patterns or any last modifications that needed to be made.

3.5.2 Survey Distribution Process

The PSA sent out an email to PSA staff informing them that this survey would be distributed to members (see appendix D). The PSA then drew the study sample from a random selection of 10,000 members from their email rolls. Web access restrictions put in place by the various employers limiting internet usage necessitated that the survey be hosted on the PSA's own servers

rather than at a third-party survey website such as SurveyMonkey. The survey was built and run using ASP, VBScript and JavaScript. A unique coded URL was attached to each survey sent out to ensure it was not possible to identify the source of the returned questionnaires. Participants followed an html link embedded in the email inviting the members to participate in the survey (see appendix B). The link took them to the survey introduction, which gave a brief explanation of what the questionnaire was about and how long it would take to complete. There was also a link on this page that participants could click on that would take them to a list of frequently asked questions.

The survey was open for a period of 3 weeks from 14 June, 2013 until 5 July, 2013. Two reminder emails were sent during the survey's open period to encourage more participants, one at the end of the first week and one at the end of the second week. When the survey closed, the PSA collated the data into an Excel spreadsheet and forwarded it to the researchers at the University of Auckland for analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis

The collated data received from the PSA in the Excel spreadsheet was exported into SPSS V. 21.0 for PC (IBM Corp, 2012). Descriptive analysis was undertaken, examining percentages and frequencies. Chi-square tests were also done to examine if there were differences in the experiences of domestic violence according to gender, age, sector of the PSA or employment role.

The answers to open ended questions were copied into a word document according to question number. Each answer was given a code based on the gender of the participant, what sector of the PSA they were in and their number in the list of responses. This was to make sure all of a participant's answers remained matched to them and to make finding a particular participant's answers simpler. Answers to questions were then analysed by theme and used throughout the results section to illustrate appropriate concepts.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter reports the results of the questionnaire in three sections. The first section describes the demographics of the participants, the second describes the experiences of domestic violence reported by participants, and the third describes the ways domestic violence impacted on the workers and the workplace.

4.1 Response Rate and Demographic Profiles

4.1.1 Response Rate

A total of 10,000 invitations to participate were sent out to members. The flow chart in figure 2 shows the details of the final sample and their pathways through the survey. 1,638 responses to the questionnaire were completed and returned. Answers from 12 participants were not included because their answers did not fit the definition of domestic violence. Of the 12 participants not included, nine were focused on co-workers bullying in the workplace, one was about a client being abusive in the workplace, one was about a social worker being abusive, and one was from a perpetrator of domestic violence. This left 1,626 valid returned surveys, making the response rate 16%.

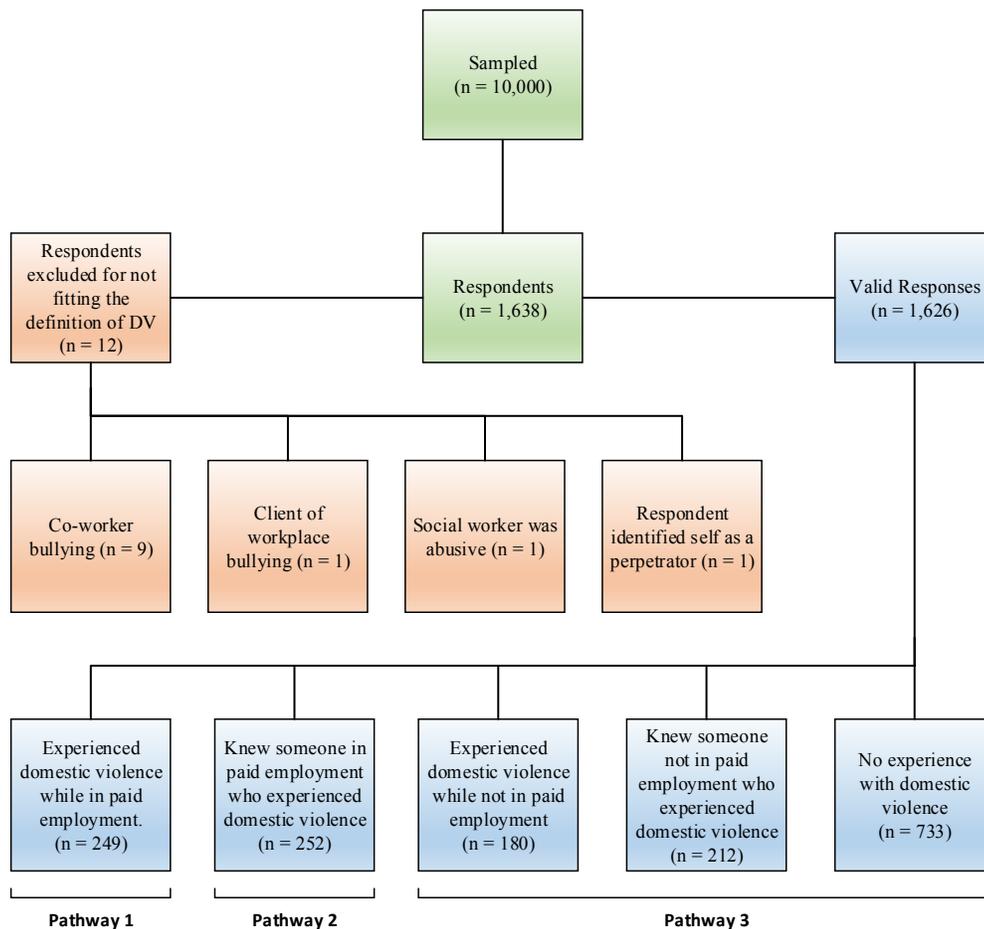


Figure 2: Participant Flowchart

4.1.2 Demographics

Age and Gender

The age of the participants is described in table 2. Most participants were over the age of 35 (85%), with the largest age group (33%) being those in the 45-54 age range. Participants were also asked to identify their gender. Of the participants that provided this information, the majority were women (n=1210, 74%) (figure 3).

Table 2 Participant Age

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Age (n=1,624)		
18-24	32	2.0
25-34	203	12.5
35-44	336	20.7
45-54	531	32.7
55-64	429	26.4
65 and over	93	5.7

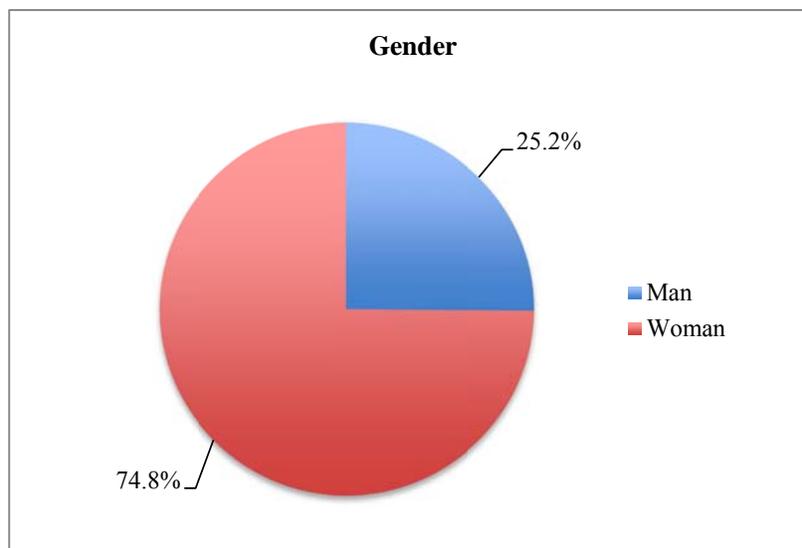


Figure 3: Gender of Participants (n=1,611)

Birthplace and Ethnicity

Figure 4 illustrates the breakdown of the sample according to place of birth. Most participants (n=1160, 73%) were born in New Zealand. Almost three-quarters (73%) of participants identified as New Zealand European or other European (table 3). The next most common ethnic category participants identified with was Māori at 14%. The 'other' category was comprised of African, Hispanic, and Middle Eastern ethnicities and made up 3% of the participants.

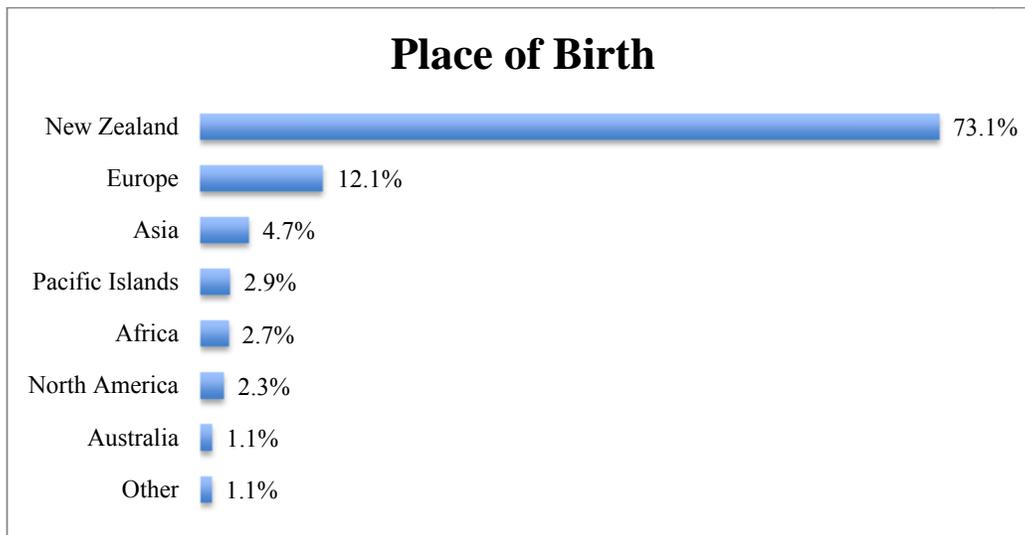


Figure 4: Participant's Place of Birth (n=1,590)

Table 3 Participant Ethnicity

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Ethnic Group (n=1,614)		
New Zealand European	1054	65.3
Māori	227	14.1
Other European	119	7.4
Asian	106	6.6
Pasifika	54	3.3
Other	54	3.3

Sector, Role, and Employment type

Participants were also asked what sector of the PSA they worked for and what role they were employed in. District Health Boards and local government made up the two largest groups, with 36.6% from the District Health Boards and 29% from local government.

The majority of participants were clerical and administrative workers (25.8%), followed by those in professional roles (21.4%), and registered social, health and education professionals (19.8%) (see table 4).

Table 4 Participants by PSA Sector and Employment Role

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Sector of the PSA (n=1608)		
District Health Boards	589	36.6
Local Government	466	29.0
Public Service	278	17.3
State Sector	205	12.7
Community Public Services	65	4.0
Associate Members	5	.3
Role (n=1602)		
Clerical and Administrative Worker	414	25.8
Professional	343	21.4
Registered Social, Health, and Education Professional	317	19.8
Manager	129	8.1
Unregistered Community and Personal Service Worker	104	6.5
Scientist	77	4.8
Technician and Trades Worker	72	4.5
Contact or Call Centre Worker	66	4.1
Inspection or Regulation worker	65	4.1
Machinery Operators and Driver	6	.4
Sales Worker	6	.4
Labourer	3	.2

Table 5 shows the comparison between the percentage of PSA members in each sector and percentage of participants from each sector. The percentage of participants in each sector is not representative of the overall PSA membership. Local government is overrepresented by more than double and public service is underrepresented by almost half.

Nearly 80% (n=1284) of participants who reported what type of employment they were in, reported that they were in permanent, full time employment. The next largest group was those in permanent, part time work, with 17% (n=275) of participants. The distribution of participant employment type is illustrated in figure 5.

Table 5 Percentages of PSA Membership and Study Participants

	Membership		Participants	
	Number (n)	Percentage (%)	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
PSA Sectors				
Public Service	20925	36.1	278	17.3
District Health Boards	16374	28.2	589	36.6
State Sector	8023	13.8	205	12.7
Local Government	5892	10.2	466	29.0
Community Public Services	4398	7.6	65	4.0
Associate Members	2388	4.1	5	0.3

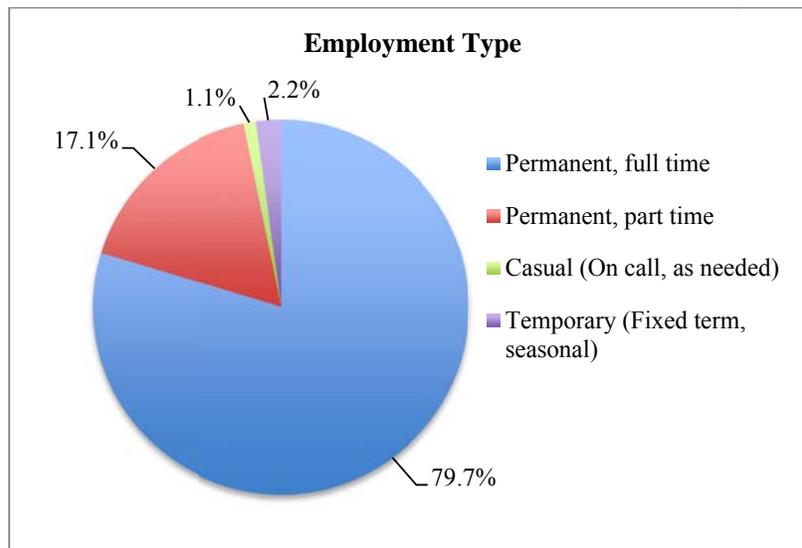


Figure 5: Employment Type (n=1,611)

4.2 Experience of Domestic Violence

Participants were asked a series of questions pertaining to their personal experience of domestic violence, the gender of the perpetrator, their relationship with the perpetrator, and their cohabitation with the perpetrator. Their responses are summarised below.

4.2.1 Description and Timeframe

Participants were asked whether or not they had any experience with domestic violence either personally or through someone they knew, and whether or not they or the person they knew was in paid employment when the domestic violence occurred. The answer to this question determined what pathway a participant took through the rest of the survey. The breakdown of participants' descriptions of their experiences of domestic violence can be seen in figure 2 and table 6.

Of the 1,626 participants, 55% reported having some experience with domestic violence either in their personal lives or through someone they knew, and 31% of the participants reported that those experiences happened while either they were in paid employment or the person they knew was in paid employment. Those who reported personally experiencing domestic violence comprised 26% of total participants: more than half of this group (58%), reported being in paid employment at the time the domestic violence occurred.

