Work status and organizational citizenship behavior: a field study of restaurant employees

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Summary   This survey-based field study of 257 service employees developed and tested a model of differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of full-time and part-time employees based on social exchange theory. Questionnaire data from matched pairs of employees and their supervisors demonstrated that part-time employees exhibited less helping organizational citizenship behavior than full-time employees, but there was no difference in their voice behavior. We also predicted that both preferred work status (an individual factor) and organizational culture (a contextual factor) would moderate the relationships between work status and citizenship. For helping, results demonstrated that preferred status mattered more to part-time workers than to full-time. For voice, preferred work status was equally important to part-time and full-time workers, such that voice was high only when actual status matched preferred status. Contrary to our expectations, work status made more of a difference in both helping and voice in less bureaucratic organizations. We discuss the implications of work status for social exchange relationships, differences in the social exchange costs and benefits of helping compared to voice, and ramifications of our findings for future research. Copyright © 2001 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Introduction

Shortages of traditional, full-time workers have caused many organizations to increase their dependence on part-time employees (Clinton, 1997; Ilg and Clinton, 1998; Rousseau, 1997). In addition, many organizations view changing the mix of their workforce (i.e., replacing full-time workers with part-timers) as a positive response to competitive pressures for increased flexibility and reduced costs (Kalleberg and Schmidt, 1997). These trends in workforce recomposition, however, may have unintended, negative consequences on employee behaviors (especially discretionary behaviors) which may reduce any benefits accrued to the organization due to reduced labor costs.

Despite the fact that 16–18 per cent of the US workforce is part-time (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1998), we know little about the behavior of part-time and full-time employees. Our study addresses

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this important issue by developing and testing a model that predicts differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of part-time and full-time employees. Based on Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), we suggest that employees who work fewer hours (i.e., part-time) will engage in less organizational citizenship behavior (discretionary behavior that is not a required part of the job). In addition, we propose that two factors will influence (moderate) this relation: an individual's preferred work status (few versus many work hours) and type of organizational culture (low versus highly bureaucratic).

Work Status

Part-time workers – those who generally work under 35 hours per week (Deutermann and Brown, 1978; Nardone, 1986) – are the largest group of U.S. employees working non-traditional schedules (Nollen and Axel, 1995). Since World War II, the number of part-time employees in the U.S. has grown to about one-fifth of the total workforce, or almost 20 million individuals (Ronen, 1984), and recent restructuring has further increased the emphasis that many organizations place on part-time employees. Most part-time positions in the U.S. are found in the service sector, especially among clerical, sales, and food service industries (Nollen and Axel, 1995). The majority of part-time workers are young (e.g., students, teens), older (e.g., retirees), and/or women (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1996).

To date, most research that has compared part-time and full-time employees has focused on differences in job-related attitudes such as satisfaction and commitment and has not examined job behaviors, despite calls for research on potential differences in behavior (e.g., Feldman, 1990; Hom, 1979; Miller and Terborg, 1979; Rotchford and Roberts, 1982). An important exception to this general focus on attitudes is the research of Peters *et al.*, (1981), who demonstrated differences in the turnover of full-time and part-time workers. Results of their study suggest that full-time employees are more committed and loyal to the organization than part-time workers. Although these differences correspond to the beliefs of many managers that part-time workers have lower commitment, higher turnover, lower performance, and that they are less willing to contribute to the organization than their full-time counterparts (Gannon, 1975; Ronen, 1984; Rotchford and Roberts, 1982), a follow-up study by Jackofsky and Peters (1987) found no differences in performance and turnover of workers based on work status. The inconsistency in these findings suggests the importance of additional research in this area.

Conflicting results (e.g., Feldman, 1990; Lee and Johnson, 1991; Miller and Terborg, 1979) also indicate the importance of theoretically based research. As with most research streams, the early studies on part-time workers were primarily descriptive, with researchers relying on a variety of theoretical perspectives to interpret their findings *post hoc*. These theories include frame-of-reference and social comparison theory (Eberhardt and Shani, 1984; Feldman, 1990; Festinger, 1954; Miller and Terborg, 1979), equity theory (Adams, 1965; Feldman and Doerpinghaus, 1992), human capital theory (Becker, 1964; Lee and Johnson, 1991), partial inclusion (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Miller and Terborg, 1979), and the discrepancy model of job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973; Morrow *et al.*, 1994). In the current study, we use Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) to develop our hypotheses, which suggest that organizational citizenship will differ based on work status.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In 1977, Organ broadened research on the satisfaction–performance link by suggesting a new type of performance construct: organizational citizenship behavior. Organ suggested that, although

satisfaction may not have a strong effect on standard conceptualizations of performance, it might be related to non-specified behaviors which he termed organizational citizenship behavior. Organ defined organizational citizenship behavior as ''. . . individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization'' (1988: 4). To date, researchers have proposed a variety of specific dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue (Organ, 1988), obedience, loyalty, advocacy participation, social participation, functional participation (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994), helping and voice (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1995; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), as well as organization-focused and interpersonal-focused organizational citizenship behavior (Williams and Anderson, 1991). According to Van Dyne and colleagues (1994), each of the above conceptualizations is useful and researchers should focus on specific types of citizenship behaviors based on relevance to a particular research question.

In our study of restaurant workers, we chose to focus on two specific behaviors (helping and voice) because they form an interesting, theoretically based contrast that we anticipated would be salient in service settings. Van Dyne and colleagues (1995) developed a theoretical framework, typology, and nomological network for different types of discretionary behavior. Two of these categories are affiliative-promotive behavior (helping) and challenging-promotive behavior (voice). Promotive behavior is proactive; it causes things to happen. Promotive behavior that is affiliative is interpersonal and cooperative. An example is helping others with their work or with work-related activities, even when it is not required explicitly by the job. We suggest that helping is particularly important in service jobs where fluctuating demand highlights the benefits of cooperation. Specifically, employees have direct customer contact and often must balance competing demands for their time and attention. When workflow is uneven, cooperative behavior can enhance customer interaction and quality service delivery. Helping co-workers thus has the potential to enhance customer satisfaction in ways that cannot be specified in advance while simultaneously having important implications for overall service firm success.

