

Managing Multiple Roles: Work-Family Policies and Individuals' Desires for Segmentation

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As workers strive to manage multiple roles such as work and family, research has begun to focus on how people manage the boundary between work and nonwork roles. This paper contributes to emerging work on boundary theory by examining the extent to which individuals desire to integrate or segment their work and nonwork lives. This desire is conceptualized and measured on a continuum ranging from segmentation (i.e., separation) to integration (i.e., blurring) of work and nonwork roles. We examine the fit between individuals' desires for integration/segmentation and their access to policies that enable boundary management, suggesting that more policies may not always be better in terms of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Using survey methodology and a sample of 460 employees, we found that desire for greater segmentation does moderate the relationship between the organizational policies one has access to and individuals' satisfaction and commitment. People who want more segmentation are less satisfied and committed to the organization when they have greater access to integrating policies (e.g., onsite childcare) than when they have less access to such policies. Conversely, people who want greater segmentation are more committed when they have greater access to segmenting policies (e.g., flextime) than when they have less access to such policies. Moreover, the fit between desire for segmentation and organizational policy has an effect on satisfaction and commitment over and above the effects of demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, income, number of children, and the ages of those children.

Key words: work and family; integration; segmentation; person organization fit; job satisfaction; organizational commitment

Managing multiple roles and identities has long been a concern for individuals in organizations (James 1890, Katz and Kahn 1966, Merton 1957). With the erosion of the notion of work and nonwork as separate worlds (Kanter 1977), the management of multiple roles has become increasingly salient for both individuals and organizations. An emerging body of work known as boundary theory provides a theoretical framework for understanding how people manage multiple roles by focusing on the boundary between their work and nonwork roles (Ashforth et al. 2000, Kossek et al. 1999, Nippert-Eng 1995, Perlow 1998). A number of scholars have studied boundaries, thresholds, and the ways that people demarcate space and time within and across various domains (Michaelson and Johnson 1997, Zerubavel 1991). Thus, the phrase "boundary theory" has been used in various disciplines including education (Tyree 1992), counseling psychology (Hartmann 1997), marketing (Lysonski 1985), and sociology (Nippert-Eng 1995). Our work falls specifically under the heading of boundary theory as coined by Ashforth et al. (2000) in their

article on transitions between work and home roles. This research addresses the nature of the boundary between home and work (Nippert-Eng 1995), the ways that people and organizations enact this boundary (Rau and Hyland 2002), and the consequences of particular strategies for boundary management (Perlow 1998). As a theoretical framework, boundary theory contributes to classic theories that seek to understand the outcomes of multiple roles such as role conflict (Merton 1957, Kahn et al. 1964), role strain (Kahn et al. 1964), and role accumulation/enrichment (Sieber 1974, Rothbard 2001). Boundary management strategies have been theorized to fall along a continuum from integration to segmentation of work and nonwork roles (Ashforth et al. 2000, Kossek et al. 1999, Nippert-Eng 1995, Rau and Hyland 2002), where integration refers to the blurring and segmentation to the separation of roles.

Much of the emerging literature on boundary management has been focused on theory building. In a thorough qualitative study of a research and development firm, Nippert-Eng (1995) found that individuals enact

different boundary management strategies on a continuum ranging from integrating to segmenting. Kossek et al. (1999) theorized about the many factors, including gender and family status, which may influence an individual's choice to segment or integrate. In their foundational theoretical paper on role transitions, Ashforth et al. (2000) argue that there are costs and benefits to either segmentation or integration. Our work here draws heavily on boundary theory and the theoretical and qualitative research that has helped establish the segmentation-integration distinction as a meaningful continuum for understanding how individuals may choose to manage their multiple roles.

Boundary theory has primarily explored the boundary management strategies that people enact (Ashforth et al. 2000, Nippert-Eng 1995). However, this research has not directly examined people's desires for more segmentation or integration because an implicit assumption has been that these desires are aligned with individuals' strategies for the segmentation or integration of these roles. Although this assumption seems reasonable for the most part, we argue that it is theoretically important to decouple the constructs of desire for and enactment of these boundary management strategies. Decoupling these constructs is important because they may be misaligned. In particular, the organizational context may make one practice more accessible to employees than another, potentially causing a mismatch between desire and enactment. Indeed, having access to one type of strategy and desiring another may signal to the individual that the organizations' values are misaligned with one's own because organizational policies can communicate an organization's values to current and potential employees (Bretz and Judge 1994, Cable and Judge 1994, Rynes 1987). Moreover, just as individual boundary management strategies may be arrayed along the integration-segmentation continuum, past research on boundary theory has suggested that organizational work-family policies can also be arrayed along this continuum (Ashforth et al. 2000, Rau and Hyland 2002). Drawing on the basic tenets of person-organization fit research, we argue that organizational policies can reflect differing values regarding segmentation and integration that may be incongruent with the desires of individuals. Specifically, we suggest that desire for segmentation is an individual value on which fit perceptions can be based. Therefore, under circumstances where there is a mismatch, more policies may not always be better in terms of satisfaction and commitment and may even lead to negative outcomes for some employees.

Theory

To develop our hypotheses we first elaborate on boundary theory and the integration-segmentation continuum. Further, we discuss how organizational policies may

reflect integration and segmentation. We then draw on person-organization fit theory to explain how fit or misfit between desires for and availability of boundary management strategies can affect employees' satisfaction and commitment, which have been associated with reduced turnover (Tett and Meyer 1993), increased prosocial behaviors (Koys 2001), and increased psychological engagement (Mowday et al. 1982).

The Integration-Segmentation Continuum

Research on boundary theory examines the ways that individuals erect "mental fences" (Zerubavel 1991) around roles such as work and family (Ashforth et al. 2000), and it focuses on the temporal and spatial boundaries between roles and how they are enacted (Nippert-Eng 1995). The ways that boundaries are enacted may differ greatly; some people tend to keep roles such as work and family separate, whereas others allow them to be intermingled (Ashforth et al. 2000, Edwards and Rothbard 2000, Nippert-Eng 1995). Research on boundary theory and work-family refer to these approaches as the segmentation and integration of work and nonwork roles (Edwards and Rothbard 2000, Rau and Hyland 2002). Segmentation refers to the separation, whereas integration refers to the overlap between work and nonwork time, artifacts, and activities (Nippert-Eng 1995). For example, whereas those who integrate more (i.e., integrators) might display pictures of children prominently in their offices, those who segment more (i.e., segmentors) would be less likely to do so. Likewise, whereas integrators might take extra work home, segmentors would be more likely to complete extra work only in the workplace (Nippert-Eng 1995).

Boundary theory researchers are careful to note that integration and segmentation lie on a continuum (Ashforth et al. 2000, Nippert-Eng 1995, Rau and Hyland 2002). Instances of complete segmentation or integration are rare (Ashforth et al. 2000, Nippert-Eng 1995, Rau and Hyland 2002). Ashforth et al. (2000) give as an example of complete segmentation the case of the exotic dancer who may conceal her occupation from family and friends. They likewise give as an example of complete integration, a nun both living and working in a convent. Such cases are clearly the exception, most individuals tend to enact less extreme versions of segmentation or integration in their desires to either heighten or blur the boundaries between roles.