Table 6 Experience of Domestic Violence in Relation to Employment

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Experience of Violence (n=1,626)		
Experienced violence while in paid employment	249	15.3
Know someone who is in paid employment who has experienced violence	252	15.5
Experienced violence while not in paid employment	180	11.1
Know someone who is not in paid employment who has experienced violence	212	13.0
No experience of domestic violence	733	45.1

Chi-square analysis was undertaken to determine if experience with domestic violence while in paid employment differed as a function of gender, age, sector, role, or employment type. Women were more likely to have experienced domestic violence while in paid employment than men (women n=215, 43.3%; men n=30, 6%) $\chi^2_{(df1)}=20.514$, p=.000, and people in the age group 45-54 were also more likely to have experienced domestic violence while in paid employment than those in the 18-44 or 55 and over age groups (45-54 n=105, 21%; 18-44 n=70, 14%; 55 and over n=74, 14.8%) $\chi^2_{(df2)}=6.793$, p=.033. The Table summarising the chi-square analysis is presented in table E1, appendix E.

Table 7 details the time elapsed since participants who personally experienced domestic violence were abused. Most of those who provided information on when they experienced abuse reported it had occurred more than 12 months ago.

Table 7 Time Elapsed Since Domestic Violence Occurred

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
When Violence while in Paid Employment was Experienced (n=234)		
More than 12 months ago	185	79.1
Less than 12 months ago	49	20.9
When Violence while not in Paid Employment was Experienced (n=173)		
More than 12 months ago	164	94.8
Less than 12 months ago	9	5.2

4.2.2 Gender of Perpetrator, Relationship between Victim and Perpetrator, and Cohabitation between Victim and Perpetrator

Participants who were in paid employment at the time they experienced domestic violence were presented with follow-up questions about the perpetrator, their relationship and their living arrangements. Table 8 displays information about the gender of the perpetrator, the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator, and the cohabitation between the victim and the perpetrator. The majority (85%) of participants who identified the gender of their perpetrator said it was a man who was violent towards them. Of the participants who identified their relationship with the abusive person, 64% said the abusive person was an ex-partner, and 24.2% said it was a current

partner. Of the participants who answered whether or not they were currently living with the abusive person, most (77%) were not.

Further analysis showed that of those in paid employment at the time of the abuse (n=237), women were significantly more likely to be the victims of violence perpetrated by men (women n=195, 96%; men n=7, 4%) $\chi^2_{(df1)}=94.591, p=.000$ (see table E2, appendix E).

Table 8 Gender of Perpetrator, Relationship Between Victim and Perpetrator, and Cohabitation Between Victim and Perpetrator

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender of Abusive/Violent Person (n=239)		
Man	203	84.9
Woman	36	15.1
Relationship with Abusive/Violent Person (n=240)		
Ex-partner	154	64.2
Current Partner	58	24.2
Child	15	6.3
Parent or caregiver	5	2.1
Sibling	2	0.8
In -Law	1	0.4
Close friend/Flatmate	2	0.8
Other	3	1.3
Currently Living with Abusive/Violent Person (n=246)		
Yes	57	23.2
No	189	76.8

4.3 Impact

This section reports the results of questions pertaining to how domestic violence affected the employment and workplaces of participants with personal experience of domestic violence. There were a total of 249 participants who were in paid employment at the time they experienced domestic violence.

4.3.1 Impact of Domestic Violence on Getting to Work

Those who had experienced domestic violence while in paid employment were asked if their ability to get to work was affected by the abuse. Chi-square analysis found no difference as a function of age, sector, role, or employment type in the ability to get to work (see table E3, appendix E). Of the participants who answered, 38% reported that the abuse did impact their ability to get to work. A large percentage of participants reported experiencing physical injury or restraint (62%) as a reason they had difficulty getting to work. A substantial proportion of participants also reported their difficulty stemmed from fears for their children (41%) and logistics related to childcare (24%).

Participants were also asked whether it was necessary to take time off of work because of domestic violence. Of the participants who responded, more than half (53%, n=131) reported that they did take time off. Analysis was undertaken to examine whether taking time off differed as a function of age, sector, role, or employment type. Chi-square analysis revealed there was no significant difference in any category. The table showing the chi-square analysis can be seen in table E4, appendix E.

Those who answered that they did take time off were also asked the reasons for needing to take the time. The most frequent response (52%) was for health/medical reasons with attending to legal processes, and housing also requiring time away from work (table 9).

Table 9 Experiences that Affected the Ability to Get to Work

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Ability to Get to Work Affected (n=248)		
Yes	95	38.3
No	153	61.7
What affected ability to get to work (n=95)		
Physical injury or restraint	59	62.1
Verbally berated or threatened	19	20.0
Fear of leaving children alone with abusive/violent person	39	41.1
Refusal or failure to show up to care for children	23	24.2
Hiding or stealing car keys or transportation money	25	26.3
Personal documents hidden or stolen	14	14.7
The threat of deportation	1	1.1
Mentally/emotionally unable to cope with work	19	20.0
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		
Took Time off Work because of Domestic Violence (n=245)		
Yes	131	53.5
No	114	46.5
Reason for Time off (n=131)		
Health/medical reasons	68	51.9
Attend Counselling	64	48.9
Attend appointments (e.g. Police/lawyer)	41	31.3
Accommodation purposes (e.g. Had to move house)	36	27.5
Attend Court	29	22.1
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		

Several participants also wrote in comments about their experiences that impacted their ability to get to work. Many wrote about threats, the fear of violence and experiencing actual physical violence;

'Implied threat, leaving bullets and gun accessible, beat, 'accidentally' or deliberately shot or killed pets (dog, cat, domestic goats)' (WSS50)

'psychological abuse, threats to kill you while you are sleeping' (MDHB342)

'Threatened with loaded shot gun regularly' (WDHB32)

Recovery from injury was also a theme that emerged in the open-ended responses about why time off from work was needed;

'broken ribs recovery...' (WLG12)

'embarrassed to come to work due to injuries' (WDHB1176)

'There were times that I couldn't go to work as I was badly beaten - black eyes'
(WPS430)

4.3.2 Impact of Domestic Violence in/on the Workplace

Participants were asked to describe the ways in which they experienced domestic violence at their workplace. Participants were able to choose multiple answers. The most common experiences of domestic violence while at work were being harassed through phone calls, email or text messages (16%) and being stalked while they were at work (16%).

How the participants' experience of domestic violence impacted their work performance was also examined. Of the participants who reported that their work performance was impacted, most (84%) said that tardiness was the primary reason, while being distracted/tired or unwell affected 16% of participants. With respect to how the domestic violence experienced by participants affected their co-workers, most participants (83%) said there were feelings of tension and conflicts between themselves and their co-workers (see table 10).

Participants were also asked whether or not they worked with their abuser. Of the 243 participants who answered this question, only 8% were employed at the same place as the violent person.

Table 10 Domestic Violence in the Workplace

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Experiences of Domestic Violence in the Workplace (n=249)		
Harassed through phone calls, email or text messages	41	16.5
Stalked outside/in/around the workplace	41	16.5
Abusive/violent person turned up at workplace and wanted to talk	25	10.0
Abusive/violent person disrupted the workplace	12	4.8
Threatened you	16	6.4
Threatened co-workers	2	0.8
Brought a weapon	0	0.0
Did not experience domestic violence in the workplace	110	44.2
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		
How Domestic Violence Impacted Work Performance (n=224)		
Was late for work	189	84.4
Distracted/tired/unwell	35	15.6
Impact on Co-workers (n=181)		
They were threatened or harmed	30	16.6
Caused conflict and/or tension with co-workers	151	83.4

4.3.3 Summary of Impact

Just over 38% of participants reported that their ability to get to work was impacted by domestic violence. Most reported physical injury or restraint as being the reason they had difficulty. However, concerns about the care of children were also commonly reported with 41% reporting fear of leaving their children alone with the abusive person and almost a quarter reporting the perpetrators refusal to care for the children. Over half of participants reported that they had to take time off to deal with issues related to domestic violence, with the most frequent cause reported being medical including both physical and mental health reasons. Many women also reported experiencing extreme threats and acts of violence preventing them from working. In the workplace the most common experience participants reported was being harassed through phone calls, emails or text messages and being stalked. The majority of participants also reported that they were late for work as a result of the domestic violence and that the impacts of the violence caused conflict and tension in the workplace with co-workers.

4.4 Help Seeking

4.4.1 Discussion of the Violence in the Workplace

Participants (n=249) were asked if they discussed the domestic violence they were experiencing with others in the workplace and about the reasons they chose to disclose the violence or not.

Disclosure and Reasons

Slightly more than half (53%) of participants chose not to discuss their abuse with their co-workers. Chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether or not a participant spoke with a co-

worker differed as a function of age, gender, sector, role, or employment type. Only age showed a significant difference, with those in the 45-54 year age range (n=105) more likely to have discussed their abuse with a co-worker than any other age group, $\chi^2_{(df1)}=86.27$, $p=.013$ (see table E5, appendix E).

92% of those who chose not to discuss the violence with someone in their workplace cited shame and/or privacy as being their reasons. However, despite not directly discussing the abuse with co-workers, 24% of participants said their co-workers knew about the violence anyway.

Those who reported that they had spoken to someone at work about the domestic violence were asked who they spoke with. It was possible to select more than one answer. Most participants (69%) spoke with a co-worker. Supervisors and managers (54%) as well as friends (50%) were also often spoken to (see table 11).

Support Given in the Workplace to Help Cope with Domestic Violence

Chi-square analysis revealed no difference in the outcome of discussing domestic violence in the workplace as a function of age, sector, role, or type of employment (see table E6, appendix E). The results of disclosing domestic violence to people in the workplace are also shown in table 11.

When the participants discussed their abuse, 62% of those who responded reported that positive things happened, while 31% reported that nothing happened. Participants were also asked what steps, if any, their workplace took to help them deal with the domestic violence. Participants were again able to choose more than one answer. The most common help participants received from the workplace was paid time off (31%). Active responses by employers (alerted security or police, changed/screened phone calls or emails, moved victim to a safer place at work, provided transportation, or provided a security alarm) were not commonly reported by participants.

Table 11 also shows how many participants asked a co-worker to take time off for the purpose of accompanying them to an appointment or place related to their domestic violence, such as court or the hospital. Only 4% reported having asking a co-worker to take time off. However, 100% of the co-workers who asked for the time off were given the time off by their workplace.

Table 11 Help Seeking in the Workplace

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Discussed Abuse/Violence with the Workplace (n=249)		
Yes	117	47.0
No	132	53.0
Reasons for not Discussing Abuse/Violence with the Workplace (n=132)		
Privacy	49	48.0
Shame and Privacy	25	24.5
Shame	20	19.6
Fear of dismissal	8	7.8
Position of Person the Abuse was Discussed with (n=117)		
Co-Worker	81	69.2
Supervisor/Manager	63	53.8
Friend	59	50.4
HR Officer	8	6.8
Union Delegate	5	4.3
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		
Outcome of Discussing Abuse with the Workplace (n=112)		
Positive things happened	73	65.2
Negative things happened	3	2.7
Nothing happened	36	32.1
Responses by the Workplace (n=117)		
Time off (paid)	36	30.8
Time off (unpaid)	7	6.0
Alerted security staff	7	6.0
Changed/screened work numbers or emails	6	5.1
Alerted the police	5	4.3
Provided transport between work and home	4	3.4
Moved you to a safer place at work	3	2.6
Provided security alarm where you work	0	0.0
None of these	44	37.6
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		
Asked a Colleague/Co-worker to Take Time off (n=249)		
Yes	9	3.6
No	230	92.4
Workplace Gave Co-worker the Requested Time off (n=9)		
Yes	9	100.0
No	0	0.0

The participants were asked to explain who was the most helpful person they spoke with about the domestic violence. Many participants wrote that their managers were the most helpful;

'My Manager - who actually guessed what was going on and helped and supported me through it' (WLG1210)

'The supervisor at the time, he allowed me some extra time off to deal with the problems' (WDHB281)

Several of the participants wrote in other ways workplaces were able to help;

'...assisted me with getting food for my kids when my ex took all the money in the bank account' (WPS1265)

'Shielded me and insisted that he leave when he turned up at my work' (WPS1082)

4.4.3 Protection Orders/Family Court Involvement

Participants were asked about what actions they took outside of the workplace to deal with domestic violence, such as going to the police, being involved in Family Court proceedings, or obtaining a protection order. Of the participants who answered about police involvement, the majority (67%) stated that they did not go to the police about the domestic violence (table 12). Most (91%) participants were also not involved with Family Court proceedings. Furthermore, just over 80% of participants did not obtain a Protection Order and of those who did, 75% said that their workplaces were not included in the order (figure 6).

Chi-Square analysis did not reveal any differences according to age, gender, sector or role with respect to obtaining a protection order (see table E7, appendix E). Chi-square analysis did demonstrate a relationship between age and Family Court proceedings with those in the 45-54 year age range most likely to have involved the Family Court, $\chi^2_{(df1)}=9.36$, $p=.009$ (see table E8, appendix E).