In contrast, challenging-promotive behavior emphasizes ideas that are change-oriented. An example is speaking up and making recommendations for change and innovation. We suggest that expressing constructive suggestions (voice) is especially important in situations where consumers value high quality and novelty. In service settings, employees often are closest to the service delivery process and may be in the best position to generate ideas that can have direct consequences for quality and customer satisfaction. For example, customers often prefer and seek out novel or unusual approaches to service delivery. Thus, employee suggestions can help attract new and repeat customers.

We note that although helping and voice each have the potential to contribute positively to organizational success, these two forms of discretionary behavior differ fundamentally in that helping is affiliative and voice is challenging. Helping promotes cooperation and positive interpersonal relationships. In contrast, voice focuses on change to the *status quo* (LePine and Van Dyne, 1998). In the following sections, we build on the similarities and differences in helping and voice in our hypothesis development regarding the role of work status and organizational citizenship behavior.

Work Status and Organizational Citizenship

According to Blau (1964), social exchange is different from economic exchange. Economic exchange is based on *quid pro quo* transactions, such as when employees receive pay for contributing their performance to the organization. In economic exchange relationships, job requirements and expectations are clear and specified in advance, allowing individuals to assess personal costs and benefits

associated with the exchange and calibrate their contributions accordingly. In social exchange relationships, however, the details of the exchange are not specified in advance and monitoring inducements and contributions is less relevant. Instead, relational trust leads individuals in social exchange relationships (Rousseau *et al.*, 1998) to believe that if they exercise initiative and contribute above minimum expectations, they will receive some form of reciprocity from the organization at an unspecified future date (Gouldner, 1960).

Extending social exchange theory to include differences in part-time versus full work status suggests that part-time employees are more likely to develop economic rather than social exchange relationships with their employers. For example, Rousseau (1989) differentiated transactional and relational psychological contracts, linking transactional contracts to economic exchange and relational contracts to social exchange. McLean Parks *et al.*, (1998) elaborated on this idea and developed a theoretical model proposing that full-time, regular employees are more likely to rely on social exchange and reciprocity in their work relationships and that the characteristics of employee psychological contracts will influence their behavior at work. Consistent with this logic, Millward and Hopkins (1998) demonstrated that when employees view their relationship as based primarily on *economic* exchange, they will meet the terms of the agreement and will perform at the minimum required level. In contrast, when employment is based on *social* exchange, employees expand their view of the relationship beyond well-specified, *quid pro quo* parameters and include intangible and tangible resources based on general, unspecified notions of reciprocity (Foa and Foa, 1974; Tsui *et al.*, 1997). Accordingly, they are more likely to exert extra effort, use their judgment to facilitate quality problem solving, and perform non-required behaviors, because they trust that their employer will notice the contributions and reciprocate at some time in the future.

Part-time employees generally receive fewer inducements (March and Simon, 1958) such as benefits, training, and advancement from the organization than full-time workers (Hipple, 1998). Human capital theory (Becker, 1964) suggests that employers invest in employees (especially in training and other less tangible benefits) when they can expect a return on their investment. When employees work more hours, there is more opportunity for employer investments to accrue benefits to the organization. In contrast, when employees work fewer hours, the potential benefits to the organization are reduced. Thus, employers are less likely to provide extra inducements to part-time workers. Given fewer inducements, part-time employees have less reason to perform tasks that require effort beyond that specified in their job descriptions (e.g., discretionary behaviors like helping and voice).

Another reason for differences between part-time and full-time employee behavior is that organizations tend to expect less from their part-time employees (Tsui *et al.*, 1995) and part-time workers tend to contribute less to the organization. From the employee's perspective, many part-time workers intentionally choose and prefer less involvement in their exchange relationship with the organization due to other interests or demands on their time, such as children, another job, or educational goals that make it difficult for them to work full-time (Ferber and Waldfogel, 1998). When work is one of several important, competing activities (Rotchford and Roberts, 1982), they may limit their involvement and contributions to those specified explicitly by their employer. They may view their part-time work as temporary and may not intend to work for the organization long-term (Feldman and Doerpinghaus, 1992). This is supported by the research of Peters *et al.* (1981) who demonstrated that part-time employees plan to stay with a particular work organization for a shorter period of time than full-time workers.

In summary, these arguments suggest when assessing inducements and contributions (March and Simon, 1958), part-time workers generally focus on specific, tangible aspects of the employment relationship such as those characterized by economic exchange. In contrast, the exchange relationship for those who work more hours will include both tangible and intangible elements, leading to more of a social exchange relationship. We propose that these differences in the exchange relationships

experienced by part-time versus full-time employees based on their work status will influence their behavior at work. Specifically, we expect part-time employees to exhibit less discretionary behavior than full-time workers due to the more economic nature of their employment relationship, their emphasis on tangible (rather than both tangible and intangible) inducements that they receive from the organization, and the other demands and priorities they have in their life. Thus we hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1a: Full-time employees will exhibit more helping behavior than part-time workers.

Hypothesis 1b: Full-time employees will exhibit more voice behavior than part-time workers.