People's desires for integration or segmentation also lie on a continuum. There is variation in these desires because both integration and segmentation are viable ways to actively cope with work and nonwork role demands (Edwards and Rothbard 2000, Lambert 1990, Nippert-Eng 1995). Ashforth et al. (2000) argue that the primary objective of individuals in choosing integration or segmentation is to minimize the difficulty of enacting both home and work roles. Integration and segmentation

have both advantages and disadvantages for managing the boundary between roles that might inform why people desire greater integration or segmentation.

Employees might desire greater integration because blurring role boundaries allows them to accommodate multiple identities and constituencies in the workplace (Meyerson and Scully 1995), thus helping to resolve some of the tension arising from holding multiple roles. Moreover, greater integration provides flexibility and enables employees to cope with the multiple demands in their lives by allowing them to deal with problems in any domain. Also, integration reduces the effort needed to transition back and forth between roles (Ashforth et al. 2000).

Alternatively, employees might desire greater segmentation because it allows them to preserve and develop their nonwork lives more fully. Keeping role identities separate may render individuals less susceptible to stress, depression, and extreme psychological mood swings (Linville 1987). Greater segmentation may buffer employees against the spillover of negative emotions and experiences from one domain to the other (Edwards and Rothbard 2000, Hall and Richter 1988, Linville 1985). Moreover, greater segmentation reduces interruptions, allowing people to focus more exclusively on the salient role (Ashforth et al. 2000, Rothbard 2001, Rothbard and Edwards 2003). Finally, employees may want to segment home and work to cope with differing expectations or norms for behavior in the two domains (Hewlin 2003).

There has been only limited empirical research conducted directly on the desire for integration and segmentation of work and nonwork roles (Edwards and Rothbard 1999, Kossek et al. 1999). Most past research on boundary management suggests that people in certain demographic categories may be more likely to use integration or segmentation strategies (Clay 1995, Kossek et al. 1999, Thoits 1992). These studies have relied on demographic categories as a proxy for the desire for greater segmentation, but have not directly examined employees' desires for greater segmentation, which may vary greatly within demographic groups. Because integration and segmentation are both viable strategies for managing work and family boundaries, demographic categories may not be rich enough to capture people's desires along this dimension. For example, a woman or a parent may not automatically desire one strategy over another solely based on these characteristics. By examining employee desires for greater segmentation, while controlling for key demographic differences, we can obtain greater theoretical clarity into how different policies and practices affect employees.

Just as individuals may have varying desires for either more integration or more segmentation along the integration-segmentation continuum, organizational policies may differentially foster more or less integration or segmentation of work and family domains (Rau

and Hyland 2002). As stated earlier, individuals choose integration or segmentation strategies with the intent of minimizing the difficulties of multiple-role enactment (Ashforth et al. 2000). Similarly, organizational work-family policies are adopted to address the challenges of enacting work and family roles. Some organizational policies may help individuals to strengthen or reinforce boundaries between work and nonwork roles, whereas others may help weaken the boundaries between these roles. In this study, we focus on two organizational policies: onsite childcare and flextime. Past research suggests that onsite childcare falls on the more integrating end and flextime on the more segmenting end of the integration-segmentation continuum (Ashforth et al. 2000, Kossek et al. 1999, Nippert-Eng 1995, Rau and Hyland 2002). Moreover, these policies address two of the most prominent work-family issues in organizations: dependent care and scheduling (Arthur 2003, Goff et al. 1990, Osterman 1995).

Rau and Hyland (2002) characterized work-family policies along the integration-segmentation continuum relative to traditional work arrangements. Similarly, we consider onsite childcare as more integrating than a traditional childcare arrangement such as a nanny or an offsite day care center. On the part of the organization, offering onsite childcare represents a blurring of the organizational boundary through a formal incorporation of the employee's family (Pratt and Rosa 2003). On the part of the individual, onsite childcare is a more integrating policy because it allows employees to interact with their children at the workplace and also possibly combines commuting time with family time (Hall and Richter 1988, Nippert-Eng 1995). Nippert-Eng (1995) explains that when "children periodically appear in a dedicated workplace, it is certainly more integrating than if they do not. . . . For instance, CMP Publications in Manhasset, New York, its real name and location, is a corporation with the first onsite private day care center on Long Island. Here, employees commonly take their young children to the cafeteria for lunch, causing much head-turning among visitors" (Nippert-Eng 1995, pp. 75–76). Ashforth et al. (2000, p. 488) also suggest that onsite childcare is an integrating policy that "might cause working parents to feel that they should visit their children periodically during the workday."

Flextime has been characterized as a more segmenting policy along the integration-segmentation continuum (Kossek et al. 1999, Rau and Hyland 2002) because it is a practice that promotes impermeable temporal and spatial boundaries between work and nonwork roles (Rau and Hyland 2002). Flextime enables employees to establish a nontraditional schedule for when they start and stop work. It requires the employee to distinguish between when they want to work and when they want to spend time in the nonwork domain. A flextime policy, therefore, is an example of temporal structuring in

organizations as defined by Orlikowski and Yates (2002, p. 686), who explain that “. . . by following office schedules or academic calendars, we restrict our activities to certain times or days.” This temporal restructuring is intended to remove overlap in work and nonwork activities (Kossek et al. 1999) in a way that reinforces boundaries and reduces nonwork intrusion on work life and work intrusion on nonwork life. For instance, employees might use flextime to modify their work day, working from 7 AM until 3 PM, allowing them to escape from the workplace to be at home with their young child during the afternoon.

Not only is flextime a more segmenting policy than our previous example of onsite childcare, flextime is clearly closer to the segmentation end of the continuum than most organizational responses to employees' work-family issues (Kirchmeyer 1995, Rau and Hyland 2002) such as onsite work-family counselors (Osterman 1995), telecommuting, and flexplace (Arthur 2003). Moreover, because flextime reinforces boundaries between roles, it may be even more segmenting than traditional work arrangements, which are subject to a natural overlap between work and nonwork responsibilities. For example, in an interview, the Director of Work-Life Initiatives at the organization studied here raised an important reason for why managers might encourage flextime, explaining that in traditional work arrangements that do not allow access to flextime, interruptions and overlap often occur. As an example, she stated that “flextime really helps reduce the 3 o'clock syndrome, [a phenomenon that occurs] typically at 3 o'clock, [when] moms tend to phone home to check in on their school-aged kids.” Separating work and family roles can be valued by the organization because it helps to reduce such distractions. This is consistent with past characterizations of flextime as segmenting (Kossek et al. 1999, Nippert-Eng 1995). Indeed Rau and Hyland (2002, p. 118) state that “flextime keeps the blurring between roles and frequency of interruptions within roles to a minimum and, since spatial boundaries are still protected, preexisting role distinctions are preserved and *perhaps exaggerated by the arrangement*” (emphasis added).

In summary, examining access to integrating and segmenting policies and an individual's desire for segmentation or integration is important for determining individuals' responses to their work organizations. Onsite childcare may weaken or reduce the boundaries between work and nonwork roles, whereas flextime may help individuals to strengthen or reinforce boundaries between work and nonwork roles. We argue that the fit between employees' segmentation desires and the boundary management strategy represented by these policies will be an important determinant of individual and organizational outcomes. We build this argument drawing on theory from the person-organization fit literature.