Table 12 Percentage of Participants who Reported Abuse to the Police, were Involved in Family Court Proceedings, or Obtained a Protection Order

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Violence was Reported to the Police (n=245)		
Yes	80	32.7
No	165	67.3
Involved in Family Court Proceedings (n=247)		
Yes	21	8.5
No	226	91.5
Obtained a Protection Order (n=248)		
Yes	49	19.8
No	199	80.2

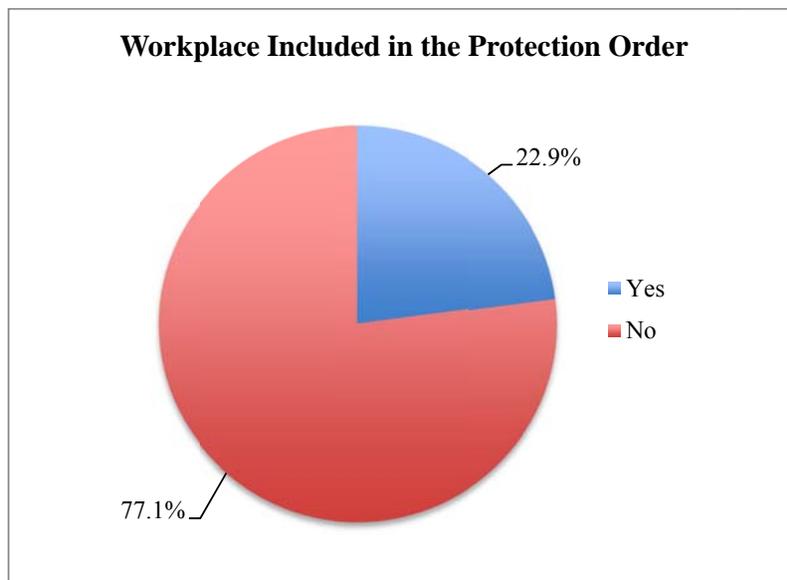


Figure 6: Percentage of Protection Orders that Include the Workplace (n=48)

4.4.4 Summary of Help Seeking

More than half of participants did not discuss the abuse they were experiencing with their workplace, with the majority stating that shame and privacy was the reason. Of those who did speak to someone in the workplace, most chose to speak with a co-worker, but managers were often mentioned as being the most helpful. A large portion of those who decided to discuss the domestic violence with their workplace, reported that positive things happening were the result. Most frequently, participants said they received paid time off. Very few participants asked a colleague to take time off work to accompany them to a domestic violence related appointment. However, of those who did, all of their co-workers received the time off from their workplaces. Most participants did not report their abuse to the police, were not involved in family court proceedings, and did not obtain a protection order. Of those who did take out a protection order, the majority did not have their workplaces covered specifically in the order.

4.5 Experiences of Employed Friend/Colleague with Domestic Violence

Table 13 illustrates that of those participants who reported that they knew someone who experienced domestic violence while in paid employment, 33% said they didn't know what kind of experiences their friend had in their workplace. However, 29% reported that their friend or colleague was harassed through phone calls, emails, or text messages. Another 27% reported that the domestic violence their friend or colleague experienced created conflict and tension with their co-workers.

Participants also answered a question about what kind of help the workplace gave to their friend or colleague. The most common response, as seen in table 13 was that they didn't know (31%) what kind of help their friend or colleague received. A supportive environment for their friend or colleague was reported by 28% of participants, and 15% reported that the workplace gave their friend or colleague paid time off. Very small percentages of participants reported that employers engaged in active responses (moved victim to safer place, changed/screened work numbers or emails, alerted security staff or police, provided transport between work and home, provided security alarm in the workplace) to the domestic violence to improve the safety of employees.

Table 13 Friend/Colleague's Domestic Violence Experiences in the Workplace

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Impact of Friend/Colleague's Abuse on the Workplace (n=252)		
Harassed through phone calls, emails, or text messages	74	29.4
Caused conflict and tension with co-workers	68	27.0
Physically harassed at the workplace	32	12.7
Don't know	83	32.9
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		
How the Workplace Helped Friend/Colleague (n=252)		
Provided a supportive environment	71	28.2
Time off (paid)	39	15.5
Time off (unpaid)	25	9.9
Moved them to a safer place at work	11	4.4
Changed/screened work numbers or emails	9	3.6
Alerted security staff	9	3.6
Alerted police	6	2.4
Provided transport between work and home	2	0.8
Provided a security alarm where they worked	2	0.8
None of these	63	25.0
Don't know	78	31.0
<i>Note: Percentages do not equal 100% due to multiple responses possible.</i>		

Comments from the open-ended response options illustrated the impact that they observed within the workplace, up to, and including the homicide of a colleague.

'Friend was in a constantly stressed state and this did impact on the team'

(WSS239)

'I know staff affected left the workplace...' (WLG655)

There were also several mentions of violence towards the friend/colleague;

'They tried to fob it off and give other excuses for always having bruises'

(WLG365)

'The colleague was eventually murdered by her husband' (WLG419)

4.6 Opinions on the Impact of Domestic Violence on Workers and the Workplace

All participants in the survey were asked their opinions on whether they thought domestic violence impacts workers and whether they thought workplace entitlements could help. Table 14 shows that the overwhelming majority (99%) of those who answered the question, thought that the work lives of employees are affected by domestic violence. Participants were also asked if they thought workplace entitlements could help. Of those who answered, 82% felt that workplace entitlements, such as paid leave and safety policies could reduce the impact of domestic violence on both workers and the workplace.

Table 14 Opinions on the Impacts of Domestic Violence and on Workplace Entitlements

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Think Domestic Violence Impacts Work Lives of Employees (n=1619)		
Yes	1605	99.1
No	14	0.9
Think Workplace Entitlements Could Help Reduce Impacts (n=1597)		
Yes	1306	81.8
No	291	18.2

All participants were also asked if they had any comments about what else might help workers who experience domestic violence. Many people felt that having understanding management who are knowledgeable about domestic violence issues and who would make resources available to support the worker would be valuable.

'Although my own experience is very limited, I think it very likely that having a supportive manager and colleagues would make a significant difference for others experiencing serious or prolonged domestic violence. I have heard anecdotal evidence (when living in the UK) of female colleagues who were embarrassed or even threatened by their male partners while at work.' (WLG965)

'...Training managers/teamleaders to be aware of signs and to attempt confidential discussion with an employee where DV is suspected or if DV is disclosed by an employee....' (WDHB1329)

'A good manager who is approachable and understanding and an employer who can provide access to support services (ie paying for a limited number of free counselling sessions/information where to find appropriate help/support)and does not penalise you for seeking help - ie deducting pay or time if support services are only available during work hours or allows a flexible working policy to allow time taken during work hours to be made up.' (WLG1280)

Chapter 5: Discussion

This study describes the impact of domestic violence on workers and the workplace. There were three main objectives of this study including: evaluate the frequency of domestic violence among workers; assess the impact of domestic violence on worker productivity, absenteeism, and impaired work performance; and gain an understanding of current workplace policies, procedures and attitudes surrounding the needs of workers experiencing domestic violence. In particular this study sought to examine who the workers are that have experienced domestic violence, the impacts on their ability to get to work and the impacts in/on the workplace, and whether or not victims engaged in help seeking and how workplaces responded.

There have been a number of self-report studies performed internationally that examine domestic violence as a workplace issue (Anderson et al., 2003; Lloyd, 1997; Lloyd & Taluc, 1999; Logan et al., 2007; McFerran, 2011a; Shepard & Pence, 1988). However, there is very little data on this subject in New Zealand. There are several studies that examine the prevalence and types of domestic violence women experience in New Zealand (Fanslow & Robinson, 2004; Fanslow, Robinson, Crengle, & Perese, 2010; Fergusson, Horwood, & Ridder, 2005; Lievore et al., 2007), as well as one study that gives the total economic costs of domestic violence in New Zealand (Snively, 1994), and another that looks at the effects of domestic violence on Māori women's employment in New Zealand (Pouwhare, 1999). This study differs in that it sought to give descriptive quantitative information about a broad demographic sample while focusing specifically on the impacts experienced by employees and their employers. There is potential for this study to help contribute to the foundation of knowledge around domestic violence as a workplace issue in New Zealand.

Due to the low response rate obtained, this study was not successful in its first objective to provide information on the frequency of domestic violence among workers. The results must be treated with caution, as they are not generalizable to the overall working population in New Zealand. However, this research does provide some useful information about the impacts of domestic violence on worker productivity, the ability to get to work and the workplace environment. This study also gives some insights into the factors that may encourage or discourage help seeking in the workplace by victims.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the findings and implications of this research. This is followed by a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the study. Finally implications for policy and practice are presented.

5.1 Discussion of Results

The results will be discussed in three sections based on the research questions. These sections are: workers experiencing domestic violence; impacts on work; and help seeking.

5.1.1 Workers Experiencing Domestic Violence

Most of the participants in this study were women reporting on their experiences of domestic violence with male current or ex-partners. It is important to note that over 40,000 women are members of the PSA (PSA, 2013), making women the majority of the membership and therefore more likely to be the most represented in the sample of participants. However, the fact that most participants were reporting on domestic violence from a male intimate partner is consistent with much of the international literature, which also describes a gendered nature to domestic violence and its effects on employment. This information is of particular importance when one considers that women make up 47% of the labour force in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2011). It is also significant in light of research showing that two thirds of women who experience domestic violence are in paid employment at the time of their abuse (McFerran, 2011a).

Research shows that women experiencing domestic violence change jobs frequently (Swanberg et al., 2005; Swanberg et al., 2006; Swanberg & Macke, 2006) and so it is unknown how many women may not have completed the survey because they had recently resigned, were fired or are unable to secure work because they were actively experiencing abuse at the time. The majority of participants reported that the abuse was historical and that they were no longer living with the perpetrator of the domestic violence. As a result the findings of this study mostly reflect the experiences of women who are not currently experiencing active abuse. Those whose abuse took place more than 12 months ago may be more likely to have made efforts at recovery and secure their employment. They therefore may be in a better position to have completed this survey.

That being said, about a quarter of the 249 people with personal experience with domestic violence had experienced the violence in the preceding 12 months, making it fairly recent. Data from international research has shown that while domestic violence does disrupt a victim's employment and can cause frequent job changes, it doesn't necessarily stop victims from becoming employed (Browne et al., 1999; Lloyd, 1997; Tolman & Raphael, 2000). This fact means that there may be a limited amount of time for interventions and resources to successfully reach victims in the workplace before they quit or are fired. Therefore it is important to gain an understanding of the impacts of domestic violence on work in order to be able to intervene and support victims in the workplace so that they may be better able to maintain consistent employment.

5.1.2 Impacts on Work

Impacts on getting to work

The results of the present study are consistent with international literature and demonstrate that domestic violence does have a significant impact on people's work. Specifically, this study shows that across all categories of membership of the PSA and across all employment roles (eg. administrative to professional) and types (eg. full time to part time) workers with experience of domestic violence deal with various difficulties getting to work.

Population-based studies have shown that women are more likely to experience abuse that is severe, terrorising, and isolating (Flood, 2006; Kimmel, 2002; Taft et al., 2001). In the present study, two major themes emerged demonstrating the severity of the abusive interference tactics perpetrators engaged in to prevent victims from going to work. The first was the prevalence of active acts of violent abuse. More than half of participants were prevented from going to work on time or at all through either physical violence or restraint. Relatedly, one out of five participants reported that being verbally berated or threatened with physical harm prevented them from getting to work. Swanberg and Logan (2005) found similar results in their study with a large proportion of victims having been physically restrained or beaten to such a degree that they could not go to work. It is unlikely that such extreme abuse would go unnoticed in the workplace, which begs the question of why more participants did not report that their managers or co-workers asked about their abuse or if the victims were in need of any help. This is an important question in light of the fact that many participants reported that their co-workers knew about the abuse despite it never being openly acknowledged in the workplace.

One of the issues discussed in the literature regarding helping victims through programmes in the workplace is that managers need training on how to both recognise and respond to the signs of abuse (Maggio, 1996; Murray & Powell, 2008; Woodward, 1998). Furthermore, once managers know how to identify potential victims of abuse, they must know how to properly respond and have appropriate resources to address the problem and help the victim (Maggio, 1996; Woodward, 1998). It is possible that one of the reasons why participants in the present study did not report more offers of assistance is because managers and co-workers genuinely don't know what, if anything, they can do. There is also the possibility that many managers and colleagues feel that asking a co-worker about potential domestic violence would be intrusive and feel that by not calling attention to any signs of abuse that they are respecting the victim's privacy.

The second theme relates to concerns about children. Fear of leaving children alone with the perpetrator was reported by 41% of participants, and the perpetrator refusing to show up or care for

children was reported by nearly a quarter of participants. Moe and Bell (2004) and Swanberg et al. (2006) also reported care of children by the perpetrator was a frequent concern for victims. This study did not examine how many participants had children. However, many women who experience domestic violence have children. Additionally, studies have also shown that children witnessing domestic violence experience trauma and are also more likely to also be experiencing abuse (Rossman, Hughes, & Rosenberg, 2000; Socolar, 2000). With this in mind, it is foreseeable that participants in this study would report concern for the care of their children. It would be beneficial for workplaces to consider the role childcare plays in a victim's ability to work and to perhaps even include entitlements aimed at alleviating the difficulty in finding appropriate childcare or benefits directed at easing the burden of meeting unexpected childcare costs, especially since childcare needs may happen on short notice when experiencing domestic violence.

More than half of participants also reported that they had to take time off from work to deal with issues related to domestic violence. The most common reason given was for medical or mental health reasons. This is unsurprising given that physical violence and threats of physical violence were so widespread among participants' experiences. The health ramifications of domestic violence are well known (Campbell et al., 2002; Campbell, 2002; Coker et al., 2000; Diaz-Olavarrieta et al., 1999; Guruge, 2012; Letourneau et al., 1999) and have been shown to have direct immediate and long term impacts on victims' ability to work (Lloyd, 1997; Swanberg et al., 2005; Swanberg et al., 2006). Humphreys and Thiara (2003) found that depression and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) occurs frequently among victims of domestic violence. These disorders can require extensive psychiatric health care, and may impact victims' ability to function (Weaver & Etzel, 2003; Yuan et al., 2003). Researchers have linked PTSD and depression with absenteeism from work and unemployment (Kessler, 2000; Weaver & Etzel, 2003; Wuest et al., 2008). While there is no way to know if or how many participants experienced these disorders, the results did find that 20% of participants reported their ability to get to work was affected because they were mentally or emotionally unable to cope. This finding points to the mental health implications associated with domestic violence and demonstrates how profound an affect they can have on a victim's ability to go to work. The instability created by being late and missing workdays is almost certain to contribute to isolation and difficulty in finding a pathway out of violence. Even if managers and co-workers are aware of the violence they are unlikely to say anything. With increased tardiness and absences, productivity is likely to fall, and eventually the victim may face sanctions or be fired.

Impacts in/on the workplace

Many of the participants who were in paid employment when they experienced domestic violence reported that the perpetrator engaged in harassing or stalking actions that affected the victims or their co-workers at the workplace. These results mirrored the results seen in other studies that found perpetrators frequently harass or disrupt the workplace (Bell et al., 2002; Lloyd, 1997; Logan et al., 2007; Swanberg et al., 2006). Many participants felt that their work performance was impacted because of the abuse, with the majority of participants reporting that they were late for work and many saying that the abuse resulted in them being distracted, tired, and unwell. Predictably, many participants reported that their co-workers were also affected. Conflict and tension with co-workers was described by most participants and in some cases, participants reported that their co-workers were actually threatened or harmed. This is consistent with the findings from participants who talked their friend or colleague's experience of domestic violence in the workplace. Those participants reported that their friend or colleague was harassed in the workplace and that there was conflict and tension with their colleague's co-workers because of the domestic violence.