Preferred Work Status

Individuals work in part-time jobs for a variety of reasons. In some instances, people choose voluntarily to work part-time because of other commitments and responsibilities. These include caring for small children or elders, supplementing another full-time job with a part-time job (i.e., moonlighting), earning spending money while attending school, or staying active when partially retired (Nollen and Martin, 1978). Other individuals work part-time because they are unable to obtain full-time positions (Smith, 1997). Deutermann and Brown (1978) indicated that up to 20 per cent of all part-timers take part-time jobs because desirable full-time positions are unavailable or because they are unqualified to fill available full-time jobs. These individuals are commonly referred to as involuntary part-time workers (Ferber and Waldfogel, 1998; Nollen and Axel, 1995).

Past research of McGinnis and Morrow (1990) has shown that work status preference (i.e., part-time versus full-time) can influence the relations between work status and job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction). Similarly, McLean Parks and colleagues (1998) theorized that the volitional nature of work relationships has an important moderating influence on work behavior. More specifically, we suggest that the motivations and preferences of part-time workers will influence their discretionary workplace behaviors such as organizational citizenship. As a starting point, we propose that preferred work status will be more salient to part-time workers and less salient to full-time workers. For full-time employees, we propose that organizational citizenship will not vary as a function of preferred work status. In contrast, as explicated below, we suggest that work status preferences will be important to part-time workers and will differentially effect our two forms of organizational citizenship: helping and voice.

Helping behavior is affiliative, non-controversial, and cooperative. When part-time work status is involuntary (i.e., workers would prefer to work full-time), the personal benefits of developing an enhanced reputation for contributing to the organization are salient to part-time workers. Thus, those in positions of involuntary part-time work status will be motivated to make cooperative contributions to the organization beyond those explicitly specified by economic exchange. For example, Pearce (1993) demonstrated that non-core workers in high cyclical jobs reported higher levels of extra-role behavior than regular employees. We suggest that by contributing discretionary behavior, non-core workers such as involuntary part-time employees signal their willingness to enter into social rather than economic exchange with the organization and demonstrate their commitment to the organization. Their emphasis is on the potentially positive reputational effects of helping. In contrast, when part-time employees prefer part-time work status, other responsibilities demand their energy and attention, and they want intentionally to limit their work hours and work involvement. Consequently, they perform their jobs, but have little incentive to increase their contributions beyond the terms of an explicit economic exchange relationship. Unlike involuntary part-time workers who might hope for, anticipate, and value shifting away from an economic toward a social exchange relationship, voluntary part-time
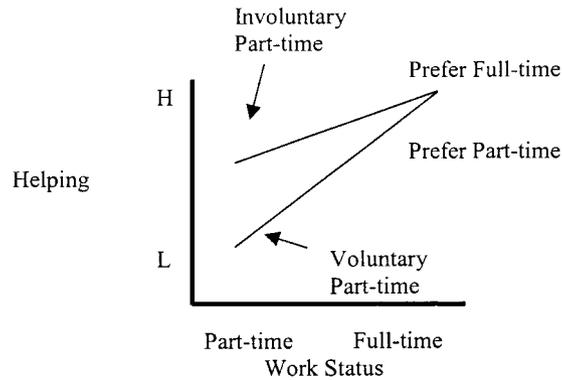
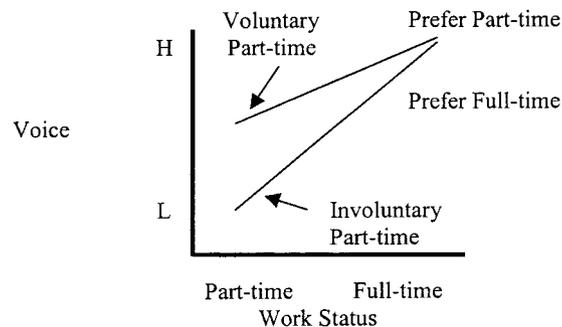Figure 1a. Hypothesized interaction of work status and preferred work status for helping

Figure 1b. Hypothesized interaction of work status and preferred work status for voice

workers are less likely to anticipate personal benefits as a potential outcome of exceptionally high levels of helping. Instead, their voluntary part-time status makes the personal *costs* of helping more salient than the potential personal benefits of helping. Thus, we propose an interaction (as illustrated in Figure 1a) where there is no effect of preferred work status for full-time and where part-time employees engage in *more* helping when their part-time work status is involuntary compared to those who prefer part-time.

> *Hypothesis 2a*: Preferred work status will moderate the relationship between work status and help-ing such that the relation will be stronger for those who prefer to work part-time.

We also hypothesize that preferred work status will moderate the link between work status and voice behavior. Based on the challenging and change-oriented nature of voice, however, we propose that the role of preferred work status will differ from that for helping (see Figure 1b). Voice behavior includes an element of risk because suggestions for change can imply problems with past practices. Some observers (such as co-workers or supervisors) may react negatively to the idea that change is needed and may view voice as a form of complaint or criticism. As a consequence of the challenging aspect of voice, we propose that the moderating role of preferred work status will be opposite for voice com-pared to helping. For helping we proposed that the potential personal *benefits* of helping (possible access to full-time work) would be salient to involuntary part-time employees. In contrast, for voice we now propose that the potential personal *costs* of voice will be salient to involuntary part-time employees. When employees would prefer to work more hours, they will avoid challenging or

controversial behaviors because the personal costs of suggesting change are too high. By refraining from change-oriented communications, involuntary part-time workers can emphasize their cooperation and commitment to the organization – perhaps with the hope that their work status will be changed to suit their preferences. Their emphasis is on the potentially negative reputational effects of voice. In contrast, when part-time workers voluntarily choose their work status and prefer part-time work, the costs of voice are *less* personally salient than the personal benefits. For example, they may engage in voice as a form of self-expression or a self-enhancing opportunity to demonstrate their competence. Thus, we propose an interaction (see Figure 1b) where there is no effect of preferred work status for full-time and where part-time employees engage in *less* voice when their part-time work status is involuntary compared to those who prefer part-time work. Accordingly,

> *Hypothesis 2b*: Preferred work status will moderate the relationship between work status and voice such that the relation will be stronger for those who prefer to work full-time.