Person-Organization Fit

Person-organization fit is defined as congruence between the individual and the organization (Cable and Judge 1997, Chatman 1989). Our study examines congruence between the individual and the organization by studying the interaction between employees' desires for segmentation or integration and organizational practices regarding the boundary between work and nonwork. Person-organization fit research suggests that when employees' values are congruent with those of the organization such that the organization fulfills the needs or desires of the individual, greater satisfaction and commitment can result (Chatman 1989, French et al. 1982, Kristof 1996, Schneider 1987). Indeed, the degree of congruence between the employee's and organization's values can be a better predictor of satisfaction and commitment than either the employee's or organization's characteristics alone (Chatman 1991, Kristof 1996, O'Reilly et al. 1991).

Human resource policies and systems can communicate an organization's values to current and potential employees (Bretz and Judge 1994, Cable and Judge 1994, Rynes 1987). For example, Rynes (1987, p. 190) suggests that policies and human resource systems are “capable of attracting (or repelling) the right kinds of people because they communicate so much about an organization's philosophy, values and practices.” Further, Bretz and Judge (1994) examined several human resource policies and found that among others, work-family policies affect potential job applicants' attraction to an organization. Thus, work-family policies can communicate the values of the organization to individuals. Potential employees use this information in assessing their fit with the organization and making choices about their employment (Schneider 1987). However, the matching process does not end with the applicant's selection into the organization. As Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attribution model suggests, there is an ongoing appraisal process. Once a person joins the organization, a misfit may still occur for a number of reasons: organizational policies and values might change, individuals' life circumstances and thus desires might change, or policies and values might not be implemented in uniform ways throughout the organization. Thus, congruence is important both in attraction and retention of employees (Schneider 1987).

It is important to examine the fit between organizational policies and the desires of employees. Past research has found that organizational policies affect individuals' assessments of the organization based on their fit with individual characteristics such as self-esteem, locus of control, and needs for achievement and autonomy (Bretz and Judge 1994, Cable and Judge 1994, Turban and Keon 1993). Bretz and Judge (1994) also found that job applicants experiencing higher levels of work-family conflict were more likely to prefer organizations with work-life policies. Likewise,

Scandura and Lankau (1997) found that flextime policies were related to higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction only for employees with family responsibilities. Drawing on boundary theory, Rau and Hyland (2002) found that applicants who reported high levels of role conflict were more attracted to organizations that offered flextime, whereas applicants who reported lower levels of role conflict were more attracted to organizations offering telecommuting options. Similarly, in our research we do not assume that the same work-life policies would work for all employees with family responsibilities. Instead we argue that measuring employee desires for segmentation should provide a more precise indicator of what employees actually need and want for their particular situation.

Hypotheses

Person-organization fit involves a comparison between commensurate self and organizational values (Kristof 1996). When an organization promotes more segmenting policies, such as flextime, it may signal to employees who want segmentation that the organization shares their values regarding the desire to create a clearer boundary between work and nonwork time and activities (Nippert-Eng 1995). Thus, the values that underlie both employees' desires for and organizational policies regarding segmentation are comparable. This comparison is essentially a cognitive appraisal comparing one's current state with an ideal state, i.e., desires (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). It is this comparison that leads to a perception of congruence or incongruence between work-family policies and individual desires. When the comparison between self and organizational values is consistent (i.e., when these values are the same), congruence results and generates positive affect and feelings of connection to the organization (Chatman 1989, 1991; French et al. 1982), in part because one feels respected and validated by the organization (Kirchmeyer 2000), leading to greater satisfaction and commitment for the employee. Conversely, when the comparison between self and organizational values is inconsistent (i.e., when these values differ) incongruence results and generates negative affect and cognitive and emotional distancing from the organization, leading to lower satisfaction and commitment for the employee (Chatman 1989, 1991; French et al. 1982).

Employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment are key constructs in organizational research and particularly in fit research. Theoretically, satisfaction and commitment are distinct constructs capturing different aspects of employees' job attitudes (Brooke et al. 1988, Tett and Meyer 1993). Whereas job satisfaction captures employees' affective orientation toward specific job and task characteristics, organizational commitment captures a broader assessment of the organization and the extent to which the employee identifies with

and seeks to be involved in the organization (Mowday et al. 1982, Curry et al. 1986). Additionally, organizational commitment is more stable over time than job satisfaction (Porter et al. 1974). Moreover, empirically, these are distinct and important constructs as well. For example, although job satisfaction and organizational commitment are both important predictors of voluntary turnover, absenteeism, prosocial behaviors, and productivity (Koys 2001, Tett and Meyer 1993, Mowday et al. 1982), research has found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment affect these organizational variables differently (Shore and Martin 1989, Tett and Meyer 1993). Specifically, research suggests that commitment is more strongly related to turnover (Shore and Martin 1989, Tett and Meyer 1993), whereas satisfaction is more closely related to absenteeism and performance (Shore and Martin 1989). We examine both attitudes as outcome variables given that they are separate constructs and have distinct individual contributions to organizational outcomes (Williams and Hazer 1986, Brooke et al. 1988).

We hypothesize that desires for segmentation between work and nonwork roles will moderate the relationship between the organization's policies and employee satisfaction and commitment. Recall that we conceptualize desires for segmentation and integration along a continuum where people might want more or less overlap between their work and nonwork lives. In our hypotheses we refer to segmentation to represent this continuum. Specifically, we expect that employees who want greater segmentation between work and nonwork roles, and who have greater access to an organizational policy that promotes integration such as onsite childcare, will be less satisfied and committed because this policy is incongruent with their desires. Greater perceived access to onsite childcare may evoke more discussion of family issues in the workplace (Ashforth et al. 2000). However, this increased awareness of family in the workplace may bring up issues that segmentors may want to keep separate from their work role. Segmentors desire to reinforce boundaries so as to reduce interruptions and intrusions from family on work. Moreover, segmentors may even see work as an escape from home (Hochschild 1997). Because segmentors desire to keep work and family separate, an integrative policy, which reduces boundaries and promotes bringing the family in, would be inconsistent with their desires. This inconsistency may prompt segmentors to feel lower satisfaction and commitment to the organization. In contrast, employees who desire greater integration will experience greater satisfaction and commitment when they perceive greater access to onsite childcare. In this case, the desires of the individuals and the values represented by the policies are congruent. Bringing the family in for these individuals would be consistent with their desires to reduce the boundaries between work and family. Thus, because segmentation

and integration represent two ends of the continuum we hypothesize the following.

HYPOTHESIS 1. *Job satisfaction will be lower for employees who want greater segmentation and have greater access to onsite childcare (an integrating policy) than for those who want less segmentation.*

HYPOTHESIS 2. *Organizational commitment will be lower for employees who want greater segmentation and have greater access to onsite childcare (an integrating policy) than for those who want less segmentation.*

Conversely, employees who want greater segmentation and have greater access to an organizational policy that promotes such segmentation (i.e., flextime) will experience greater satisfaction and commitment to the organization because such a policy is congruent with their desires. When individuals desire segmentation, they want to reinforce the boundary between their work and nonwork roles, keeping them distinct and minimizing the blurring of the two roles (Nippert-Eng 1995). Because flextime is a policy that reinforces the temporal and spatial boundary between work and nonwork roles, it is congruent with desires for greater segmentation. In contrast, the opposite relationship should also be true. Individuals who desire greater integration should exhibit less satisfaction and commitment when they perceive greater access to flextime because integrators want to combine their work and family roles. As such they may see a policy that promotes segmentation as one that devalues an important aspect of their lives and discourages behavior that they might want to exhibit (e.g., talking about, calling, or visiting their children during the day). This incongruence may lead integrators to feel less satisfied and committed to the organization.