Disruptions and reduced productivity impacts all workers and contributes to feelings of tension. When one employee is habitually late for work or isn't meeting their work obligations, it creates an increased burden on co-workers who must then compensate for gaps in productivity (Versola-Russo & Russo, 2009). Also, co-workers may experience some trauma at witnessing or being targeted by the domestic violence of their colleague. It is probable that harassing and threatening behaviours by perpetrators in the workplace would be distracting for all workers and not just for the intended victim, reducing productivity for the entire labour force. Furthermore, if victims or their co-workers are unable to focus on work due to being distracted, this can increase the potential for workplace accidents or safety hazards for people in the workplace (Johnson & Gardner, 1999). Murray and Powell (2007) also point out that employers may experience damage to their reputation if work quality suffers, staff are distracted or unpleasant, or if clients find themselves witnessing or being victimised by violence stemming from domestic violence of an employee. The ramifications of the loss in time and productivity for New Zealand employers are difficult to quantify and were beyond the scope of this study, but they are likely to be significant. For comparison, a study in Australia by Access Economics (2004) found that the loss in productivity due to domestic violence costs approximately AUS \$484 million dollars annually.

These findings demonstrate that when a perpetrator actively becomes a problem in the workplace, most people in the workplace experience some level of impact. Participants in this study recognised that the actions of the perpetrator and their resulting impaired work performance

affected their co-workers and the overall workplace atmosphere. This was true regardless of whether it was the participant's own experience with domestic violence or the experience of a friend or colleague. This illustrates why managers may feel they have no other option but to fire the employee who is the victim in order to protect the productivity and even the safety of those in the workplace. However, literature shows that firing victims leads to increased costs for employers who then have to hire and train new employees (Crowne et al., 2011). It could be more cost effective for employers to engage in more active responses to domestic violence, particularly when perpetrators begin harassing or stalking at the actual workplace. Actions such as providing increased security, notifying the police, or screening phone calls could go a long way to creating a safer and more productive workplace for all employees.

5.1.3 Help Seeking

Discussion of the Abuse at Work

More than half of participants did not discuss the domestic violence they were experiencing with people in the workplace, with the vast majority saying that feelings of shame and/or a need for privacy were the reasons why. Nevertheless, almost a quarter of those who did not disclose reported that their co-workers were aware of the participants' domestic violence, despite it never being openly discussed. It is unknown what, if any, steps the workplace may have taken with respect to the nondisclosing participants' domestic violence and its impact in the workplace. However, as discussed previously, very few participants mentioned anyone in the workplace ever asking if the participant what was happening or if the participant was in need of help.

Of those who did disclose the domestic violence they were experiencing, 65% reported that positive things happened for them. The most common result of discussing the domestic violence was receiving time off, with many receiving time off that was paid. When it was a friend or colleague experiencing domestic violence, roughly a quarter of participants reported that their friend or colleague was given time off because of the domestic violence, with over 15% receiving paid time off.

The number of participants who themselves received time off or whose friend/colleague received time off is a noteworthy finding. Despite the fact that more than half of those who experienced domestic violence while they were employed needed to take time off from work to deal with issues stemming from the abuse, the majority of participants did not disclose their abuse to their workplace. This suggests that in many workplaces there is potentially a lack of awareness and policies around domestic violence or that offer support to victims. Awareness of support from the workplace and the ability to take paid time off is important. This study shows that often victims

have to take time off of work to handle issues related to domestic violence such as moving house or attending court. The ability to take paid time off, allows them to attend to issues related to domestic violence without the financial burden of losing a day's worth of wages. Furthermore, researchers have reported that the support of co-workers and managers has the added benefit of providing some emotional support to victims, giving them a sense of security and strength (Rothman et al., 2007; Swanberg et al., 2007). The results of this study show that participants overwhelmingly felt that support at their workplace was an important part of whether or not victims had the ability to maintain employment. It is possible that if steps were taken to raise awareness among staff and supervisors that victims would feel a greater sense of support and would be more willing to disclose their abuse and seek assistance through paid time off or modified duties.

It is also important to interpret findings about the positive results of disclosure carefully. As discussed previously, it is known that feelings of tension in the workplace were frequently reported in response to the domestic violence and its effects on employees. Literature also shows that victims often face sanctions in the workplace or are fired in response to the effects of domestic violence (Swanberg et al., 2005; Swanberg et al., 2006; Swanberg & Macke, 2006). Furthermore, the work of researchers around the effects of gender in organisations and gendered segregation in business show that it is probable that many workplaces fail to account for issues that primarily impact women and are even hostile to the intrusion on work time (Acker, 1989; Acker, 1990; Britton, 2000; Estevez-Abe, 2006; Swanberg, 2004; Williams, 1999). It is likely that victims carefully consider the nature of their relationships in the workplace and the potential ramifications of disclosure before choosing whether or not to discuss the abuse with their managers and co-workers. Those who make the decision to discuss the abuse likely have trusting or open communication in their relationships with their workplace, or are employed in places where policies exist, that encourage victims to believe disclosing to their employers and co-workers will have positive results for them. Swanberg et al. (2006) found that when employers were known to offer assistance, employees were more likely to disclose abuse and utilise services.

Protection Order and Family Court Involvement

Another interesting finding of this study was that the majority of participants who had experienced domestic violence had not involved the police. This is particularly concerning given the number of women who reported serious acts of violence directed towards them, though not unexpected as Hann (2004) points out, only 10% of domestic violence is ever reported. New Zealand research has found that many women feel police response to domestic violence is inconsistent at best and disinterested at worst (Robertson et al., 2007).

It is perhaps then not surprising that most participants also did not file for protection orders with the court. Under the Domestic Violence Act (1995) when people are in urgent need of immediate protection from violence at the hands of a person they share a domestic relationship with, they can apply for a temporary protection order without notice that is good for three months. If at the end of the three months the abuser does not seek to defend against the order it is made permanent (D. Wilson, 2011). However, judges can deny requests for temporary orders without notice if they don't feel they are warranted, in which case victims can withdraw their petition or proceed to apply for a permanent protection order with notice (New Zealand Ministry of Justice, 2013). Further, the Family Court has steadily placed an increased burden of proof on victims seeking to obtain protection orders, and many attorneys now tell women that without proof of abuse, such as photos, police reports, or doctors reports, their applications are unlikely to be accepted (Hann, 2004).

Robertson et al. (2007) found that even when protection orders were issued, police often failed to enforce the non-contact provisions if there was no assault. Police failing to enforce non-contact provisions is important in light of the fact that even among the women who did apply for and receive protection orders in this study, most of the orders did not expressly include the victim's workplace. Currently protection orders in New Zealand do contain some language that forbids contact at the victim's place of employment, as well as forbidding most general forms of contact (New Zealand Ministry of Justice, 2013). Nonetheless, without stronger language forbidding a perpetrator from going near a victim's place of work, it is potentially easy for perpetrators to claim that they were not attempting to contact the victim and that their presence in the vicinity of the workplace was coincidental. If police are unwilling to enforce all elements of the order, and allow perpetrators to go free because there was no assault, they don't serve much practical purpose. Furthermore, it serves little point to direct employers to recommend to workers who are experiencing harassment or stalking in the workplace to pursue a protection order as a resource, since they provide almost no security for women when they are at work or, realistically, anywhere.

In light of the evidence presented by Logan et al. (2007) and Nicastro et al. (2000) about the dangers associated with stalking and the repercussions it can have in women's lives, it would be prudent for the police and Family Court to change the way protection orders are managed and responded to. It is known that the workplace is one place that abusers can usually be guaranteed to find their victims with some certainty and regularity (Logan et al., 2007). Ideally, a protection order would help a victim travel to and from work and maintain steady regular employment, assured that there are legal protections in place to prevent the abuser from menacing the victim in anyway. The protection order should also help assure employers that the perpetrator is forbidden from coming near the workplace or the victim's co-workers, thereby providing security and a

course of action should a perpetrator appear at the workplace. Such security would help employers support victims and encourage employers to keep a victim working rather than fire them in hopes of removing threats or disturbances from the perpetrator.

Ultimately, physical assault or proof of abuse cannot be the only measure used to gauge whether or not a protection order should be issued or whether or not police enforce the provisions contained in a protection order, as stalking and harassment has been shown to frequently lead to increasingly dangerous levels of violence (Logan, Shannon, & Cole, 2007). Judges and police must be responsive to the threat that exists through acts of domestic violence that, on the surface, appear subtler than some physical forms of abuse. Stronger responses from the legal standpoint will protect not only victims and their employment, but also businesses.

Opinions about what would Help

Almost every participant in the study stated that they felt domestic violence impacts the work lives of employees. The majority also felt that workplace entitlements and policies surrounding domestic violence would help limit its impact on workers and the workplace. Along with the importance of paid time off, many participants stressed how valuable a supportive manager can be. A number of participants who disclosed their domestic violence to the workplace reported that it was their manager who offered the most help and support. Furthermore, many participants stated that having management that is compassionate and understanding would be enormously helpful for victims. This is likely because it is management that has the ability to approve modified work schedules, duties or paid time off. They also generally have a large amount of influence on the workplace environment and can impact how supportive the work atmosphere is to victims. However, it is important to keep in mind that while these results are consistent with international literature on what kind of supports victims find useful (Swanberg et al., 2006; Swanberg & Macke, 2006), this study has a sample bias and a poor response rate, therefore how these opinions reflect the overall feelings of workers in the PSA or New Zealand is unknown.

5.2 Limitations and Strengths

It is important that the results of this study be understood in the context of its limitations and strengths. This section outlines and explains how the limitations and strengths of the present study may have influenced the findings. Many of the limitations and strengths of the present study are caused by the methodological characteristics that are common in surveys, particularly those that are conducted online.

5.2.1 Limitations

The findings of this study are comparable to the results seen in other international studies. However, there are several major limitations to the present research that affect the ability to generalise conclusions to the broader New Zealand population. These limitations stem mostly from the weaknesses that seem to be inherent in web-based research. Namely the issues come from low response rate, sample bias and coverage errors.

It is important to recognise that the present study does not give any reliable data on the prevalence of domestic violence among working people. The response rate for the study was extremely low, with only 1,626 usable survey responses out of the 10,000 individuals who were invited to participate. According to Johnson and Wislar (2012) and Fincham (2008) there currently is no agreed upon threshold for response rates that denotes survey accuracy, however, 60% is often the desired standard among many health researchers. The present study had a response rate of 16%, falling far short of the most desired response rate. Generally, a high response rate is preferable as it protects against nonresponse bias and ensures representativeness of the results (Curtin, Presser, & Singer, 2000; Fincham, 2008). Researchers have reported that response rates to surveys have continually been decreasing (Biener, Garrett, Gilpin, Roman, & Currivan, 2004; T. Johnson & Wislar, 2012; van Gelder et al., 2010). It is thought that this decrease is due to the significant volume of solicitous and spam email that is regularly distributed, contributing to the loss of novelty for online surveys and decreasing interest in completing them (Sheehan & McMillan, 1999; Sheehan, 2001). There is no way to know how many email messages the sample population receives from the PSA or other organisations within a given timeframe, however it is possible that the email invitation to participate in this study was simply ignored or overlooked by many potential participants who viewed it as spam.

There is research that suggests that a low response rate does not necessarily mean a study lacks accuracy. A study by Keeter, Kennedy, Dimock, Best and Craighill (2006) performed a comparison between the response rates and results between one survey using a 'standard' approach and another using a 'rigorous' approach. The survey asked a series of questions about social and political topics but was designed to look at the impact of nonresponse error on survey representativeness. The standard survey involved following Pew Research Groups regular survey methods with telephone calls to a list-assisted sample of 1,000 households. They conducted the survey over five days and made a minimum of 10 attempts for each sampled telephone number. The rigorous survey used the same questionnaire and began at the same time. However, it ran for 21 weeks and sampled 1,081 households. The researchers also took additional steps to encourage participation such as sending out letters notifying households about the survey, some including a

two dollar incentive, left messages on answering machines, and used a longer calling period. Unsurprisingly, the rigorous survey had a response rate of 50% compared to the standard survey's response rate of 25%. However, in most comparisons the surveys demonstrated no distinguishable statistical differences and despite having a larger response rate, the rigorous survey did not more accurately reflect the population characteristics. An older study by Visser, Krosnick, Marquette, and Curtin (1996) compared the accuracy of a survey looking at voter trends with a response rate of approximately 25% to a survey with a response rate of approximately 70%. They found that the survey with the lower response rate more accurately reflected voting outcomes than the survey with the higher response rate. The researchers believed this was likely the result of differences in the features between the two surveys along with the fact that even with a high response rate, some surveys will still underrepresent segments of the population.

The argument can be made that the representativeness of the selected sample is more important than the response rate (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000). In other words, a small number of participants can still give robust results if they compare well to the population of interest. The present study cannot make estimates on percentages of women experiencing the effects of domestic violence in their working lives or on the percentages of workplaces that have employees experiencing domestic violence, but it may give a picture of the experiences of some employed victims of domestic violence. The survey was open to for anyone who was a member of the PSA and who received an invitation to complete, regardless of whether or not they had personally experienced domestic violence. It is probable that those who were most likely to respond were the people who felt a personal investment or interest in the topic. This almost certainly played a role in the low response rate and contributed to response bias in the total study sample. However, it is likely that the present study does accurately reflect an example of experiences of workers who are victims of domestic violence. Despite the low response rate, it is possible that the sample of those who have experienced abuse in this study compares favourably to the overall population of workers who experience domestic violence, even while the entirety of the sample does not create generalizable findings.