Organizational Culture

To date, most research on organizational citizenship has focused primarily on individual level predictors and has focused less on contextual factors. In this section of the paper, we acknowledge the potentially important role of context (Cappelli and Sherer, 1991; Mowday and Sutton, 1993) and suggest that contextual factors such as organizational culture can change the nature of the link between work status and organizational citizenship. The work context includes a wide range of factors such as co-workers, group norms, style of management, organizational culture, and the external labor market. In our service organization setting, we chose to focus on organizational culture (the extent to which the organizational culture is bureaucratic) as a key contextual characteristic.

We propose that when an organization is local and family-owned, the management style and culture of the organization will be more personal and less bureaucratic than when an organization is part of a larger chain (Schein, 1992). In family-owned organizations, classifications such as work status should have less of an effect on the inducements offered and contributions expected of employees. Instead, personal characteristics and personal relationships will play a stronger role in influencing the exchange between employees and the organization. For example, in family-owned service establishments, we would expect less standardization, fewer formal policies and procedures, and more idiosyncratic decision making than in organizations that are part of more standardized and centralized chains (Ranson *et al.*, 1980). Given the less bureaucratic nature of family-owned organizations, we would expect work status to be less important in determining the type of exchange relationship experienced by employees. Thus, in family-owned firms we would not expect differences in organizational citizenship behavior based on work status because personal relationships will be stronger determinants of helping and voice.

In contrast, we predict that work status will be an important factor in predicting the organizational citizenship behavior of employees in organizations that are part of larger chains. When ownership is not local and when policies are determined by the bureaucracy at some other location, decision-making is more centralized and standardized (Burns and Stalker, 1961; Courtright *et al.*, 1989). In this context, standardization may dictate different employment practices for part-time compared to full-time employees. Personal relationships will be less important and work status will be more important in determining the type of relationship between the firm and the employee. For example, organizational policies may require managers to treat part-time workers differently from full-time, core employees, leading to more of an economic exchange relationship (Tsui *et al.*, 1997).

Contextual Sidebar

The industry
Service sector positions make up an increasingly large percentage of the total number of jobs in the U.S. and world economies. Service jobs differ from office and manufacturing jobs because line employees in service organizations have substantial customer contact. In service jobs, employees must work directly and regularly with customers and must use their judgment in balancing customer requests with cost and service implications. Service jobs also differ from traditional manufacturing and office jobs because a larger percentage of service workers have part-time work status. Employing part-time workers allows firms to provide service over extended and non-traditional work hours and also allows them the ability to meet seasonal fluctuations in demand.

Restaurants
In our study, we focus on the U.S. restaurant industry as a specific type of service organization. We included two basic types of restaurants in the study: family-operated and chain-operated organizations. Chain-operated restaurants had a more bureaucratic organizational cultural that included formal policies and procedures, hierarchical reporting relationships, scripted interactions between service staff and customers, required employee uniforms, and job specialization. In contrast, family-operated restaurants were less bureaucratic. The organizational culture in family-operated firms was more informal, had fewer written policies, did not require uniforms, and used a generalist approach to organizing work. In both family-owned and chain-operated organizations, part-time workers performed the same job duties as full-time employees.

Part-time restaurant workers
Restaurants typically employ large numbers of part-time workers. In addition, given the importance of employee judgement in interactions with customers in service firms, we expected that a service employee's discretionary behavior (positive behavior that is not specifically required by the job) might be especially important in influencing customer satisfaction. Service workers in restaurants are the primary point of contact with customers and thus can be a major influence (positive or negative) on firm performance.

Profile of employees
Our sample included 257 entry-level restaurant service employees who worked in medium size restaurants located in the Midwestern region of the United States. Our typical respondent was 23 years old, female, and had been employed by the organization for 12 months.

Our basic research question
Thus, our basic research question focuses on the extent to which employee work-status (part-time versus full-time) influenced their helping and voice organizational citizenship behavior at work.

Based on organizational culture and management style (Schein, 1992), we expect different exchange relationships for part-time workers in chain-owned compared to family-owned organizations. Accordingly, we propose that organizational culture will influence the relation between work status and organizational citizenship. Figure 1c illustrates our prediction, showing that work status will make more of a difference in the helping and voice behavior of part-time employees in organizations with more bureaucratic organizational cultures. In other words, part-time employees will engage in less

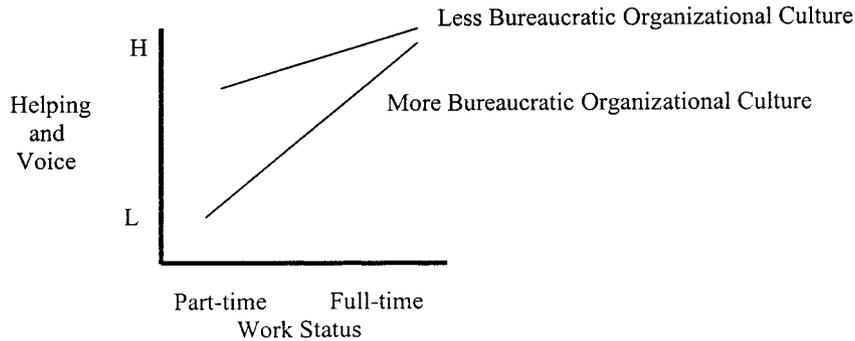*J. Organiz. Behav.* **22**, 517–536 (2001)

Figure 1c. Hypothesized interaction of work status and organizational culture for helping and voice

citizenship than full-time employees when they work in bureaucratic organizations. Accordingly, we hypothesized:

> *Hypothesis 3.* Organizational culture will moderate the relationship between work status and organizational citizenship behavior (3a: helping and 3b: voice) such that the relation will be stronger for those who work for more bureaucratic organizations.