HYPOTHESIS 3. *Job satisfaction will be higher for employees who want greater segmentation and have greater access to flextime (a segmenting policy) than for those who want less segmentation.*

HYPOTHESIS 4. *Organizational commitment will be higher for employees who want greater segmentation and have greater access to flextime (a segmenting policy) than for those who want less segmentation.*

Methods

Sample and Procedures

To test these hypotheses, we surveyed a stratified random sample of employees at a large public university in the United States regarding their work-family attitudes and ability to use various organizational policies and programs. Employees were stratified by age, gender, and job type, and the sample was selected by using a random number generator to identify participants proportionally within strata. Participants received surveys

via campus mail and were informed that they would be entered into a drawing for a \$500 cash prize for returning the survey. A reminder post card was sent via campus mail after three weeks. The response rate for this survey was 30.13%. The sample of respondents was large in number and included employees with a variety of work and family situations. After listwise deletion of missing data, the sample size for the current study was 460. Note that these data come from a larger study that examined many aspects of work-family issues such as person-environment fit, caregiving decisions, and work-family climate (cf. Edwards and Rothbard 1999, Kossek et al. 2001).

We compared the study sample with the overall university employee population to assess the degree to which it was representative. The respondents' mean age was 39.28 years, which was comparable to the average age of university employees, 39.4 years. Women respondents comprised 66% of the sample, which was higher than the percentage of women employees at the university (58%). Jobs held by respondents varied widely (see Table 1). The sample included more hospital workers, and more professional and administrative workers, but fewer faculty members than in the population.

To help position our study within the larger body of work-family research, we also compared our sample to the U.S. working population using U.S. census data from 1995, the year these data were collected. Compared to the U.S. working population, our sample was about two years younger, contained a greater proportion of women, Caucasians, and Asians, and had higher levels of income. Regarding job type, our sample had a higher proportion of professional, administrative, technical, and clerical jobs relative to manufacturing, transportation, and manual labor jobs. In terms of family status, our sample contained relatively more married and fewer single persons, although the median number of children in our sample (i.e., two) was equal to the national median. To help address these differences and to examine the effects of demographics studied in prior research, we have controlled for marital status, gender, number and age of children, respondents' age, salary, and the nature of the work in our analyses.

Measures

Dependent Variables. We measured *job satisfaction* with three items drawn from Hackman and Oldham (1980) and Ironson et al. (1989). The items were as follows: In general, I am satisfied with my job; all in all, the job I have is great; my job is very enjoyable. These items used a seven-point Likert-type response format ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The reliability for these three items was acceptable ($\alpha = 0.88$).

We measured *organizational commitment* using Allen and Meyer's (1991) eight-item affective commitment

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Job satisfaction	5.23	1.29	1.00														
2. Organizational commitment	4.38	1.11	0.57	1.00													
3. Desire for segmentation	5.01	1.38	-0.10	-0.17	1.00												
4. Perceived access to onsite childcare	1.55	1.98	-0.01	-0.11	-0.05	1.00											
5. Perceived access to flextime	5.50	3.50	0.13	0.09	-0.08	0.03	1.00										
6. Gender (0 = men, 1 = women)	0.66	0.48	0.03	0.06	0.16	0.04	-0.06	1.00									
7. Age	39.18	8.45	0.12	0.12	-0.15	-0.01	0.04	-0.14	1.00								
8. Marital status (0 = single, 1 = partner)	0.89	0.31	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.08	-0.04	-0.15	-0.17	1.00							
9. Number of children at home	1.73	0.98	-0.01	-0.07	0.01	-0.04	-0.06	0.00	-0.21	0.20	1.00						
10. Number of children age 0–2	0.36	0.57	-0.05	-0.04	0.00	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	-0.43	0.15	0.17	1.00					
11. Number of children age 3–5	0.32	0.51	0.02	-0.01	0.05	0.05	0.00	0.01	-0.30	0.12	0.31	0.07	1.00				
12. Number of children age 6–12	0.65	0.81	0.03	0.04	-0.04	-0.04	0.03	-0.01	-0.07	0.09	0.56	-0.25	-0.06	1.00			
13. Number of children age 13–18	0.29	0.59	-0.04	-0.10	0.06	-0.02	-0.02	0.07	0.20	-0.01	0.33	-0.28	-0.18	-0.05	1.00		
14. Salary	4.19	2.25	0.07	0.09	-0.25	-0.05	0.05	-0.34	0.36	0.03	0.02	-0.08	-0.02	0.02	0.06	1.00	
15. Work autonomy	4.52	1.22	0.38	0.23	-0.05	0.00	0.41	-0.06	0.14	-0.03	-0.02	-0.10	-0.03	-0.01	0.06	0.05	1.00
16. Job type: Faculty	0.13	0.33	0.07	0.02	-0.25	0.00	0.17	-0.30	0.27	-0.01	-0.08	-0.04	0.03	-0.04	-0.10	0.55	0.10
17. Job type: Graduate student employee	0.02	0.15	0.04	0.04	-0.07	-0.02	0.10	-0.10	-0.06	0.01	-0.09	-0.02	-0.01	-0.06	0.00	-0.16	0.12
18. Job type: Research fellow	0.02	0.15	-0.02	-0.08	-0.03	0.05	0.04	-0.14	-0.12	0.05	-0.04	0.12	0.05	-0.08	-0.07	-0.09	0.04
19. Job type: Medical resident	0.00	0.07	0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	-0.09	-0.02	-0.06	0.02	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.03	-0.03	0.02	-0.09
20. Job type: Service maintenance	0.07	0.26	-0.07	-0.12	0.03	0.06	-0.15	-0.28	-0.05	-0.01	0.05	-0.03	-0.04	0.03	0.04	-0.10	-0.06
21. Job type: Clerical	0.17	0.37	-0.04	-0.03	0.09	0.04	0.04	0.30	-0.07	-0.15	0.00	-0.04	0.01	0.00	0.03	-0.32	-0.02
22. Job type: Professional and administrative	0.28	0.45	0.02	0.11	-0.02	-0.02	0.14	-0.01	0.03	0.08	-0.04	-0.04	-0.02	0.02	-0.02	0.05	0.11
23. Job type: Allied health P&A	0.05	0.23	0.02	-0.01	0.03	0.06	-0.04	0.11	-0.06	0.02	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.07	-0.05	-0.05	-0.07
24. Job type: Allied health technical	0.07	0.25	0.00	0.04	0.03	0.04	-0.12	0.14	-0.07	0.04	0.07	0.04	-0.07	0.05	0.07	-0.13	-0.11
25. Job type: Nurse administrator	0.01	0.08	0.01	0.09	-0.04	-0.02	0.10	-0.06	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.06	0.04	-0.04	0.08	-0.01
26. Job type: Nurse	0.12	0.32	0.04	-0.02	0.13	-0.10	-0.22	0.21	0.03	0.00	0.06	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.10	0.11	-0.14
27. Job type: Technical	0.03	0.16	-0.03	-0.02	0.07	-0.03	-0.04	-0.08	-0.11	-0.03	-0.04	0.14	-0.08	-0.03	-0.06	-0.04	-0.01
28. Job type: Other	0.03	0.17	-0.09	-0.08	0.01	-0.05	0.00	-0.03	0.02	0.02	0.00	-0.02	-0.01	-0.06	0.06	-0.09	0.07

Notes. $N = 460$. Correlations greater than 0.09 are significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. Correlations among job type dummy variables are not shown because each person in the sample only has one job type. Thus, any correlations among job-type categories would only reflect the relative proportion of the job types in the sample. Such information is already available by examining the mean value of each job type.

scale. These items also used a seven-point Likert-type response format ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Examples of the items include: I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization, and I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization (reverse scored). Again, the reliability for these eight items was acceptable ($\alpha = 0.81$).