One of the drawbacks frequently noted about web-based surveys is that they are only representative of the portion of the population that has Internet access (Coomber, 1997; Duffy, 2002; Solomon, 2001; Tingling et al., 2003). The question then becomes whether or not those who are excluded from the study would have substantially altered the results had they been included. Only those who were current members of the PSA and for whom the PSA had valid email addresses could be invited to participate in the present study. Therefore those without email and those who were no longer members of the PSA because they had left their jobs, were not included. Furthermore, the

participation of those who were invited was dependent on them being able to find a block of time where they had reliable Internet access to complete the survey. However, studies do suggest that the results from web-based research are comparable to the results from telephone or pen and paper based surveys, as regardless of what methodology is used, some sampling bias and coverage error will always occur (Gosling et al., 2004; Smith, 1997). The present study attempted to avoid these issues by using a large sample size drawn from a known population. The PSA hosted the survey on their servers so that participants would be able to complete the questionnaire while at work making it more likely potential participants had Internet access. The PSA also took the additional step of suggesting PSA staff contact employers and delegates prior to distributing the survey to advise them in advance and reassure them that the survey required a minimal time commitment and would not interfere with work duties. This step was taken to help encourage employers to support employees completing the survey while at work (see appendix D).

As stated previously, the results to this study are not generalizable to the New Zealand population. Furthermore, this study is not able to give estimates to the number of PSA members who may have experienced or be experiencing domestic violence. The participation across sectors was not reflective of the PSA membership, with some sectors over or under represented (See table 5). This is likely the result of a number of possible contributing factors including: the poor response rate; certain employers within each sector being more or less supportive of workers completing the survey in company time; and some professions within sectors may not have been conducive to completing the survey while at work.

It is unclear what impact the differential response rate between participants and the sector membership may have had on the results of the study. The chi-square tests indicate that there were no differences in the experiences of violence for paid employees between sectors. It is possible that since most professions, and therefore people from all educational levels and income levels, could be employed in any of the sectors, that there is more within group variance than between group variance. In other words, there are likely to be more differences between a person working in a clerical role and a person working in a registered professional role within the same sector, than there are between overall sectors.

5.2.2 Strengths

Despite the limitations of the present study, many of the findings provide significant insight into the nature of the impact of domestic violence on workers and the workplace and contribute to the existing international literature. Most importantly, this study provides another look at these issues from within a New Zealand context.

One of the major strengths of the present study was that it was able to sample from a large geographical area, covering all parts of New Zealand where there are public service employees. Furthermore, this study was also able to survey a broad range of professions from all sectors of the PSA and had participants from a multitude of ethnic, age, and employment backgrounds. This diversity in the sample is largely the result of using a web-based approach to conduct the survey. The use of the internet makes it possible to reach a variety of people from different age, cultural, ethnic, and geographical backgrounds who are widely dispersed and would be otherwise difficult to contact because of time and resource limitations (Boyer, Olson, Calantone, & Jackson, 2002; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Truell, Bartlett, & Alexander, 2002; van Gelder et al., 2010).

The effects of domestic violence on workers and the workplace has not been examined before in New Zealand and so it was important that the present study draw from a wide sample of working people to give the best estimates and descriptions of the impacts. The sample for this study encompassed a variety of working age groups, genders, and employment types, and while the response rate was below optimal, the study did reveal findings that are consistent with international research showing that domestic violence does affect victims' ability to be productive and focused employees and that workplace responses play a large role in how victims deal with domestic violence (Logan et al., 2007; McFerran, 2011a; Swanberg, 2004). Furthermore, despite the fact that the findings must be treated with caution, the data is still informative and it is possible to see a snapshot of the experiences workers had with domestic violence as well as also witness the gendered nature of the effects of domestic violence on workers in New Zealand.

The sensitive nature of the topic of the present study meant that anonymity and confidentiality was extremely important to participants. The use of an online survey meant participant identities were well protected and that the information disclosed was likely to be more reliable and valid (Duffy, Smith, Terhanian, & Bremer, 2005; Kiesler & Sproull, 1986; Yun & Trumbo, 2000). Research by Kwak and Radler (2002) suggests that web-based surveys allow for a higher level of richness in the data received, with lengthier and more detailed open-ended responses. There is evidence that online research provides a perceived level of security for participants that allows them to disclose more fully and honestly than other survey methods (Binik, Mah, & Kiesler, 1999; DeLorme, Sinkhan, & French, 2001). This is bolstered by the fact that there is no need for contact between participants and researchers, making any chance of identification close to zero (Hewson, Laurent, & Vogel, 1996) Eliminating contact between the researcher and participants also means that participants are less likely to be influenced by subtle cues or pressures from the researcher or feel the need to answer in ways that are socially expected (Kiesler & Sproull, 1986).

Another strength of this study was that the need for most data entry was eliminated by the use of an online questionnaire. This resulted in a reduced risk of transcription errors and that significant time and energy was saved during analysis. Research suggests that since programs that run web-based surveys store data electronically as it is submitted which can later be transferred for statistical analysis, there is less chance for unreliable results to be produced (Braithwaite et al., 2003). With less error, findings are thought to be more accurate than findings from classic survey methods such as those done through telephone or interview questionnaires (Eysenbach & Wyatt, 2002; Solomon, 2001; van Gelder et al., 2010).

5.3 Policy and Practice Implications

The findings of the present study illustrate the complex and far reaching consequences of domestic violence on employee productivity, attendance and safety. Prior to this research, there was very little data on the experiences of victims of domestic violence and how it impacts work done in New Zealand. As such, the results of the present study raise several implications for policy and practice in New Zealand.

Several researchers have concluded that there is a profound interlocking relationship between work life and private life (Johnson & Gardner, 1999; McFerran, 2011b; Murray & Powell, 2007; Swanberg et al., 2006; Swanberg & Macke, 2006; Swanberg & Logan, 2005; Tolman, 2011; Tolman et al., 2002). Employees are the sum total of their knowledge and skills as well as their experiences, relationships, joys and troubles. It is difficult for one area of life to function successfully if the other is experiencing difficulty. In order to address the effects that domestic violence has on workers and the workplace, it would be beneficial to implement policy and practice guidelines that provide some guidance and assistance to both victims and their employers.

5.3.1 Legislative Policy and Practice Implications

Currently in New Zealand domestic violence is handled through criminal and family law legislation. However, there is potential for domestic violence to also be addressed through employment law, particularly those laws that focus on occupational safety, anti-discrimination, and human rights. Legislation would help protect workers against the economic upheaval caused by employment practices that are punitive for victims of domestic violence, such as scaling back hours or termination. Employment laws addressing domestic violence could provide a foundation for workplaces to actively take steps to provide support to employees, reducing the costs associated with the impacts of domestic violence for both victims and employers. More importantly, legislation protecting victims can help establish a pathway out of violence and end cycles of abuse. Furthermore, Widess (2008) explains that because domestic violence is a gendered matter that

primarily affects women, addressing it as a workplace issue can be an important part of supporting working women.

Legislation focused on employment cannot take the place of family and criminal law, however it can work in concert with existing structures for addressing domestic violence to help create comprehensive legal protections for victims. As shown in the review of the literature, New Zealand devotes a significant amount of economic and social resources towards preventing and coping with the ramifications of domestic violence (Snively, 1994). Laws focused on maintaining the economic stability of victims and decreasing costs for employers could have a considerable impact on the overall economic costs for the country.

The results of this study show that it is probable that New Zealand businesses and workplaces are currently experiencing financial costs as the result of domestic violence. Nonetheless, it is unlikely that without some intervention companies will begin taking steps to implement procedures to support victims of domestic violence. While employees in New Zealand do have access to EAP services, it would be unusual for a company to have a specific policy related to domestic violence. It was beyond the scope of the present study to assess to what extent employers had policies in place for responding to domestic violence. However, none of the study participants mentioned being aware of such policies. This phenomenon is not unique to New Zealand. In the U.S. a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2006) reported that very few companies have provisions in place concerning domestic violence, and of those, fewer still train management and staff about the policies. It would be far more common for employers to become concerned about domestic violence after it presents as an issue in the workplace, possibly resulting in negative consequences for the victim (Widiss, 2008). In the present study most of the participants reported that disclosing their abuse to their workplace resulted in positive things happening. However, as discussed in the limitations section, one of the methodological drawbacks of this study was the possibility of sample bias excluding those who were terminated or experienced negative consequences.

It is possible that without some kind of legislative protections, victims of domestic violence can be fired for issues like absenteeism, poor work performance or even out of employer concern that physical violence could occur in the workplace. Concern that disclosure could lead to punitive reactions from management could cause victims to avoid telling their employers about the violence they are experiencing, ultimately limiting any protections that could be taken to increase their security (Tolman & Wang, 2005). Participants in the current study frequently referred to how important having and understanding manager can be. It is likely that businesses would benefit from comprehensive training on the issues surrounding domestic violence in order to facilitate greater

levels of support in the workplace for victims. This could be required as part of occupational safety or anti-discrimination training. Furthermore, training could help with making managers and supervisors more aware of a broader range of responses to an employee experiencing domestic violence. Most of the participants in this study who did disclose their abuse to their managers reported receiving a positive response. However, very few employers engaged in active strategies to deal with the violence like providing extra security or notifying the police, despite many participants reporting the perpetrator having direct contact with them in and around the workplace.

According to Widiss (2008) some advocates have argued that firing a woman whose work performance has suffered because of domestic violence is sex discrimination and therefore illegal. However, Widiss goes on to explain that it is difficult to prove such discrimination as there are so few male victims to compare with and demonstrate that treatment is different because of gender. Smith and Orchiston (2011) explain that discrimination happens when an employer treats an employee in a way that is harmful specifically because of a certain protected characteristic, such as gender or disability. Smith and Orchiston further rationalize that this is interpreted to mean that it is necessary to demonstrate that a worker with a certain trait who is complaining of discrimination be compared to how another employee with a different trait was treated in a similar circumstance.

There is a case to be made in New Zealand for legislation on the basis discrimination. The Human Rights Act (1993) makes discrimination because of specific attributes (gender, sexual orientation, race, family status) illegal. Such legislation could offer protection for workers under the auspices of one of the protected classes. Some researchers have suggested that employers be held liable if they have not taken action to ensure a victim of domestic violence is safe while at work and an incident of domestic violence occurs since it has a clear gendered component (Johnson & Gardner, 1999). Another option is to expand the attributes covered in the Human Rights Act to include 'victim of domestic violence' as a protected group.

According to Smith and Orchiston (2011), using anti-discrimination laws to address domestic violence is advantageous because it protects workers rights and promotes a change in societal attitudes towards victims. They explain that laws against discrimination are meant to adjust the way society sees marginalized groups and can help remove obstacles that prevent equality in society. Victims of domestic violence are frequently blamed for not leaving or ending their own abuse (Flood & Pease, 2009). Smith and Orchiston (2011) also state that making the negative treatment of victims of domestic violence in the workplace a form of discrimination may prevent victims from job loss or sanctions in the workplace. Ultimately this action could make it easier for victims to reveal their experiences and seek assistance or access workplace entitlements.

Another potential legislative move could be to enact laws ensuring leave for domestic violence related issues. This is a step that has been taken voluntarily by many workplaces in Australia (Smith & Orchiston, 2011). Results from this study have shown that victims frequently need to take time off from work for issues such as medical appointments or moving house. Research has also found that for many women experiencing violence, the hours they are at work are the only times they have away from their abuser when they might be able to take steps to leave (Rothman et al., 2007). Legislating for paid time off would ensure that all employees have equal access to leave and that employer discretion would be removed from the equation, making it available to any person without fear of the leave being denied. Laws could also be designed to make penalizing employees who take time off because of domestic violence a form of discrimination and illegal.

One more possible legislative approach would be to allow workplaces to obtain protection orders against abusers even if the victim does not already have a protection order. This has the benefit of keeping an abuser away from the workplace and the victim's colleagues in the event that the victim is not ready to disclose about the abuse or leave the relationship. Additionally, it also removes the blame from the victim who can claim that it was the decision of her employer and not hers to have a protection order issued. A final benefit of this approach is that it makes clear that from the employer's point of view, the problem is with the person doing the abusing and not with the employee who is the victim (Widiss, 2008).

It is possible that businesses could take many of these steps on their own without legislative intervention. Certainly, it is desirable that employers take into consideration the circumstances and difficulties experienced by their employees without being forced to do so. However, as previously discussed, employers have traditionally viewed the lives of workers outside of work to be private and, due to classic organisational models, have been slow to recognise issues that predominantly affect women (Swanberg, 2004; Swanberg et al., 2012). Research has also shown that employers tend to underestimate the chances that someone who works for them is experiencing domestic violence and overestimate the chances that violence will happen in the workplace as a result of having a victim as an employee (Widiss, 2008). These factors, along with broader misconceptions about domestic violence in society, can create obstacles to businesses taking deliberate proactive steps towards addressing domestic violence among the workforce. Nonetheless, there are several actions employers can take, if they are so inclined, to alleviate the burden of domestic violence among workers.

5.3.2 Employer Policy and Practice

Several American companies were quick to adopt workplace safety plans that included provisions for addressing domestic violence. Polaroid, Liz Claiborne and Verizon all hold training sessions for management and provide resources for employees, including information sessions and pamphlets outlining company policies and available assistance (Johnson & Indvik, 1999; Johnson & Gardner, 1999; Milligan, 1999; Sherve, 2004; Solomon, 1998). It is important that businesses recognise the impact that domestic violence has on employees, the workplace and the work environment and take steps to counter the negative effects created by domestic violence. However, companies like this are still the exception rather than the rule.

Often workplaces are rigid in their rules about time off and extra accommodations for employees. Research has shown that this creates significant problems maintaining successful employment for victims (Acker, 1990; Swanberg, 2004). Many times whether or not a person is granted flexible work arrangements or time off is up to the discretion of immediate supervisors. Awareness training for those in management on the impacts of domestic violence and how to recognise signs someone is dealing with violence could help make supervisors more willing to make small alterations to schedules, duties, and work locations. These small allotments that are most often judgement calls on the part of managers can make an enormous difference to a victim's ability to access services and feel supported. In addition, this flexibility can help keep all employees safe. While acts of extreme violence at the workplace stemming from domestic violence are rare, they can be devastating when they do occur (Widiss, 2008). Johnson and Gardner (1999) explain that changes to increase safety for employees can be relatively simple, such as having visitors check in at the receptionist's desk when they arrive.