Method

Participants

We tested our hypotheses with field data collected as part of a larger study on employee attitudes and behavior. Entry-level employees from six restaurants who had worked for the organization for at least one month participated in the study. We focused on restaurant employees for three reasons: (1) service sector positions make up an increasingly large percentage of the total jobs in the U.S. economy (Nollen and Axel, 1995); (2) most service-oriented organizations employ a large number of part-time workers who perform the same jobs as full-time employees (Kalleberg and Schmidt, 1997; Nollen and Martin, 1978); and (3) there is a relatively small amount of research on service employees.

Of the approximately 350 individuals eligible to participate in the study, 66 were not present during data collection due to scheduling conflicts, 20 chose not to participate, two terminated their employment during the time of the study, and five were not rated by their supervisors. This resulted in complete data on a sample of 257 employees (74 per cent response rate). On average, respondents were 23 years old and had been employed by their organization for 12 months. The sample was 88 per cent white, 75 per cent female, and approximately evenly divided between full-time and part-time workers. There were no differences across restaurants in work status ($F = 1.24$, $p > 0.05$) or preferred work status ($F = 2.08$, $p > 0.05$). In addition, there were no differences in work status ($t = 0.32$, $p > 0.05$) or preferred work status ($t = 1.43$, $p > 0.05$) based on organizational culture.

Procedures

Employees completed questionnaires during on-site group meetings conducted by the first author. Surveys included demographic information as well as questions concerning their work status and

preferred work status. Supervisors rated employee helping and voice, and an industry expert provided information on the organizational culture of the restaurants. Employees and supervisors were assured their responses were confidential and told they could withdraw from the study at any time.

Measures

Organizational citizenship. Managers assessed two forms of organizational citizenship behavior for each participant. Likert-scale responses ranged from 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, to 5 = strongly agree. We measured *helping* with the 5-item scale developed and validated by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990). Sample helping items included 'Helps others who have been absent,' and 'Helps orient other employees even though it is not required' (Cronbach's alpha = 0.91). We measured *voice* with the 8-item scale developed and validated by Van Dyne *et al.* (1994). Items included 'Frequently makes creative suggestions to coworkers' and 'Encourages others to speak up at meetings' (alpha = 0.85). Results of the 30° WABA test for helping ($E = 0.75$) and voice ($E = 0.59$) indicate that even though supervisors rated multiple employees, lack of independence was not a practical problem and it would not be appropriate to partition variance into group and individual effects (Dansereau *et al.*, 1984).

Work status. Employees indicated their work status (0 = part-time, 1 = full-time).

Preferred work status. Employees described their preferred work status by answering the following question: 'Given your current overall personal situation and financial responsibilities, which work status category would you prefer to work?' (0 = part-time, 1 = full-time; from Morrow *et al.*, 1994).

Organizational culture. An industry expert who was familiar with the organizations but unaware of our study design and hypotheses provided detailed descriptions of the organizational cultures. Two different individuals (also blind to the design) rated the descriptions using 10 items from Hofstede *et al.*'s (1990) measure of organizational culture. The correlation between their ratings was 0.91 ($p < 0.000$). On a scale of 1–5, organizational culture was 2.05 for family-owned restaurants and 4.20 for chain restaurants, indicating that chain restaurants had more formal, bureaucratic organizational cultures. Sixty-six per cent of the sample worked in bureaucratic organizations. Restaurants with a more bureaucratic culture were more formal, had clearly established policies, required scripted interactions between service staff and customers, specified employee uniforms, and used job specialization to narrow the scope of employee responsibilities. In contrast, less bureaucratic organizations were more relaxed and informal, had fewer written policies, did not require uniforms, and used a generalist approach to organizing work.

Controls. Age, gender, ethnicity, and organizational tenure can be related to work status (Deutermann and Brown, 1978; Nollen and Martin, 1978). Accordingly, we controlled for these demographic characteristics in our analyses. Participants reported age (years), gender (0 = male, 1 = female), ethnicity (0 = white, 1 = other), and tenure (number of months).

Analyses

We tested our hypotheses with hierarchical multiple regression analysis (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). We entered control variables (age, gender, ethnicity, and tenure) in step 1, work status, preferred work status, and organizational culture in step 2, and hypothesized interactions in step 3. We assessed the significance of each step with the ΔF and evaluated individual parameters with *t*-values. Since hypotheses were directional, we used one-tail tests to interpret results. We plotted significant interactions to illustrate the form of the relationship and ascertain if interactions were as predicted.

Results

Table 1 summarizes descriptive statistics, correlations, and Cronbach's alpha. As expected, work status was positively related to helping. However, it was not related to voice. Preferred work status was not correlated with OCB, and bureaucratic organizational culture was negatively related to helping. Older employees and those with more organizational tenure engaged in more helping and voice, and females exhibited more helping.

Hierarchical regression results (using one-tailed significance tests) are summarized in Table 2. After controlling for age, gender, ethnicity, and tenure, the addition of work status at step two yielded a significant ΔF and a positive beta for helping ($\Delta F = 5.15$, $p < 0.01$, $\beta = 0.14$, $R^2 = 0.13$) but not for voice ($\Delta F = 1.73$, n.s.). Therefore, support for hypothesis 1 was mixed, showing an effect of work status on helping but not on voice.