Independent Variables. We measured employee’s *desire for segmentation* between work and family using Edwards and Rothbard’s (1999) four-item scale. This is an established scale that has demonstrated good psychometric properties when used in prior research (Bagozzi and Edwards 1998, Edwards and Rothbard 1999, Pryor 1983). This scale measures desire for segmentation by asking for acceptable rather than ideal amounts to avoid ceiling effects (Locke 1969, Edwards and Rothbard 1999). Thus, in a section measuring desires for various job characteristics, we asked respondents: “How much of the characteristic do you *personally* feel is *acceptable*, or *just enough to give you what you want*? Some people prefer more or less of some job characteristics than others—we want to know how much you personally feel is acceptable.” (The emphasis was included in the survey.) The four job characteristics that comprised

the desire for segmentation scale were: (1) not being required to work while at home, (2) being able to forget work while I am at home, (3) not having to think about work once I leave the workplace, and (4) not being expected to take work home. These items were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from “not at all” to “very much.” The reliability for these four items was acceptable ($\alpha = 0.77$).

We measured *perceived access to onsite childcare* by asking “how much are you able to use onsite childcare for infants and toddlers now” and *perceived access to flextime* by asking respondents “how much are you able to use flexible time during the work week (e.g., flexibility in starting and stopping time, scheduling lunch) now.” These items were rated on a 10-point scale ranging from “not at all” to “a great deal.” To develop this set of survey items, we used qualitative input from focus groups with different types of employees at the university. Consistent with past research on flextime (Baltes et al. 1999), participants indicated that flextime was primarily enacted in this organization around “scheduling starting and ending times.” These focus groups also suggest that flextime was perceived as helping to reinforce the boundary between work and family roles. For example, one employee commented that flextime helped her

because she had “learned to leave work at work and not bring it home.”

Note that these onsite childcare and flextime items did not ask how much respondents *used* the program, but how much they were *able to use* the program, such that this item tapped perceived access to the program not actual usage. Prior research has similarly tried to measure ability to use programs rather than actual use (Eaton 2003, Golden 2001). Moreover, measuring employees' *ability* to use these programs (i.e., perceived access) is a richer operationalization than use or nonuse alone because it captures employees' perceptions of the values supported by their work context, an approach which is consistent with the value congruence we are studying here (Chatman 1989, 1991; O'Reilly et al. 1991). Examining perceived access taps not only into people who actually use the programs now, but also into people who do not necessarily use them now but feel they would be able to use them if needed.¹ Note that perceived access to policies often varies throughout an organization. Even when company sanctioned, some supervisors may inhibit employees' use of flexible time arrangements (Eaton 2003, Kofodimos 1993, Kossek et al. 1999). Likewise, geographical dispersion or the nature of one's job may inhibit perceived access to onsite childcare. Indeed, in the focus groups, several references were made to variance in the implementation of work-life policies in this organization. For example, in response to the question of whether certain policies were implemented uniformly, one participant replied “it is always based on the department's discretion and it depends on the culture,” suggesting that perceived access to the policy may reflect the culture and values of the organizational context.

Analyses

We tested our hypotheses using hierarchical multiple regression analysis to determine how participants' desires for segmentation and access to these human resource policies relate to job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. To test our hypotheses, in the first step of each regression equation, we controlled for gender, age, marital status, the number of children respondents had at home, the age of the children at home, salary, and the nature of the work. *Gender* was coded such that 0 = male and 1 = female, and *marital status* was coded 0 = single and 1 = married or in a partnered relationship. Four variables captured the *age of the children* by measuring the number of children in each of the following four age groups: 0–2, 3–5, 6–12, and 13–18 years.² *Salary* was measured using a scale from 1 to 16 in increments of \$10,000, where 1 = less than \$10,000, 2 = \$10,000–\$19,999, 3 = \$20,000–\$29,999, 4 = \$30,000–\$39,999, 5 = \$40,000–\$49,999, and so on with the last category being 16 = \$150,000 or greater. We controlled for the nature of work in two ways. First, we measured *work autonomy* using a four-item measure

from Edwards and Rothbard (1999). A sample item is having “the opportunity to do my own work in my own way.” We asked respondents to rate how much of the work characteristic they had on a seven-point scale ranging from “not at all” to “very much” ($\alpha = 0.75$). Second, we measured the *type of job* held by the respondents using the job classifications used by the university. There were 13 job categories, which were mutually exclusive; each respondent could only fall into one type. As a result, we created dummy variables to capture the information contained in these categories and entered 12 of them into the equation. The omitted category was technical workers. In the second step of each equation, we included the main effects for perceived access to onsite childcare programs, perceived access to flextime, and the desire for segmentation between work and family. In the third step of each equation, we included the interactions between desiring segmentation and program accessibility.³

Results

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics and correlations for all measures used in the study. In addition to the demographic information reported in the methods section, Table 1 highlights that 89% of the employees were in a married or partnered relationship, the mean number of children living at home was 1.74, and the mean salary was in the \$30,000–\$39,999 range.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that when employees' desires for segmentation were incongruent with the policies offered by the organization, employees would be less satisfied with their jobs, and when these desires and policies were congruent, employees would be more satisfied with their jobs. Specifically, we expected that the interaction between desiring segmentation and having access to onsite childcare (an integrating policy) would be negatively related to job satisfaction. The results support Hypothesis 1. Table 2 reveals a significant negative interaction between desiring segmentation and access to onsite childcare. Following the procedure outlined by Aiken and West (1991), we graphed this interaction. We wanted to fully depict the continuum of integration and segmentation and the degree of access employees had to the policies. Because of this theoretical reasoning and because our data covered the complete range of the scales, we used the endpoints of these scales to depict high and low values. We held all other variables not involved in the interaction constant at their mean level. Figure 1 depicts the negative interaction effect found in Hypothesis 1, showing that access to onsite childcare is more positively related to satisfaction for integrators than for segmentors. For integrators increasing access to onsite childcare seems positively associated with job satisfaction, whereas for segmentors increasing access to onsite childcare seems negatively associated with job satisfaction.