Very few participants in this study reported that their workplaces took such steps. This suggests that their employers did not readily think of these kinds of accommodations. In fact the most common response when asked what steps the workplace took in response to the domestic violence being experienced by the victim was that they did nothing at all. This is unfortunate as there are a number of strategies workplaces can utilise to reduce the effects of domestic violence in the workplace. According to Murray and Powell (2007) steps can include having a formal written policy about violence in the workplace, open discussions about the effects of domestic violence, and supportive statements from management about the victims of domestic violence. Johnson and Gardner (1999) go so far as to provide a checklist of steps employers should take to address domestic violence. The checklist includes items such as referring victims to refuge services or domestic violence experts and making sure to offer all employees a basic level of respect and dignity when they are experiencing trauma.

One of the benefits of encouraging workplaces to develop their own domestic violence policies is that they can incorporate it into their existing policy arrangements. Every work environment has different circumstances and requirements. For many companies, particularly small businesses, it is valuable to be able to shape their domestic violence policies to fit their organisational structure as well as the needs of employees and clients. Domestic violence policies fit well with policies that most businesses already have, such as occupational safety policies and anti-discrimination policies. This allows businesses to utilise existing resources, rather than expend extra financial cost or time. For example, domestic violence can be addressed as part of a regular training seminar on workplace safety or with the addition of refuge information in the company handbook. Murray and Powell (2007) explain that existing human resource structures make tailoring workplace policies around the values of the organisation a simple matter. Domestic violence policies fit well with philosophies extolling work life balance and family friendliness. This results in making the inclusion of things like flexible leave, varied shifts, providing refuge information and additional security fit in as part of the existing business model, rather than a special side policy, ultimately normalising the existence of provisions addressing family violence and making them a more comfortable fit for companies (Murray & Powell, 2007).

Another potential approach businesses can take when developing practices for dealing with the effects of domestic violence at work is to partner with existing domestic violence experts and social services. According to Murray and Powell (2007) businesses can invite someone from a domestic violence service organisation to come to the workplace to give a presentation, provide information and offer services to employees. This approach has the added benefit of possibly giving direct contact with an expert and resources to workers rather than having to refer them out. Currently in New Zealand several organisations including The North Harbour Business Association, the It's Not Okay Campaign (Ministry of Social Development), Police, the Family Violence Networks of Auckland's North Shore and Rodney, Shine and the North Shore Women's Centre, have partnered together to provide resources to and engage businesses in addressing domestic violence as a workplace issue (New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse, 2013b). In addition, the White Ribbon Campaign, an organisation that seeks to engage men in helping to end violence against women, is beginning to take steps to work with businesses on domestic violence issues (McCann, 2012). Shine, an organisation that engages in victim advocacy and designs programmes to stop domestic violence, created the DVfree Workplace Programme, which is a comprehensive strategy to help businesses address domestic violence among their employees. It includes information about domestic violence as a workplace issue, a sample domestic violence policy for workplaces, and suggestions for training and practice (Shine, 2013).

Other organisations outside of businesses where effort can be made to address domestic violence as a workplace issue is in unions. In the present study participants overwhelmingly answered that they felt workplace entitlements directed at dealing with domestic violence would be helpful for victims. The collective bargaining power of unions can play a significant role in changing work culture to recognise domestic violence as a workplace issue. Unions have been instrumental in bargaining for improved working conditions and compensation for workers. The organised and combined voices of workers are able to negotiate for policies that protect the interests of employees better than an individual worker would be able. Collective bargaining has played an important role in establishing regulations affecting leave allotment, flex time, and employee safety.

Currently many unions have begun addressing the issue of domestic violence and advocating for entitlements to support and protect workers who are victims. In the U.K., many unions have actively been tackling domestic violence and its prevention with workplace interventions including bargaining for policies preventing discrimination against victims of domestic violence, encouraging employers to keep educational materials visible, and beginning several pilot programmes focused on the training of management and the monitoring of perpetrators (Trade Union Congress, 2002; Trade Union Congress, 2012). Unions in the U.S. make training materials and resources for victims available to employers (Family Violence Prevention Fund, 2004). Australian unions have aggressively bargained for entitlements designed to specifically address domestic violence (Brigden, 2011). Recently, it has become standard in a number of workplaces for employees to have access to 20 days of paid leave for any activity related to dealing with domestic violence issue (Schneiders, 2010). In addition, many workplaces have instituted awareness-raising training and posters to make management and supervisors more aware of how to handle situations that arise if they suspect an employee is experiencing domestic violence or an employee discloses domestic violence (Schneiders, 2010). In New Zealand, the present study was conducted in cooperation with the PSA who, along with engaging with research into domestic violence as a workplace issue, has released information to employers encouraging awareness-raising, increased action, and the development of healthy policies around the effects of domestic violence (Public Service Association, 2013).

Unions can take an active role in encouraging the types of policy and practice changes outlined above. Domestic violence support and prevention resources can be adopted into existing union benefit negotiations and agreements with employers as part of established policies surrounding occupational health and safety or anti-discrimination (Murray & Powell, 2007). Unions also have the ability to advocate for benefits that employers would otherwise be reluctant to grant due to upfront costs (Gerstel & Clawson, 2001). Union delegates can be trained on issues involving

domestic violence and can include it as a topic during presentations or meetings with employers. One of the major benefits of training union delegates on domestic violence awareness, prevention and policies is that union representatives may have access to workplaces that other domestic violence specialists may not. This way there are professionals with advanced training who can advise on appropriate workplace practices dealing with domestic violence as well as provide resources for victims (Murray & Powell, 2007). However, in areas where unions are not strong or in industries that lack adequate union support, the ability to negotiate for certain policies could be limited and domestic violence may not be seen as a sufficiently important issue compared to other occupational safety issues and collective benefits (Gerstel & Clawson, 2001; Murray & Powell, 2007).

No single approach to addressing domestic violence in the workplace would appropriately create policies that both support victims and protect the interests of business. Legislation would be unable to account for the many subtleties and nuances involved in different business cultures. It is unlikely that legal reforms could adequately create policy that meets the needs of all victims and employers as the circumstances and demands of employment can vary greatly from company to company and sector to sector. Workplaces, being firstly interested in their profits and costs, are not likely to adopt domestic violence policies without some pressure from outside organisations demonstrating that business stands to benefit from such policies as well. Furthermore, as discussed previously, the gendered nature of the business establishment makes it unlikely that companies would change policies to adjust for the impacts of domestic violence without some form of legal intervention addressing discrimination, as they disproportionately affect women. Outside organisations, such as the Women's Refuge, lack the power to effect policy change and can be limited in their access to many workplaces. Unions may have the power to effect change, but all sectors are not equally covered by unions and many jobs lack union coverage at all. The evidence suggests that the most effective way to support victims of domestic violence, as well as reduce the impact on the workplace, is to employ an integrated approach involving versions of all of the intervention pathways discussed above.

5.3.3 Implementation of Domestic Violence Policy and Practice for Workplaces

The findings from this study, while limited in their ability to be generalised, do demonstrate that domestic violence can have profound impacts on employees and employers. This is important when discussing how to encourage interventions to address domestic violence as a workplace issue. According to Murray and Powell (2008) workplaces often need convincing that domestic violence is an issue for workers and that the business stands to benefit from implementing policy and procedures for addressing it. Research such as this can be used to demonstrate to employers that

some workers are indeed victims of domestic violence and, perhaps more importantly to employers, that the domestic violence impacts the victims' abilities to perform successfully in the workplace. The successful implementation of policies in the workplace around domestic violence depends on employers recognising the problem and being willing to invest in tackling it.

Johnson and Gardner (2000) claim that many employers maintain common myths about domestic violence and often place the onus on ending violence on the victim. Challenging these beliefs and demonstrating why domestic violence is a workplace issue is paramount to getting employers to recognise the important role they can play in addressing domestic violence. Engaging the interest and support of managers and CEOs is key to both the creation of policies and their success once put in place. Any interventions, whether they be developed from legislative reforms, the workplace itself, domestic violence prevention organisations, or unions, will require that those who play leadership roles in companies be invested in implementing change. Leadership plays a direct role in shaping the workplace culture that either supports or discourages victims from using any benefits put into place. This means comprehensive information regarding the effects of domestic violence must be available to help convince companies to enthusiastically adopt policies supporting victims.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine how domestic violence affects workers and what kind of impacts domestic violence has in the workplace and on employers. The findings of this study demonstrated several interesting results about how domestic violence affected the ability of workers to get to work, the types of experiences they had while at work, what kind of help seeking victims engage in, and how businesses respond. Additionally, this study helps contribute to the international literature, as this was a topic in which there was little existing research from a New Zealand context.

Despite limitations to the study due to limited response size (1,638 out of 10,000 invitations with 1,626 valid responses), the survey conducted on members of the New Zealand PSA yielded useful information. Similar to international literature, this study found that among participants the majority of those who had experienced domestic violence were women whose abusers were their male partners. Also, the responses of those who reported being victims of domestic violence while in employment indicated that the abuse had a significant negative impact on their ability to perform their responsibilities at work, which then possibly affected the productivity of their co-workers. Furthermore, survey participants indicated that they felt workplace support is an important part of enabling a victim of domestic violence to maintain employment.

This study, by examining the implications of domestic violence and how it affects the victim in the workplace, demonstrates the need for companies to have effective policies to address domestic violence situations when they occur in order to both support the victimized employee as well as ensure both the safety and continued productivity of other employees. Employees who are the victims of domestic violence suffer from increased requirements for time off to handle domestic violence-related issues and decreased productivity due to health issues or emotional distress. This loss of productivity also affects the victim's co-workers and managers. Furthermore, if a domestic violence incident occurs at the workplace this can threaten the safety of all staff members.

Therefore, while participants reported that being able to take paid time off helped them, policies supporting an employee who is the victim of domestic violence cannot be limited to time off. More active responses to domestic violence by employers would be helpful to New Zealand victims. Flexibility in work locations and hours, providing information on domestic violence support programs, Employee Assistance Programs, alerting security or police and providing a safe and supportive non-discriminatory environment are all means by which an employer can aid employees who are victims of domestic violence.

Murray's (2007) suggestion of using workplaces as locations to establish intervention protocols for victims would give employers the chance to play a pivotal part in changing the way women experience their interactions with the workplace. For businesses this could mean reduced costs associated with having to hire and retrain new employees, better morale in the workplace and a safer and more secure environment. The workplace is an ideal setting to provide support, encouragement, and resources to victims of domestic violence, with the potential to significantly improve the circumstances of their lives.

It is rare for companies to formulate policies and procedures to address the effects of domestic violence in the workplace, but it is a practice that should be adopted in order to reduce the adverse effects that can arise. However, beyond the need for companies to take steps to address domestic violence there is also a need for further legislative action to assist in the prevention of domestic violence. Providing legislative support for victims that prevents employers from firing victims for excessive absenteeism, poor productivity, or in response to the threat posed by the perpetrator of domestic violence to the workplace, will give victims a measure of security that does not presently exist. In addition, it may precipitate action on the part of employers in creating formal policies and procedures to address incidents of domestic violence and support victims.

Expansion of the Human Rights Act to cover victims of domestic violence as a protected group would serve both as a further inducement to companies to create protections for domestic violence victims as well as to promote a societal change in the attitudes toward victims. By identifying victims of domestic violence as a specific marginalized group it is possible to change the way in which they are viewed by society (Smith & Orchiston, 2011). This is a crucial step in ensuring that victims of domestic violence are able to obtain the help that they need both socially and professionally.

Employers cannot continue to ignore the way domestic violence affects employees and the workplace. As women have become more involved in the workplace and organisational structures have changed, it is clear that domestic violence has profound repercussions for the professional success of workers, the productivity of business, and ultimately on the economic wellbeing of women and society. Managers need to make sure that workers are supported and safe while they are at work. This benefits not only those experiencing domestic violence but also the bottom line for business. Furthermore, it is the morally appropriate thing to do, as all people deserve to have access to financial security and freedom from discrimination for being victimised by a crime. Johnson and Garner (1999) suggest that the best way for businesses to address the issue of domestic violence is to be proactive. By aggressively engaging with the realities of domestic violence,

businesses can avoid taking on the financial and resource costs associated with its occurrence in the workplace. Most importantly, it will help establish a healthier and more equal workplace for all employees.

Given the prevalence of domestic violence and the limited resources and support available to victims in the workplace, it is imperative that action be taken to improve the support systems in place for victims and encourage government legislation and corporate policies to help victims cope with and improve their situations. While the costs in lost work time and productivity can only be estimated, the evidence suggests that it is likely to be significant. The financial repercussions of domestic violence on workers and the workplace affect the economic stability of victims, the ability to earn profit for businesses, and the overall GNP of the country. The benefits of the suggested improvements will serve to minimize those costs and make it possible for social change that helps prevent domestic violence from occurring.

As this study highlights the need for further protections and support for the victims of domestic violence it is recommended that future research address the issue of the low response rate experienced by this survey. While it was advantageous to be able to access the breadth of geography, range of professions, and multitude of demographic backgrounds offered by surveying members of the PSA, the survey could not incorporate any victims whose experience with domestic violence forced them to leave employment and therefore no longer be a member of the PSA. A more focused survey of victims of domestic violence through an outside organization including participants who are both employed and unemployed would help to give a more comprehensive picture of the experiences of victims of domestic violence and how it has affected their employment. This is particularly relevant given that this survey was open to participants who had no experience of domestic violence.

Further study of the policies and procedures in place at various companies and organizations within New Zealand would also be informative. By examining the extent to which organizations address issues of domestic violence in their formal Human Resources guidelines and policies would give a clearer indication of what steps New Zealand companies and organizations need to take in order to put policies and procedures in place. Performing this research can serve as a first step in educating companies and their human resource departments of the need to formalize specific guidelines to address domestic violence.

Finally, it would also be beneficial for future research to examine the effectiveness of the workplace interventions put in place. The savings in costs associated with domestic violence could be examined as well as the numbers of victims who have been identified and received assistance. Such

research would help demonstrate the importance of workplace supports from both the economic standpoint for businesses as well as the moral standpoint of helping people in need. Furthermore, research on the effectiveness of workplace interventions could help design and tailor workplace programs to be more successful.