Table 2 also summarizes the results for Hypotheses 2a and 2b and indicates that the interactions between work status and preferred work status were significant for both helping ($\Delta F = 3.62$, $p < 0.05$, $\beta = 0.24$, $R^2 = 0.14$) and voice ($\Delta F = 9.78$, $p < 0.001$, $\beta = 0.40$, $R^2 = 0.10$). Figures 2a and 2b illustrate these interactions. For helping, the form of the interaction differed from our prediction and demonstrated a stronger relation for employees who preferred full-time status. For voice, as predicted, the relation between work status and voice was stronger for those who preferred to work full-time. Involuntary part-time workers (those who worked part-time and preferred full-time) engaged in *less* voice than other employees. However, they also engaged in less helping than other employees, so the support for Hypothesis 2 is mixed.
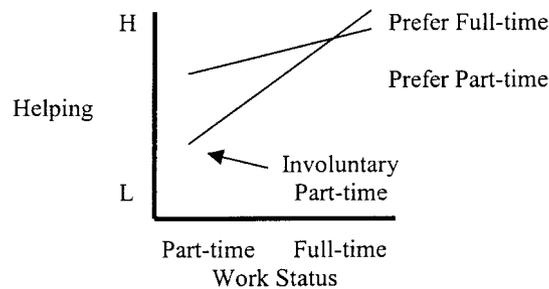

Figure 2a. Interaction results of work status and preferred work status for helping
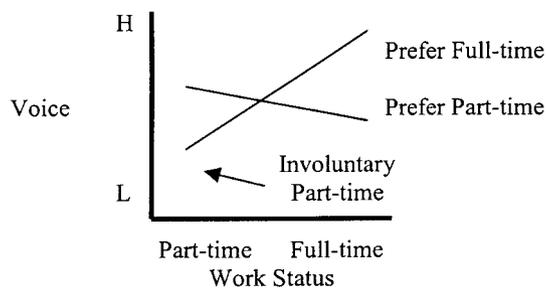

Figure 2b. Interaction results of work status and preferred work status for voice

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Helping	3.71	0.79	**0.91**[a]								
2. Voice	3.14	0.66	0.67‡	**0.85**							
3. Work status[b]	0.39	0.49	0.13*	0.10	—						
4. Preferred work status[c]	0.33	0.47	0.02	0.05	0.47‡	—					
5. Organizational culture[d]	2.78	1.02	−0.21‡	−0.05	−0.02	−0.09	—				
6. Age	27.07	10.62	0.24‡	0.17†	0.08	0.16*	−0.29‡	—			
7. Gender[e]	0.75	0.44	0.13*	0.04	−0.12	−0.09	−0.19†	0.21‡	—		
8. Ethnicity[f]	0.88	0.32	0.00	−0.03	−0.06	−0.15*	−0.10	−0.02	0.12*	—	
9. Organizational tenure	32.85	59.74	0.31‡	0.22‡	0.01	0.08	−0.24‡	0.59‡	0.18†	0.09	—

$*p < 0.05$; $^{†}p < 0.01$; $^{‡}p < 0.001$.
Notes: [a]Bold numbers on the diagonal are Cronbach's coefficient alpha. [b]0 = part-time, 1 = full-time. [c]0 = prefer part-time, 1 = prefer full-time. [d]higher values = more bureaucratic. [e]0 = male, 1 = female. [f]0 = white, 1 = other.

Table 2. Main effect and moderated regression results for the work status—organizational citizenship behavior relation

Step	Variable	Hypothesis 1a Helping	Hypothesis 1b Voice	Hypothesis 2a Helping	Hypothesis 2b Voice	Hypothesis 3a Helping	Hypothesis 3b Voice
1	Age	0.08^{a}	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.08	0.06
	Gender[b]	0.07	−0.01	0.07	−0.02	0.07	−0.01
	Ethnicity[c]	−0.01	−0.04	−0.01	−0.03	−0.01	−0.04
	Tenure	$0.25^{\ddagger}$	$0.20^{\dagger}$	$0.25^{\ddagger}$	$0.20^{\dagger}$	$0.25^{\ddagger}$	$0.20^{\dagger}$
	R^2	0.11	0.06	0.11	0.05	0.11	.05
	F	$7.28^{\ddagger}$	$3.54^{\dagger}$	$7.10^{\ddagger}$	$3.42^{\dagger}$	$7.28^{\ddagger}$	$3.54^{\dagger}$
2	Work status (WS)[d]	$0.14^{\dagger}$	0.08	$0.17^{\ddagger}$	0.09	$0.14^{\dagger}$	0.08
	Preferred status (PS)[e]			−0.08	−0.02		
	Org. culture (OC)[f]					$-0.14^{\dagger}$	0.01
	ΔR^2	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.01
	ΔF	$5.15^{\ddagger}$	1.73	3.04^{*}	0.76	$5.09^{\dagger}$	0.86
3	WS × PS			0.24^{*}	$0.40^{\ddagger}$		
	WS × OC					-0.15^{*}	-0.16^{*}
	ΔR^2			0.01	0.04	0.01	0.01
	ΔF			3.62^{*}	$9.78^{\ddagger}$	3.06^{*}	3.24^{*}
	R^2	0.13	0.06	0.14	0.10	0.16	0.07
	Adjusted R^2	0.11	0.04	0.12	0.07	0.13	0.05
	F	$6.96^{\ddagger}$	$3.18^{\dagger}$	$5.57^{\ddagger}$	$3.64^{\ddagger}$	$6.24^{\ddagger}$	$2.75^{\dagger}$