Table 2 Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment Regressed on Desires for Segmentation and Perceived Access to Flextime and Onsite Childcare

	Job satisfaction			Organizational commitment		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Controls						
Gender	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.10 [†]	0.11 [†]	0.10 [†]
Age	0.10 [†]	0.09	0.09	0.13*	0.12*	0.12*
Marital status	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01
Number of children at home	0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.08	-0.10	-0.09
Number of children age 0–2	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.05	0.04	0.04
Number of children age 3–5	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.07	0.07
Number of children age 6–12	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.08	0.08	0.09
Number of children age 13–18	-0.10	-0.09	-0.10	-0.11	-0.09	-0.10
Salary	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.10	0.07	0.08
Job type: Faculty	0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.08	-0.10	-0.10
Job type: Graduate student employee	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.03
Job type: Research fellow	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.06	-0.07	-0.06
Job type: Medical resident	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.01
Job type: Service maintenance	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-0.05	-0.05	-0.06
Job type: Clerical	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03
Job type: Professional and administrative	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.02
Job type: Allied health P&A	0.05	0.05	0.06	-0.01	-0.01	0.00
Job type: Allied health technical	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.07	0.07	0.06
Job type: Nurse administrator	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.08 [†]	0.08	0.08 [†]
Job type: Nurse	0.10	0.10	0.10	-0.02	-0.03	-0.01
Job type: Other	-0.10	-0.10	-0.10	-0.07	-0.09	-0.08
Work autonomy	0.41***	0.41***	0.44***	0.23***	0.24***	0.27***
Main effects						
Desire for segmentation		-0.08 [†]	-0.04		-0.15**	-0.24**
Perceived access to onsite childcare		-0.01	0.51***		-0.12**	0.26 [†]
Perceived access to flextime		-0.02	-0.21		-0.03	-0.46**
Interaction effects						
Desire for segmentation to * access onsite childcare			-0.56***			-0.40**
Desire for segmentation * access to flextime			0.21			0.47**
R^2	0.190***	0.196***	0.223***	0.134***	0.166***	0.192***
ΔR^2		0.006	0.027***		0.032***	0.026***

Notes. $N = 460$. The results of two hierarchical regressions are reported using job satisfaction and organizational commitment as dependent variables. The coefficients reported in each column are standardized beta coefficients. The omitted job-type category is technical employee. The R^2 for each step of the job satisfaction and organizational commitment equations is reported at the bottom of the table along with the ΔR^2 from adding each set of variables to the equation.

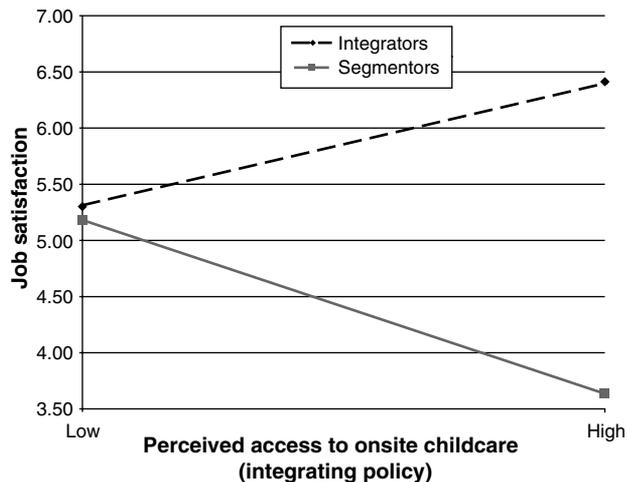
[†] $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that when employees' desires for segmentation were incongruent with the policies offered by the organization, employees would be less committed to the organization, and when these desires and policies were congruent, employees would be more committed to the organization. Specifically, in Hypothesis 2 we expected that the interaction between desiring segmentation and having access to onsite childcare (an integrating policy) would be negatively related to organizational commitment. The results support Hypothesis 2. Table 2 reveals that there is a significant negative interaction between desiring greater segmentation and having greater access to onsite childcare (an integrating policy). Figure 2 depicts the negative interaction between desiring greater segmentation and having more access to onsite childcare and shows that access to

onsite childcare is more negatively related to organizational commitment for segmentors than for integrators. For segmentors, increasing access to onsite childcare seems negatively associated with organizational commitment, however, the effect for integrators, while positive, seems not as pronounced.

Conversely, in Hypotheses 3 and 4 we expected that the interaction between desiring segmentation and having greater access to flextime (a more segmenting policy) would be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Specifically, in Hypothesis 3 we expected that the interaction between desiring segmentation and having access to flextime (a more segmenting policy) would be positively related to job satisfaction. In Hypothesis 4 we expected that the interaction between desiring segmentation and having access to flextime

Figure 1 Relationship of Perceived Access to Onsite Childcare and Job Satisfaction Moderated by Desire for Segmentation



(a more segmenting policy) would be positively related to organizational commitment. The results do not support Hypothesis 3, but support Hypothesis 4. Table 2 reveals that there is not a significant interaction effect between desiring segmentation and access to flextime in the job satisfaction equation, but that there is a positive and significant interaction between desiring segmentation and access to flextime in the organizational commitment equation. Figure 3 depicts this positive interaction effect and shows that access to flextime is more positively related to organizational commitment for segmentors than for integrators. For segmentors, increasing access to flextime is positively associated with organizational commitment, whereas for integrators increasing access to flextime seems to be negatively associated with organizational commitment.

Figure 2 Relationship of Organizational Commitment and Perceived Access to Onsite Childcare Moderated by Desire for Segmentation

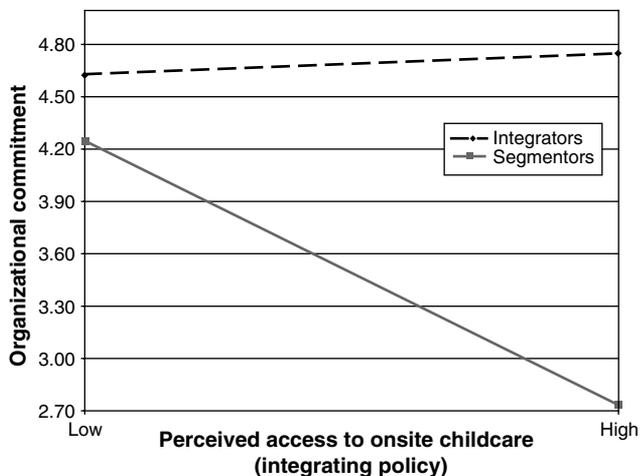
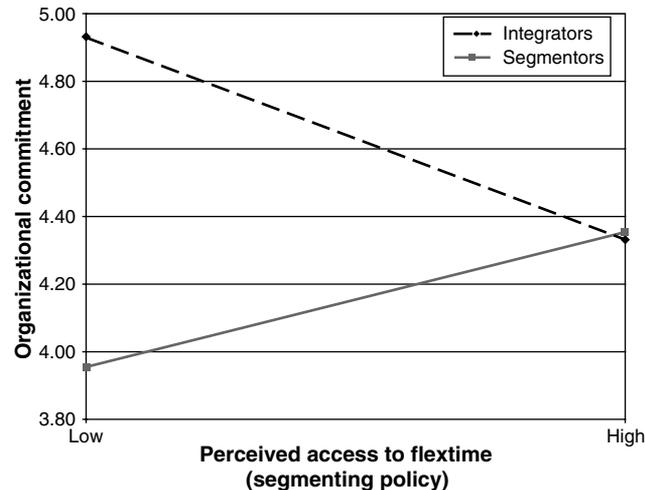


Figure 3 Relationship of Organizational Commitment and Perceived Access to Flextime Moderated by Desire for Segmentation



To further explore these findings, we examined how integrators and segmentors would respond to having high access to *both* congruent and incongruent policies simultaneously. Using the unstandardized regression coefficients obtained from our analyses, we estimated the satisfaction and commitment levels for employees who desired greater segmentation and those who desired greater integration when they had high access to *both* integrating and segmenting policies. To calculate each predicted value (\hat{y}), we used the following assumptions that were also used in graphing the interactions previously. We used the endpoints of the segmentation and policy scales to depict high and low values. We held all other variables not involved in the interaction constant at their mean level. We then compared the predicted values in the following ways. We took the difference in the predicted values between segmentors who had high access to only a congruent policy (i.e., flextime) and those segmentors who had high access to both a congruent (i.e., flextime) and an incongruent policy (i.e., onsite childcare). If the difference is negative, it indicates the degree to which high access to an incongruent policy would reduce the level of satisfaction and commitment of the employee. We made the same comparison for integrators, taking the difference in the predicted values between integrators who had high access to only a congruent policy (i.e., onsite childcare) and those who had high access to both a congruent (i.e., onsite childcare) and an incongruent policy (i.e., flextime).