This research provided a number of valuable insights into how domestic violence can affect workers and their workplaces. Furthermore, the findings are comparable to those reported in the international literature, which lends credibility to the results. In the end, this study gives a deeper understanding of domestic violence as a workplace issue in New Zealand, while contributing to the existing body of international research. It is hoped that this research can serve as a starting place for discussions around experiences of domestic violence and its costs for employers and employees to take place. By examining the various ways domestic violence contributes to problems at work, perhaps employers will be better able to see how victims stay trapped in abusive situations and how workplace supports might help. With increased workplace supports, victims may experience more economic security and be better able to leave abusive situations, which ultimately reduces the financial and resource costs for employers and for society.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire

PSA Domestic Violence and the Workplace Survey

This survey explores how domestic violence affects workers, coworkers, and the workplace. You do not have to have personally experienced domestic violence to participate in this survey. Everyone's opinion matters. Your participation is completely voluntary and anonymous. There are 5 short sections to this survey and it should take you no more than 15 minutes to complete. Thank you for taking the time to fill in this survey. Your opinion really counts. Your participation will help your union better reflect your needs.

Section 1 – Demographic Profile

1. Are you a?

- Man
- Woman
- In your own words: _____

2. Which of the following age groups do you fit into?

- 18 – 24
- 25 – 34
- 35 – 44
- 45 – 54
- 55 – 64
- 65+

3a. Where were you born?

- New Zealand
- Overseas – Please Specify: _____

3b. Which ethnic group do you belong to?

- New Zealand European
- Māori
- Samoan
- Cook Island Māori
- Tongan
- Niuean
- Chinese
- Indian
- Other-Please Specify: _____

4. Which of the following best describes your employment status?

- Permanent, Full-Time
- Permanent, Part-Time
- Casual (On call, as needed)
- Temporary (fixed term, seasonal)

5a. In which sector of the PSA do you work?

- Community Public Services (Includes NGOs, disability support workers not working for DHBs and those working in other publicly funded social and community services.)
- District Health Boards (Includes both DHBs and shared services for DHBs)
- Local Government (Includes both councils and council controlled organisations)
- Public Service (Includes public service departments, the non-public service departments and the offices of Parliament.)
- State Sector (Includes crown entities, crown research institutes, state owned enterprises and former state agencies.)
- Private sector

5b. What best describes your current role?

- Clerical and Administrative Worker (e.g., receptionist, general clerical worker, programme administrator).
- Contact or Call Centre Worker (e.g., customer service representative, contact centre operator).
- Inspection or Regulation Worker (e.g., customs and immigration officer, taxation inspector).
- Labourer (e.g., cleaner, construction worker, process worker, other labourer).
- Machinery Operators and Driver (e.g., plant operator, driver).
- Manager (e.g., manager, team leader).
- Professional (e.g., legal or finance professional, HR professional, IT and information professional, policy analyst).
- Registered Social, Health, and Education Professional (e.g., nurse, social worker, psychologist).
- Sales Worker (e.g., sales representative, sales assistant, sales support worker).
- Scientist (e.g., agricultural and forestry consultant, natural and physical science professional).
- Technician and Trades Worker (e.g., ICT technician, science technician, construction and telecommunication trades worker).
- Unregistered Community and Personal Service Worker (e.g., case manager, protective service worker, parole officer, hospitality worker, social, health, or education worker).

Section 2 – Experience of Domestic Violence

By domestic violence we mean any abuse by any other person such as a spouse or partner, a family member, someone you ordinarily share a household with or have a close personal relationship with that may include:

- Physical violence: hitting, shoving, having things thrown at you, etc.
- Sexual violence: being forced to touch sexually in inappropriate and uncomfortable ways, being forced to have sex when you don't want to, being forced to watch sexual activity, etc.
- Psychological violence: name calling, threatening you, threatening people you care about, isolating you, restricting your relationships with other people, being excessively critical of you, and belittling or humiliating you, etc.

6. Which of the following best describes your experience of domestic violence?

- I have experienced domestic violence while in paid employment. (Go to Q 7)
- I have experienced domestic violence but was not in paid employment (Go to Q 23)
- I have not personally experienced domestic violence – but I know someone who is in paid employment who has experienced it. (Go to Q 22a)
- I have not personally experienced domestic violence – but I know someone who is not in paid employment who has experienced it. (Go to Q 23)
- I have had no experience of domestic violence. (Go to Q 23)

7. Are you still living with the abusive/violent person?

- Yes
- No

8. What gender is the abusive/violent person?

- Man
- Woman
- In your own words: _____

9. What is your relationship with the abusive/violent person?

- Your current Partner (Defacto, Married or Civil Union)
- Your ex-partner (Defacto, Married or Civil Union)
- Your parent or caregiver
- Your child
- Other – Please Specify: _____

Section 3 – Impact on Getting to Work

10. Did the domestic violence affect your capacity to get to work?

- Yes
- No (Go to Q12)

11. (If yes), did you experience (Tick all that apply):

- Hiding or stealing car keys or transportation money.
- Physical injury or restraint.
- Personal documents hidden or stolen.
- The threat of deportation.
- Refusal or failure to show up to care for children
- Fear of leaving children alone with abusive/violent person
- Other – Please Specify: _____

Section 4 – Impact in the Workplace

12. Did you experience the domestic violence in the workplace in any of the following ways? (Please tick all that apply)

- Harassed through phone calls, email or text messages.
- Abusive/violent person stalked outside/in/around the workplace
- Abusive/Violent person physically turned up in the workplace and (please tick all that apply)

Drop down menu

- Just wanted to talk
- Disrupted the workplace
- Threatened you
- Threatened co-workers
- Brought a weapon
- Other – Please Specify: _____
- Did not experience domestic violence in the workplace.

13a. Did you have to take time off work because of domestic violence?

- Yes
- No (Go to Q 14)

13b. If yes, What was the time off for? (Please tick all that apply)

- Attend Court
- Attend appointments (e.g. police/lawyer)
- Attend Counseling
- Health/medical reasons
- Accommodation purposes (e.g. had to move house)
- Other – Please Specify: _____

14. Did domestic violence impact on your performance at work in any of the following ways?

- Was late for work.
- Work performance affected by being distracted/tired/unwell.
- Other – Please Specify: _____

15. Did the abusive/violent person work in the same workplace?

- Yes
- No

16. Has the violence towards you affected your co-workers in any of the following ways?

- They were threatened or harmed.
- Caused conflict and/or tension with co-workers.
- Other – Please Specify: _____

Section 5 – Support in the Workplace

17a. Did you discuss the violence with anyone at work?

- Yes (Go to Q 18a)
- No

17b. What were the reasons you did not discuss this with anyone at work?

- Fear of dismissal.
- Shame.
- Privacy.
- Other – Please Specify: _____

17c. Do you think people at your work were aware of the violence (even if they did not tell you)?

- Yes
- No (Go to Q 20a)

17d. If yes, how do you think they knew about the violence? (Then go to Q 20a)

18a. Which of the following best describes the position(s) within the company of the person/people you spoke with at work about the violence?

- Supervisor/manager
- HR Officer
- Union Delegate
- Co-worker
- Friend
- Other – Please Specify: _____

18b. If you spoke to more than one person about the violence, who was the most helpful?

19a. Which of the following best describes the outcomes of discussing the violence with people you worked with?

- Positive things happened.
- Negative things happened.
- Nothing really changed.

19b. Did your work help you in any of the following ways? (Tick all that apply)

- Time off (unpaid).
- Time off (paid)
- Moved you to a safer place at work.
- Changed/screened work numbers or emails
- Provided transport between work and home.
- Provided security alarm where you work.
- Alerted security staff
- Alerted the Police
- Other – Please Specify: _____
- None of these.

20a. Did you ask a work colleague to take time off from work to accompany you to court, hospital or another appointment?

- Yes
- No (Go to 21a)

20b. Did your workplace allow your colleague to accompany you?

- Yes
- No

Section 6 – Protection Orders/Family Court

21a. Have you ever reported the violence to the police?

- Yes
- No

21b. Have you ever obtained a protection order?

- Yes
- No (Go to Q 21d)

21c. Is your workplace included in the order as a place not to be approached?

- Yes
- No

21d. Are you involved in Family Court proceedings? (Then go to Q23)

- Yes
- No

Section 7 – Employed Friend/Colleague Experienced Domestic Violence

22a. Did the violence to your friend/colleague impact in the workplace in any of the following ways?

- They were harassed through phone calls, email or text messages.
- They were physically harassed at the workplace.
- Caused conflict and tension with co-workers.
- Other – Please Specify: _____
- Don't know.

22b. Did the workplace, to your knowledge, help your friend/colleague in any of the following ways?

- Time off (unpaid).
- Time off (paid)
- Moved them to a safer place at work.
- Changed/screened work numbers or emails
- Provided transport between work and home.
- Provided security alarm where they worked.
- Alerted security staff
- Alerted police
- Provided a supportive environment.
- Other – Please Specify: _____
- None of these.
- Don't know.

Section 8 – General Responses

23. Do you think domestic violence can impact on the work lives of employees?

- Yes
- No

24. Do you think that workplace entitlements such as paid leave and safety policies could reduce the impact of domestic violence in the workplace?

- Yes
- No

25. Please provide any comments regarding what else you think might help working people experiencing domestic violence.

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey. If, as a result of filling in this survey, you feel the need to talk confidentially about your experience of domestic violence, please contact the 24-hour Crisisline at 0800 REFUGE or 0800 733 843.

Appendix B: Email Invitation to Participate

Dear _____,

In an effort to examine the impact of domestic violence on workers and the workplace, the Public Service Association (PSA) in collaboration with the New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse (NZFVC) is conducting a research study with its members.

Your answers can help us understand the needs at work of those experiencing domestic violence and could help influence policy or procedures regarding support and benefits for those dealing with domestic violence. You do not have to have personally experienced domestic violence to complete this survey. Everyone's opinion matters and can help make a difference.

We estimate that it should take you no more than 15 minutes to complete the survey. Your input is very important to us. We know that you'll be busy at work and at home so we've designed the survey so that you can complete it in one go or in short sessions if that works better for you. You can forward this email with the link below to another personal address but please do not forward it on to someone else. The survey closes on *5/7/2013*.

If participating in the survey raises issues you would like to discuss with someone you can contact the 24-hour Crisis-line at 0800 REFUGE (0800 733 843).

The survey:

- has been modified from the Australian Domestic Violence Workplace Rights and Entitlements Project to fit the New Zealand context and the results will be analysed through the NZFVC under the supervision of co-directors Associate Professor Janet Fanslow and Associate Professor Robyn Dixon.
- is an independent survey commissioned by the PSA and it is being sent to a randomised sample of PSA members. It is not being done through your employer. The data collected will be analysed by the NZFVC.
- is anonymous and confidential - no individual responses will be reported to the PSA, the NZFVC, or to your employer.
- is entirely voluntary - your decision to participate or not will not affect provision of service to you by your union, and will not affect any future relations with the PSA.
- will help the PSA to speak up for workers who have experienced domestic violence

and potentially help create workplace policies that support the needs of workers affected by domestic violence.

More information about this survey is available by [clicking here](#).

Please note that by completing the survey you are consenting to participate in this project.

The link below is your survey link

If you have any questions about the survey please contact the PSA at 0508 367 772 or email:

kirsten.windelov@psa.org.nz

Appendix C: Study Frequently Asked Questions (FAQ)

Q&As about this survey

What is this survey about?

This study is looking at the impact of domestic violence on people working in the public service. The goal of this project is to examine how the experience of domestic violence on working people affects various elements of employment and life. The results of this survey will help the PSA better reflect the needs of members, help set the PSA's future agendas, and encourage organisations to improve. You do not need to have personal experience with domestic violence to participate. The survey is open to all members. This survey is based on the Australian Domestic Violence Workplace Rights and Entitlements Project conducted in 2011, and has been modified to fit the New Zealand context.

Why was I invited to participate?

You were randomly selected as a possible participant because you are a member of the PSA.

Does my employer know about the survey?

No. This is an independent survey commissioned by the PSA with the analysis being completed by the New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse (NZFVC). The survey is being sent to randomly selected PSA members in all of the organisations where PSA members work.

Will my answers be anonymous?

Yes. Your answers will be kept anonymous. There is no way that your name or email address can be linked with your answers or that individuals would be able to be identified through written reports associated with this survey.

We intend to send out reminders to those who have not yet completed the survey so we can ensure as full coverage of members as possible. Our technology allows us to record those who have completed the survey but it does not allow us to link responses to individuals.

Who will see survey responses?

The anonymised data will be forwarded to the NZFVC by the PSA. The data will be stored on a password protected computer accessible by Associate Professors Janet Fanslow and Robyn Dixon.

Do I have to answer this survey?

No – your participation is voluntary and you can stop at any time prior to submitting the survey and you do not have to answer any questions you don't want to. You are understood to have given your consent by completing the survey.

Where can I find out the results?

The findings will be made available by the PSA to all PSA members. A summary will be published in the PSA Journal and may be reported internationally.

What do I do if I feel upset by the topic of the survey?

If participating in the survey raises issues you would like to discuss with someone you can contact the 24-hour Crisis-line at 0800 REFUGE (0800 733 843).

Who can I contact if I have more questions about the survey?

If you have any questions about this survey, please call the PSA survey freephone helpline at 0508 367 772. Or contact PSA policy team member Kirsten Windelov at phone 04 816 5065, Email kirsten.windelov@psa.org.nz.

Appendix D: Letter Sent out Prior to Survey Distribution

Hi

A survey on family violence and work will be sent soon to a randomised sample of 10,000 members.

This is a project in collaboration with the NZ Family Violence Clearing House at the University of Auckland.

Organisers and the OC

- You may want to give the employers and key delegates you work with a heads-up about this. Employers may be concerned about people spending work time on this. Please let them know that we are very aware of work pressures, that the survey will take most people around 5 minutes but if people have a direct experience of family violence there are more questions and it will take them at most 15 minutes. Also, we've set it up so that people can complete the survey in multiple short sessions (e.g during breaks) over 3 weeks and can also be forwarded to home addresses.
- You may get inquiries from members about why we are doing this. Have included below the info provided to members who'll be sent the survey and some general Q & A about family violence and the workplace to help you respond to these kinds of queries.
- It is also possible that people may disclose information about their experience of family violence to you. There is absolutely no expectation that you deal with this directly. If this does happen, please refer people on to the 24-hour Crisis-line at 0800 REFUGE (0800 733 843), where members can talk to someone best placed to support them.

About the survey

What is this survey about?