One-tailed significance tests were used.
$^{*}p < 0.05$; $^{\dagger}p < 0.01$; $^{\ddagger}p < 0.001$.
Notes: [a]Standardized beta coefficients. [b]0 = male, 1 = female. [c]0 = white, 1 = other. [d]0 = part-time, 1 = full-time. [e]0 = prefer part-time, 1 = prefer full-time. [f]higher values = more bureaucratic.
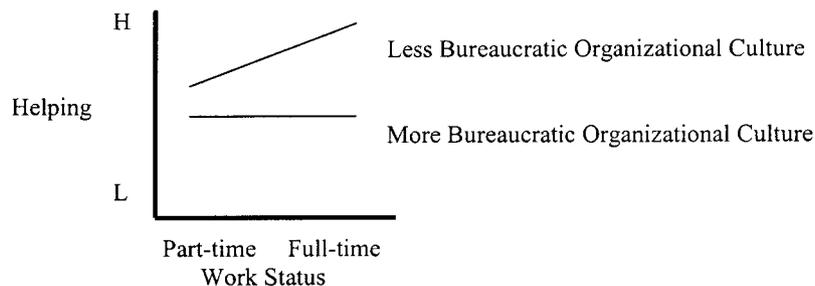
Figure 3a. Interaction results of work status and organizational culture for helping
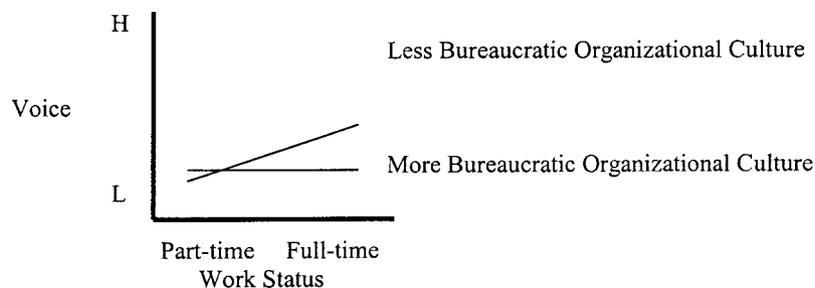

Figure 3b. Interaction results of work status and organizational culture for voice

Results for Hypotheses 3a and b are summarized in Table 2. For both helping and voice, the interactions between work status and organizational culture were significant (helping: $\Delta F = 3.06$, $p < 0.05$, $\beta = -0.15$, $R^2 = 0.16$; voice: $\Delta F = 3.24$, $p < 0.05$, $\beta = -0.16$, $R^2 = 0.07$). However, Figures 3a and 3b show that the form of the interactions is not consistent with our prediction. Specifically, the relation between work status and citizenship was stronger in *less* bureaucratic organizations, not more bureaucratic organizations.

Discussion

Results of this study highlight three key points. First, consistent with social versus economic exchange arguments (Millward and Hopkins, 1998), part-time workers performed less helping than their full-time counterparts. This suggests that reduced levels of employee cooperation may offset some of the short-term cost savings associated with the increased use of part-time workers. Second, preferred work status moderated the relation between work status and both types of citizenship behavior (helping and voice) such that those working involuntarily as part-time engaged in less helping and less voice. Third, organizational culture also moderated the work status – OCB relation for helping and voice, indicating that the highest levels of OCB require both full time work status *and* a less bureaucratic organizational culture. We discuss each of these findings in more detail below.

First, those who worked part-time engaged in less helping behavior than those who worked full-time. Given differences in exchange relationships of part-time and full-time employees with the organization, this difference is not surprising. Part-time employees spend less time at work, receive

less from the organization (i.e., pay, benefits, information, training, and recognition), and have other responsibilities and interests that demand their time and attention outside of work. Consequently, they are more likely to focus on performing their core job responsibilities in an acceptable manner and are less likely to perform discretionary behavior such as that typically found in social exchange rather than economic exchange relationships. Helping co-workers is a proactive behavior that requires extra effort. When part-time employees receive fewer inducements from the organization, they are less likely to contribute above and beyond their core job duties based on the general notion of reciprocity.

Second, the associations between work status and both helping and voice were moderated by preferred work status. In our hypothesis development, we proposed that involuntary part-time workers would engage in more helping than voluntary part-time in an effort to build a positive reputation and gain full-time work status. Thus, our rationale was based on anticipated, future reciprocity by the organization. Results, however, demonstrated that *voluntary* part-time workers engaged in more helping than involuntary part-time. A one-tailed test that registers significance in the opposite direction to that predicted might often be interpreted as a null result, and this finding certainly bears replication. However, it is interesting to speculate on the possible substantive meaning of this unexpected finding. In retrospect, we view this result as consistent with social exchange theory, but with an emphasis on *past* inducements offered by the organization. In other words, employees in our study were reactive rather than proactive. We suggest this finding has interesting theoretical implications for future research on organizational citizenship behavior and social exchange.

In contrast, the interaction between work status and preferred work status for voice conformed to our expectations. Results suggest that when employees are dissatisfied with their work status (e.g., a mismatch between preferred and actual), they may avoid challenging forms of citizenship as an impression management technique (Bolino, 1999). We speculate that since they want to change their work hours, the perceived costs of voice are too high and they are not willing to risk the negative reactions that sometimes accompany expression of challenging ideas. In contrast, those employees who work their preferred work status may be more comfortable voicing opinions and making suggestions than their involuntary counterparts. Thus, work status makes a difference in voice for those who prefer to change their work status.

Results also show interactions between work status and organizational culture for helping and voice, but the form of the interactions differed from our expectation. In both cases, the relation was stronger for employees in less bureaucratic companies. One reason may be that organizations that are more bureaucratic do not support or reward citizenship behavior whereas less bureaucratic organizations may rely on discretionary behavior to ensure quality customer service in lieu of strict standards and formalized processes. Perhaps in these family-type organizations full-time employees feel more normative pressure to engage in OCB than part-time. Alternatively, these full-time workers may have a greater understanding of the importance of citizenship for overall organizational success.