The findings indicate that for segmentors high perceived access to an incongruent policy (i.e., onsite childcare) decreases satisfaction and commitment, even when they have high access to a congruent policy (i.e., flextime). The predicted values revealed that when segmentors had high access to *both* segmenting and integrating policies, they were less satisfied (\hat{y} difference = -1.45)

and committed (\hat{y} difference = -1.42) than when they had high access to only flextime. However, the pattern was different for integrators, simultaneous high access to both congruent (i.e., onsite childcare) and incongruent (i.e., flextime) policies did not seem to substantially decrease integrators' satisfaction and commitment. The predicted values revealed that when integrators had high access to *both* onsite childcare and flextime, they did not substantially differ in satisfaction (\hat{y} difference = -0.17) and commitment (\hat{y} difference = -0.30) from when they had high access to only onsite childcare.

In addition, because some may question whether access to flextime has the same meaning to the faculty members as it might to those in other job types, we did a robustness check to determine if the flextime results changed with and without faculty included in the analyses. The results did not change. As reported in the full analyses above, there was not a significant interaction between access to flextime and desire for segmentation on job satisfaction, but there was a significant interaction between access to flextime and desire for segmentation on organizational commitment ($b = 0.44$, $t = 2.26$, $p < 0.05$).

Discussion

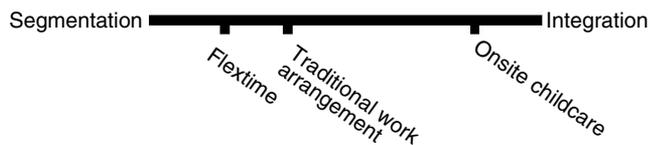
Managing multiple roles poses a challenge for both individuals and organizations. Using boundary theory, we have highlighted how some organizational policies can foster the availability of integration and segmentation strategies for managing multiple roles (Ashforth et al. 2000, Nippert-Eng 1995, Rau and Hyland 2002). We have further contributed to boundary theory by examining individuals' desires for integration and segmentation of these roles. Decoupling the enactment of boundary management strategies from desires for these approaches provides greater theoretical clarity because it enables us to examine the fit between people's desires and the organizational context. In many cases, individuals may enact particular strategies of boundary management because of organizational constraints (e.g., which policies are actually available), perceived societal expectations, or other familial or personal expectations (Nippert-Eng 1995). Yet how individuals enact the boundaries between their work and nonwork roles does not necessarily match their desires for how to manage this boundary. If one were only to examine what people actually do, the potential misfit between the values of the organization and those of its employees would be undetectable. In this study, we used several theoretical lenses to examine this issue, combining research on boundary theory with work on person-organization fit to examine how policies offered by organizations (i.e., onsite childcare and flextime) interact with a person's desires regarding segmentation to influence their satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

Consistent with fit research, we found that as employees perceived they had more access to onsite childcare (an integrating policy), those who desired less segmentation were *more* satisfied and somewhat more committed because of the congruence they experienced between their values and those of the organization (Chatman 1991). However, as employees perceived they had more access to this integrating policy, those who desired greater segmentation were *less* satisfied and committed to the organization because of the incongruence they experienced. Also consistent with the fit argument, as employees perceived they had more access to flextime (a segmenting policy), those who desired greater segmentation were *more* committed because of the congruence experienced (Chatman 1991). However, as employees perceived they had more access to this segmenting policy, those who desired less segmentation were *less* committed because of the incongruence they experienced. In sum, these findings support the basic notion that congruence and incongruence are powerful mechanisms by which people assess their relationship with the organization. Our study identifies desires for segmentation as an important factor for determining whether a person experiences congruence or incongruence with the organization's values and practices.

Integrators vs. Segmentors

As organizations move toward incorporating more work-life policies (Kossek et al. 1999, Perlow 1998), these findings suggest that a given policy may not be beneficial to all employees and may have drawbacks for some. To examine how employees would react to having high access to both integrating and segmenting policies simultaneously, we presented a supplemental analysis in the results section that highlights the different pattern of reactions for those who desire more integration compared to those who desire more segmentation. The findings indicate that for segmentors the presence of an incongruent policy (i.e., onsite childcare) decreased satisfaction and commitment, even when they had high access to a congruent policy (i.e., flextime). However, for integrators, simultaneous high access to both congruent (i.e., onsite childcare) and incongruent (i.e., flextime) policies did not substantively decrease satisfaction and commitment.

Taken as a whole, incongruence of boundary management strategy seems to have less of an effect on integrators compared to segmentors. This difference may arise from the relative degree of segmentation and integration represented by the policies examined here. Whereas flextime may be more segmenting than a traditional work arrangement, the difference between flextime and a traditional work arrangement may be less pronounced along the integration-segmentation continuum than the difference between onsite childcare and a traditional work arrangement. Visually this might be manifested

Figure 4 Work-Family Policies Along the Integration-Segmentation Continuum

as shown in Figure 4. Moreover, because integration is about bringing nonwork life into the workplace and segmentation is about keeping it out, integrative strategies may be more visible and thus salient to others in the workplace. Specifically, greater perceived access to onsite childcare may evoke more visible discussion of family issues in the workplace. In contrast, policies like flextime that encourage more segmentation may be less noticed by integrators. Practically, this suggests that providing a more segmenting policy such as flextime may not hurt integrators and may marginally help segmentors.

In fact, overall, those who desired more integration were more satisfied and committed to the organization than those who desired more segmentation. Although we did not explicitly predict this finding, it is consistent with research that has found that integration strategies are associated with lower role conflict (Rau and Hyland 2002). Related research has found that role identity moderates the relationship between boundary management strategies and role conflict, finding that individuals who have high identification with one role experience less role conflict when integrating than when segmenting (Dumas 2003). Moreover in Dumas's (2003) study, role conflict was negatively related to satisfaction.

Demographic Differences: Gender and Young Children

Our study further contributes to research on boundary management of work and nonwork roles (Ashforth et al. 2000, Clay 1995, Kossek et al. 1999, Thoits 1992) by going beyond individual demographic characteristics because these characteristics alone do not determine desires for segmentation or integration. Past research has relied on demographic categories, primarily gender and having a more complex family situation (i.e., having young children), as proxies for explaining segmentation or integration desires. Although we controlled for demographic characteristics in the primary analyses reported in the results section, to further explore the relationship between key demographic characteristics and the effects of policies on employee responses, we conducted additional analyses using gender and the number of young children an employee had at home as moderators of the relationship between policies and satisfaction and commitment. In contrast to the desire for segmentation moderator analyses, these findings revealed that there were no significant effects of gender or having young children as moderators. The t values for the gender interactions

with onsite childcare and flextime policies were less than or equal to 1.60, and t values for the young child interactions with onsite childcare and flextime policies were all less than or equal to 1.40.