This study is looking at the impact of domestic violence on people working in the PSA's areas of coverage. The goal of this project is to examine how the experience of domestic violence on working people affects various elements of employment and life. The results of this survey will help the PSA better reflect the needs of members, help set the PSA's future agendas, and encourage organisations to improve. You do not need to have personal experience with domestic violence to

participate. The survey is open to all members. This survey is based on the Australian Domestic Violence Workplace Rights and Entitlements Project conducted in 2011, and has been modified to fit the New Zealand context.

Why was I invited to participate?

You were randomly selected as a possible participant because you are a member of the PSA.

Does my employer know about the survey?

No. This is an independent survey commissioned by the PSA with the analysis being completed by the New Zealand Family Violence Clearinghouse (NZFVC). The survey is being sent to randomly selected PSA members in all of the organisations where PSA members work.

Will my answers be anonymous?

Yes. Your answers will be kept anonymous. There is no way that your name or email address can be linked with your answers or that individuals would be able to be identified through written reports associated with this survey.

We intend to send out reminders to those who have not yet completed the survey so we can ensure as full coverage of members as possible. Our technology allows us to record those who have completed the survey but it does not allow us to link responses to individuals.

Who will see survey responses?

The anonymised data will be forwarded to the NZFVC by the PSA. The data will be stored on a password protected computer accessible by Associate Professors Janet Fanslow and Robyn Dixon.

Do I have to answer this survey?

No – your participation is voluntary and you can stop at any time prior to submitting the survey and you do not have to answer any questions you don't want to. You are understood to have given your consent by completing the survey.

Where can I find out the results?

The findings will be made available by the PSA to all PSA members. A summary will be published in the PSA Journal and may be reported internationally.

What do I do if I feel upset by the topic of the survey?

If participating in the survey raises issues you would like to discuss with someone you can contact the 24-hour Crisis-line at 0800 REFUGE (0800 733 843).

Who can I contact if I have more questions about the survey?

If you have any questions about this survey, please call the PSA survey freephone helpline at 0508 367 772. Or contact PSA policy team member Kirsten Windelov at phone 04 816 5065, Email kirsten.windelov@psa.org.nz.

About family violence and the workplace

What is domestic / family violence?

Domestic or family violence is an abuse of power by a partner, ex-partner or family member. It takes many forms including intimidation, control, isolation and emotional, physical, sexual, financial or spiritual abuse. Domestic violence usually increases over time becoming more serious and more frequent. It harms the both victim and any children who witness the abuse.

Domestic violence affects all areas of a victim's life. Why is the workplace in particular important?

The most dangerous times for a victim are post-separation or during pregnancy, and arriving and leaving work.

Women who are subjected to domestic violence have a more disrupted work history, are on lower personal incomes, have had to change jobs frequently and are very often employed in casual and part time work than women with no experience of violence.

Based on the recent Australian research, access economics estimates the total costs in Australia of lost productivity associated with family violence was \$484 million in 2002/2003, to rise to \$609 million in 2021/2022.

Staying in employment is critical to reducing the effects of the violence. By supporting victims to remain in paid employment, workplaces can assist victims on their pathway out of violence and keep the whole workplace safer.

Supporting victims to stay in work by implementing domestic violence entitlements not only maintains productivity, but also reduces recruitment and training costs for employers.

What impact does domestic violence have on work and the workplace?

The abuser may make it hard for the victim to get to work or target the victim at work, the most

common form of domestic violence experienced at work is abusive calls and emails. Additionally, the strain of dealing with domestic violence at home can undermine a worker's productivity, performance and wellbeing.

Domestic violence can also create problems for other staff and managers, who may also be targeted, posing a workplace safety, and ultimately, a liability issue. In extreme cases, a number of women in Australia have been stalked and eventually killed by violent ex-partners whilst at work.

Domestic violence has serious health consequences which will affect work performance: A large study by VicHealth found that family violence is the leading contributor to death, disability and illness in women aged 15-44 years, being a greater contributor than high blood pressure, smoking or obesity.

In 2011 the Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse (ADFVC) at the University of New South Wales conducted a domestic violence and the workplace survey with over 3600 respondents: 30 percent reported that they had personally experienced domestic violence, with 5 percent having experienced it in the previous 12 months.

Nearly half those who had experienced domestic violence reported that the violence affected their capacity to get to work, the major reason was physical injury or restraint (67 percent), followed by hiding keys and/or other parent failing to care for children. For 19 percent, nearly one in five, the violence continued in the workplace, with the majority being harassed by abusive phone calls and emails.

The impacts on worker performance included, feeling anxious, distracted and unwell, having to take time off and being late to work. 100 percent of survey respondents thought domestic violence could have an impact on the working lives of employees, and 78 percent thought that domestic violence workplace entitlements could reduce the impact of domestic violence in the workplace.

Why does domestic violence come into the workplace?

The abusive person may target the victim at work in order to try and get them fired or force them to resign. This is in order to increase their control over the victim - increasing the victim's economic

dependency, undermining the victim's self-confidence or in order to punish the victim for attempting to leave the violent relationship.

Women are particularly vulnerable at work. This is due to predictability of their location and/or working hours. Where combined with easy public access to many workplaces (e.g. retail, hospitality, healthcare and community services), this places victims at significant risk of stalking and harassment.

Barriers to providing support for staff experiencing domestic violence

Domestic violence does not easily fit the definitions and circumstances of other forms of workplace violence, such as workplace bullying or violence from customers and clients. For this reason, it can be hard for a workplace to recognise it is happening or understand what can be done about it.

Who experiences domestic violence?

Both men and women can experience domestic violence, but women experience more severe and persistent forms of abuse and are often more vulnerable as they may have the primary care of children.

The Australian research shows that two thirds of women who have experienced domestic violence with their current partner are in paid employment.

Regards

Kirsten

Kirsten Windelov

Policy advisor

Public Service Association Te Pukenga Here Tikanga Mahi

Appendix E: Chi-Square Tables

Table E1. Experience of Violence While Employed

Table E2. Victim's Gender

Table E3. Ability to Get to Work Affected

Table E4. Took Time Off

Table E5. Discussion of Violence in the Workplace

Table E6. Outcome of Discussing Domestic Violence in the Workplace

Table E7. Obtained a Protection Order

Table E8. Family Court Involvement

Table E1

	Experience of Violence while Employed				χ^2	df	p
	Experienced violence while in paid employment		Know someone who experienced violence while in paid employment				
	n	%	n	%			
Gender							
Man	30	6.0	72	14.5	20.514	1	0.000*
Woman	215	43.3	179	36.1			
Age							
18-44	70	14.0	98	19.6	6.793	2	0.033*
45-54	105	21.0	86	17.2			
55 and Over	74	14.8	68	13.6			
Sector							
District Health Boards	98	19.8	98	19.8	4.167	5	0.526
Local Government	66	13.3	74	14.9			
Public Service	39	7.9	48	9.7			
State Sector	26	5.2	23	4.6			
Community Public Services	14	2.8	7	1.4			
Associate Members	2	0.4	1	0.2			
Role (Recoded)							
Clerical	75	17.2	54	12.4	4.167	5	0.526
Professional	134	30.7	170	39.0			
Technical	0	0.0	3	0.0			
Employment Type (Recoded)							
Full-Time	196	39.1	212	42.3	2.427	1	0.119
Other	53	10.6	40	8.0			

* significant at < 0.05 level

Table E2

	Victim's Gender				χ^2	df	p
	Man		Woman				
	n	%	n	%			
Perpetrator's Gender							
Man	7	3.0	195	82.6	94.591	1	0.00*
Woman	21	8.9	13	5.5			
Relationship							
Current Partner	10	0.6	48	3.0	23.004	2	0.00*
Ex-Partner	15	0.9	137	8.5			
Other †	376	23.3	1025	63.6			
Cohabitation							
Currently living together	9	3.7	48	19.8	1.024	1	0.312
Not currently living together	20	8.3	165	68.2			

* significant at < 0.05 level

† Note: The Other category under relationship is composed of several categories with small numbers of responses which were combined for the purposes of analysis. Refer to table 8 for the breakdown of the combined categories.

Table E3

	Ability to Get to Work Affected				χ^2	df	p
	Yes		No				
	n	%	n	%			
Age							
18-44	28	11.3	42	16.9			
45-54	44	17.7	61	24.6			
55 and Over	23	9.3	50	20.3	2.088	2	0.325
Sector							
District Health Boards	5	2.0	9	3.7			
Local Government	40	16.4	57	23.4			
Public Service	24	9.8	42	17.2			
State Sector	14	5.7	25	10.2			
Community Public Services	10	4.1	16	6.6			
Associate Members	1	0.4	1	0.4	0.703	5	0.983
Role (Recoded)							
Clerical	24	11.5	51	24.5			
Professional	51	24.5	82	39.4	0.838	1	0.360
Employment Type (Recoded)							
Full-Time	69	28.3	126	51.6			
Part-Time	18	7.4	21	8.6			
Other	6	2.5	4	1.6	3.715	2	0.156

* significant at < 0.05 level

Table E4

	Took Time Off				χ^2	df	p
	Yes		No				
	n	%	n	%			
Age							
18-44	43	17.6	25	10.2			
45-54	57	23.3	48	19.6			
55 and Over	31	12.7	41	16.7	5.773	2	0.056
Sector							
District Health Boards	53	22	44	18.3			
Local Government	32	13.36	31	12.9			
Public Service	18	7.5	21	8.7			
State Sector	17	7.1	9	3.7			
Community Public Services	9	3.7	5	2.1			
Associate Members	1	0.4	1	0.4	3.208	5	0.668
Role (Recoded)							
Clerical	37	18.0	36	17.5			
Professional	68	33.0	65	31.6	0.004	1	0.952
Employment Type (Recoded)							
Full-Time	106	44	86	35.7			
Part-Time	16	6.6	23	9.5			
Other	7	2.9	3	1.2	3.759	2	0.153

* significant at < 0.05 level

Table E5

	Discussion of the Violence in the Workplace				χ^2	df	p
	Yes		No				
	n	%	n	%			
Gender							
Man	13	5.3	16	6.6	0.097	1	0.755
Woman	103	42.2	112	45.9			
Age							
18-44	41	16.5	29	11.7	8.627	2	0.013*
45-54	51	20.6	54	21.8			
55 and Over	25	10.1	48	19.4			
Sector							
District Health Boards	50	20.5	47	19.3	1.981	5	0.8525
Local Government	31	12.7	35	14.3			
Public Service	15	6.1	24	9.8			
State Sector	12	4.9	14	5.7			
Community Public Services	7	2.9	7	2.9			
Associate Members	1	0.4	1	0.4			
Role (Recoded)							
Clerical	35	16.7	40	19.1	0.129	1	0.720
Professional	66	31.6	68	32.5			
Employment Type (Recoded)							
Full-Time	88	36.1	107	43.9	2.524	2	0.283
Part-Time	23	9.4	16	6.6			
Other	5	2.0	5	2.0			

* significant at < 0.05 level

Table E6

	Outcome of Discussing Abuse with Co-Workers						χ^2	df	p
	Positive Things Happened		Negative Things Happened		Nothing Happened				
	n	%	n	%	n	%			
Gender									
Man	7	6.3	0	0.0	5	4.5	0.806	2	0.668
Woman	65	58.6	3	2.7	31	27.9			
Age									
18-44	28	25.0	2	1.8	11	9.8	2.201	4	0.699
45-54	29	25.9	1	0.9	17	15.2			
55 and Over	16	14.3	0	0.0	8	7.1			
Sector									
District Health Boards	34	30.4	2	1.8	12	10.7	5.635	10	0.845
Local Government	18	16.1	1	0.9	11	9.8			
Public Service	10	8.9	0	0.0	4	3.6			
State Sector	7	6.3	0	0.0	5	4.5			
Community Public Services	4	3.6	0	0.0	3	2.7			
Associate Members	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.9			
Role (Recoded)									
Clerical	21	21.9	0	0.0	12	12.5	2.976	2	0.226
Professional	45	46.9	3	3.1	15	15.6			
Employment Type (Recoded)									
Full-Time	55	49.5	3	2.7	25	22.5	2.701	4	0.609
Part-Time	13	11.7	0	0.0	10	9.0			
Other	4	3.6	0	0.0	1	0.9			

* significant at < 0.05 level

Table E7

	Obtained a Protection Order				χ^2	df	p
	Yes		No				
	n	%	n	%			
Gender							
Man	2	0.8	27	11.1	3.399	1	0.065
Woman	46	18.9	169	69.3			
Age							
18-44	19	7.7	51	20.6	3.68	2	0.186
45-54	18	7.3	87	35.1			
55 and Over	12	4.8	61	24.6			
Sector							
District Health Boards	48	7.4	79	32.4	4.5	5	0.480
Local Government	10	4.1	56	23.0			
Public Service	11	4.5	28	11.5			
State Sector	5	2.0	21	8.6			
Community Public Services	4	1.6	10	4.1			
Associate Members	1	0.4	1	0.4			
Role (Recoded)							
Clerical	16	7.7	59	28.2	0.364	1	0.546
Professional	24	11.5	110	52.6			
Employment Type (Recoded)							
Full-Time	36	14.8	159	65.2	5.901	2	0.052
Part-Time	8	3.3	31	12.7			
Other	5	2.0	5	2.0			

* significant at < 0.05 level

Table E8

	Involved with Family Court				χ^2	df	p
	Yes		No				
	n	%	n	%			
Gender							
Man	5	2.1	24	9.9	3.54	1	0.060
Woman	15	6.2	199	81.9			
Age							
18-44	5	2.0	65	26.3	9.364	2	0.009*
45-54	15	6.1	90	36.4			
55 and Over	1	0.4	71	28.7			
Sector							
District Health Boards	7	2.9	89	36.6	2.367	5	0.756
Local Government	6	2.5	60	274.7			
Public Service	2	0.8	37	15.2			
State Sector	4	1.6	22	9.1			
Community Public Services	1	0.4	13	5.3			
Associate Members	0	0.0	2	0.8			
Role (Recoded)							
Clerical	4	1.9	70	33.7	1.172	1	0.279
Professional	13	6.3	121	58.2			
Employment Type (Recoded)							
Full-Time	15	6.2	179	73.7	1.996	2	0.374
Part-Time	4	1.6	35	14.4			
Other	2	0.8	8	3.3			

* significant at < 0.05 level