Our final observation concerns the overall contrast in the findings for helping and voice. Although full-time work status alone leads to higher helping, voice is only high when full-time work status is congruent with work status preferences or when full time work status is combined with a less bureaucratic organizational culture. This is consistent with the personal risks and costs that can be associated with voice in contrast to helping. This finding also provides insight into the relatively lower mean level of voice compared to helping (3.14 versus 3.71).

Implications

Results of this study have valuable theoretical implications for researchers investigating organizational citizenship. First, as recommended by Feldman (1990), the study focused on behavior, rather than

attitudes. Second, the study used social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to predict differences in organizational citizenship based on the inducements employees receive from the organization as a function of their work status. This is important because prior research on part-time workers has been more descriptive than theoretical in nature. Third, differences in findings for helping and voice demonstrate the importance of differentiating specific types of citizenship behavior both theoretically and empirically and not using composite constructs that may mask key distinctions.

The study also has implications for managers of full-time and part-time employees. First, although there may be short-term cost benefits associated with using part-time employees, organizations may at the same time be forfeiting helping organizational citizenship behaviors when they use part-time workers. This may be especially problematic in service organizations where discretionary cooperation among employees allows organizations to cope with fluctuating demand and deliver high quality service to customers. Second, managers should be aware of the importance of preferred work status. Our results suggest that involuntary part-time employees (those who would prefer to work full-time) exhibit low levels of helping and voice. When managers value employee cooperation (helping) and suggestions for change (voice), they should consider the work status preferences of their employees. Third, managers in less bureaucratic organizations should look to full-time employees when assisting coworkers (helping) or suggesting new ideas is key to high levels of customer service. In contrast, managers in more bureaucratic organizations should not expect high levels of helping or voice from either part-time or full-time workers.

Strengths and weaknesses

As with all research, this study has strengths and weaknesses. An important strength is our use of an under-researched sample of service workers. Although service employees comprise approximately 20 per cent of the U.S. workforce (Nollen and Axel, 1995) and part-time work is especially prevalent in service organizations (Hipple, 1998), there is a relatively small amount of research on the behavior of service employees (Smith, 1997). Service sector jobs are different from manufacturing and traditional office jobs because they are more intangible in nature and involve the ambiguity and unpredictability of working directly with customers (Sasser *et al.*, 1978). Therefore, prior findings based on manufacturing samples may not generalize to service-sector employees. Another strength of the study is our focus on two different types of citizenship behaviors and the different pattern of relationships suggested for challenging (voice) and affiliative (helping) forms of citizenship.

Two characteristics of the study suggest concerns that may affect its generalizability. First, although the age of the workers covered a large range (16–70 years), the overall sample was young (median age = 23). Results, accordingly, may not generalize to service samples with different demographic profiles. A second area of concern is the nature of our sample, which was limited to restaurants located in medium size towns in the Midwest. Our results may not generalize to restaurant employees who work in large cities where long-term careers in restaurant service jobs are more prevalent.

Additionally, two methodological issues may have clouded our results. First, the amount of time spent at work influences the opportunity for workers to engage in OCB and their visibility to managers who assess OCB. Thus, part-time workers not only have less opportunity to contribute organizational citizenship in an absolute sense, but their efforts may also be noticed less. Second, it is possible that some managers in the study had preconceived opinions and expectations regarding part-time and full-time differences in work behavior. Perhaps some managers rated part-time workers lower in citizenship based on a biased schema or stereotypes rather than on their actual behavior. In the future, researchers might design experimental studies to disentangle these issues.

Finally, we note that our models explain a relatively low amount of the variance in helping (13–16 per cent) and voice (6–10 per cent). Thus our overall effects, and especially those of the interactions, are small. Given the general difficulty in detecting moderator effects – especially in field samples – we interpret these results as indicating that the relation between work status and some forms of citizenship is more complex than a simple main effect (Aguinis and Stone-Romero, 1997). For example, McClelland and Judd summarized their observations about moderation in field samples as follows: 'even those explaining as little as 1 per cent of the total variance should be considered important . . . field study interactions typically account for about 1–3 per cent of the variance (1993: 377).

Future research

The overall pattern of results in this study suggests interesting possibilities for future research. For example, the differences in basic relationships for helping and voice (no main effects due to work status for voice) indicate benefits of research that continues to distinguish various types of organizational citizenship. Similarly, results for the interaction hypotheses suggest the value of additional research on personal factors (such as work centrality, career goals, career stage, and family responsibilities) and context (type of job, size of group, group norms, and organizational values) that may strengthen or weaken the effect of work status on helping and voice in organizational settings.

Future research could also examine the effect of the relative bargaining power of part-time workers in different labor market situations. When part-time workers comprise a significant proportion of the work force, hold a significant percent of critical jobs, or are needed but in short supply, they are particularly important to organizational success. This increase in their power may change the way they are treated by the organization and the nature of their exchange relationship with the organization. Under these circumstances, part-time workers may be treated more like insiders (core contributors) and this may reduce or eliminate differences in the citizenship behavior of employees based on work status and preferred work status.

Another issue for future research is the question of why work status and organizational citizenship behavior are related. We suggest that future research should examine aspects of the employment relationship that may mediate the relationship between work status and citizenship. For example, employee feelings of perceived organizational support (e.g., Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986; Settoon *et al.*, 1996; Shore and Tetrick, 1991) may be one key link between work status and citizenship. Part-time employees may feel less supported by the organization and thus are less likely to perform certain types of citizenship. Other mediating processes may include characteristics of the manager–employee relationship such as the quality of vertical dyadic relationships (Graen, 1976) and employee feelings of fairness (e.g., Moorman, 1991).

In conclusion, results of this study demonstrate differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of part-time and full-time employees. Results also demonstrate a different pattern of overall relationships for helping, which is affiliative, and voice, which is change-oriented, suggesting fundamental differences in the social exchange costs and benefits of these two forms of organizational citizenship.

Acknowledgements

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