One explanation for why desire for segmentation is a better construct for determining fit with these organizational policies is that although demographic characteristics may contribute to determining segmentation desires (Clay 1995, Kossek et al. 1999, Thoits 1992), these desires may vary greatly within demographic categories due to a combination of factors, such as individual differences in socialization, socioeconomic background, and past organizational experiences. Our results show that demographic categories related to caregiving responsibilities are not rich enough to capture people's desires along this dimension. Thus, examining desires for segmentation directly, instead of relying on demographic proxies alone, provides greater theoretical clarity, refining our understanding of how different employees respond to organizational policies over and above explanations provided by demographic differences.

Limitations

Although our research has revealed insights about the role of desire for segmentation of work and nonwork roles, this study has limitations. First, the study relied on self-report measures. Such measures are consistent with our research questions because we believe that it is the interaction between desire for segmentation and perceptions of the accessibility of work-family programs that influence satisfaction and commitment. These are inherently subjective constructs, and the focal person is probably the most accurate source of information regarding his or her desires, perceptions, and attitudes. Nonetheless, these measures may have introduced common method variance, thereby inflating relationships among study variables. To evaluate the effect of common method variance, we performed Harmon's one-factor test, following Podsakoff and Organ (1986), and the results suggest that the constructs in our model were not related solely due to common method variance. More importantly, research suggests that common method variance does not bias in favor of interactions. Specifically, in a Monte Carlo study, Evans (1985) concluded that method variance cannot generate artifactual interactions, and may only serve to attenuate true interactions.

Second, the study has limitations that relate to the sample. Because of the voluntary nature of survey response, this study may have overrepresented people for whom family issues are a primary concern. Moreover, our sample was drawn from a single organization as opposed to the general working population. Thus, our results may not generalize to all organizations. We should note that this organization had multiple sites and

much variance in the measures studied. Moreover, our findings add to the body of research on work and family, and it is the body of research, not any one study, that will help us provide answers to the research questions examined here. Despite these limitations, this study has several implications for organizations.

Organizational Implications

Modern organizations are moving away from the traditional segmenting institutions they once were, which left the individual with few choices for how to manage their multiple roles and the work-home boundary (Kanter 1977, Nippert-Eng 1995). Integrating policies have become increasingly popular in many organizations as mechanisms for tapping into the full potential of the employee (Perlow 1998, Pratt and Rosa 2003). To this end, companies have adopted numerous policies, practices, and amenities such as onsite childcare and gym facilities among others (Hall and Richter 1988, Kirchmeyer 2000, Osterman 1995). These policies are intended to attract people to the organization and help current employees manage their multiple roles. However, these policies and practices are also consistent with the goal of many organizations to maximize the productivity of their employees. This goal can be achieved through a variety of means including encouraging people to stay at the workplace longer through the provision of onsite childcare, gym facilities, and concierge services (Rothbard and Edwards 2003). Although these policies and practices may increase some individuals' satisfaction and commitment by helping them actively manage the boundary between their work and nonwork roles, our study suggests that greater access to integrating policies may have drawbacks for some employees. Indeed, our findings indicate that having access to policies such as flextime and onsite childcare, which are in part designed to help manage the boundary between work and nonwork roles, does not guarantee an increase in satisfaction and commitment as many organizations hope.

Our findings suggest that organizations face a tough task. They need to pay attention not only to the policies they provide, but also more importantly to the values they communicate to employees through the types of policies offered. This study supports the notion that work-family policies offered by the organization send signals about the organization's values to its employees (Bretz and Judge 1994, Chatman 1989, Turban and Keon 1993). It is not clear that when organizations implement a policy that they are explicitly trying to send a message about their values, but such a message may be inadvertently communicated. This study suggests that organizations should pay attention to the implementation of policies (Eaton 2003) as such implementation may have important ramifications for the way organizational values get communicated to employees. Moreover, future research should directly measure how employees

interpret organizational work-family policies in terms of segmentation and integration values.

Practically, as organizations attempt to improve employees' experiences through organizational policies, these organizations may need to recognize the diversity of their employees' desires for integration or segmentation. If organizations better match their structures, policies, and practices with employees' desires, employee satisfaction and commitment may increase. Moreover, by making desires for segmentation acceptable, organizations may also retain people who might otherwise leave because of dissatisfaction or lack of commitment (Schneider 1987). To manage the diversity of employee desires, organizations must foster a culture of respect where diversity of work-family desires are recognized and organizational representatives strive to help each employee meet their *individual* needs (Kirchmeyer 1995).

Future research should further explore the implications these findings have for managing a diverse workforce. In this study we have examined the implications of individuals' desires for segmentation in the context of work and family roles. These ideas may also be generalized to other types of multiple role identities that people hold. It is likely that demographically distinct organizational members who wish to maintain their distinct identities and group affiliations may desire segmentation because it allows them to preserve their independent identities and nonwork activities. Research on relational demography has found diminished social integration and higher turnover of employees who have different demographic characteristics from the majority group (e.g., Riordan and Shore 1997, Tsui et al. 1992). Whereas this is usually attributed to the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne 1971) and the role of social categorization processes (Hogg and Abrams 1988, Tajfel 1982, Turner 1978), this body of research has not investigated the implications of integrating or segmenting behaviors among minority group members. The lack of social integration for demographically different individuals may be due to the desire to protect one's other important role identities. Moreover, when these identities are infringed upon, greater dissatisfaction, lower productivity, and eventual departure from the organization may result. Future research should explore people's desires for integration or segmentation of multiple roles as an explanation for the relationship between diversity and organizational outcomes.

Conclusion

As organizations attempt to attract and maintain a committed and productive workforce, they have introduced many policies and practices designed to help people balance their work and nonwork lives. Our study suggests that organizations should not just adopt these policies without developing a better understanding of their implications for managing the boundary between work and

nonwork. We found that employees' desires for segmentation between their work and nonwork lives moderate the relationship between these types of policies and employees' satisfaction and commitment. As a result of employees' desires for segmentation, costly programs adopted by organizations may not be as beneficial as expected in terms of employee satisfaction and commitment to the organization. The implications of these policies for how people manage the boundary between their work and nonwork lives are critical to consider, given the complexities of managing multiple roles and identities.

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Endnotes

¹For example, in our sample, there was a group of people who did not have children and who clearly were not using onsite childcare. Yet there was no difference in reports of perceiving some level of access to onsite childcare between those who had children and those who did not ($\chi^2(1) = 1.06, p = 0.302$).

²These age category variables capture different information from the number of children at home variable and are therefore not theoretically redundant, nor are they statistically redundant as is shown in Table 1.

³Many methodologists/statisticians advocate inserting squared terms (e.g., X_1^2, X_2^2) to control for nonmultiplicative but nonlinear effects (as well as possible ceiling effects) when multiplicative interactions are included in a regression (e.g., $X_1 X_2$). Inclusion of these terms serves to eliminate alternative explanations about the nature of the curvilinear relationship between the variables of interest. To eliminate these alternative explanations, we also ran a set of analyses where we included the squared terms for the main effects of program accessibility and desire for segmentation. None of these squared terms were significant, nor did they change the interaction effects presented in the main analyses here. These results are available from the first author on request.

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