

Organizational Citizenship:

A Comparison between Part-time and Full-time Service Employees

Part-time workers do show some organizational citizenship differences compared to their full-time associates, but in many ways, the two groups are similar.

BY CHRISTINA L. STAMPER AND LINN VAN DYNE

Given today's highly competitive environment, corporations are constantly looking for new ways in which to maximize employees' work efforts. This is particularly important in the service sector, where employees are the key players in determining customer satisfaction and retention. In fact, a study of hospitality executives conducted by Enz indicated that the number-one problem in this industry is the care and motivation of human capital.¹ However, service-sector jobs are often low-pay, high-stress vocations—two factors that typically work against the quality of employee performance. In addition,

¹ C.A. Enz, "What Keeps You Up at Night? Key Issues of Concern for Lodging Managers," *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 42, No. 2 (April 2001), pp. 38-45.

the service industry employs a large number of non-traditional employees, such as part-time and temporary workers, who may not have strong organizational loyalty or dedication to work, since such employees often tend to view their jobs as short-term commitments.²

Part-time work is particularly prevalent in service organizations,³ especially among clerical, sales, and food service industries.⁴ Moreover, in these industries, part-time workers tend to perform the same work tasks and hold the

² D.I. Jacobsen, "Managing Increased Part-time: Does Part-time Work Imply Part-time Commitment?," *Managing Service Quality*, Vol. 10 (2000), pp. 187-200.

³ S. Hipple, "Contingent Work: Results from the Second Survey," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 121 (1998), pp. 22-35.

⁴ S.D. Nollen and J.H. Martin, *Alternative Work Schedules, Part 2: Permanent Part-time Employment* (New York: AMACOM, 1978).

© 2003, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

EXHIBIT 1

Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix

| Variable | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|---------|--------|--------|-------|---------|--------|-------|-----|---|
| 1. Helping | 3.71 | .79 | .91 | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Voice | 3.14 | .66 | .67*** | .85 | | | | | | | |
| 3. Work status | .39 | .49 | .13* | .10 | — | | | | | | |
| 4. Preferred work status | .33 | .47 | .02 | .05 | .47*** | — | | | | | |
| 5. Organizational culture | 2.78 | 1.02 | -.21*** | -.05 | -.02 | -.09 | — | | | | |
| 6. Age | 27.07 | 10.62 | .24*** | .17** | .08 | .16* | -.29*** | — | | | |
| 7. Gender | .75 | .44 | .13* | .04 | -.12 | -.09 | -.19** | .21*** | — | | |
| 8. Ethnicity | .88 | .32 | .00 | -.03 | -.06 | -.15* | -.10 | -.02 | .12* | — | |
| 9. Organizational tenure | 32.85 | 59.74 | .31*** | .22*** | .01 | .08 | -.24*** | .59*** | .18** | .09 | — |

Notes: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

Numbers in color are Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Work status: 0 = part-time, 1 = full-time; preferred status: 0 = prefer part-time, 1 = prefer full-time; higher values for organizational culture indicate greater bureaucracy; gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; ethnicity: 0 = white, 1 = other.

same responsibilities as full-time employees.⁵ Although service employees constitute approximately 20 percent of the U.S. work force,⁶ we have found relatively little research that compares the behavior of full-time and part-time service employees.⁷ The absence of research in this area is troubling, given that service-sector positions make up an increasingly large percentage of the total jobs in the U.S. economy.⁸

Many managers believe that part-time workers have lower commitment, higher turnover, lower performance, and that they are less willing to contribute to the organization than are their

full-time counterparts.⁹ For example, some managers feel that part-timers are more likely to call in sick for a shift, less willing to attend after-hour meetings or training, and less likely to work hard to satisfy guests' needs compared to full-time employees. Taking these assumptions as truths could cause managers to treat part-time and full-time workers differently, which could make part-time employees feel that they are being treated unfairly, resulting in reduced commitment and work contributions. Such a scenario could become a vicious cycle of lowered expectations from supervisors and high resentment and low performance by part-time workers.

There is, however, little empirical evidence to support managerial assumptions about lower commitment and performance of part-time employees. In fact, given that in most service-sector jobs, part-time and full-time workers perform the same job tasks, one could expect similarity in their

⁵ See: A.L. Kalleberg and K. Schmidt, "Contingent Employment in Organizations: Part-time, Temporary, and Subcontracting Relations," in *Organizations in America: Analyzing Their Structures and Human-resource Practices*, ed. A.L. Kalleberg, D. Knoke, P. Marsden, and J. Spaeth (New York: Sage, 1997), pp. 253–275; and S.D. Nollen and H. Axel, *Managing Contingent Workers: How to Reap the Benefits and Reduce the Risks* (New York: AMACOM, 1995).

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ V. Smith, "New Forms of Work Organizations," in *Annual Review of Sociology*, ed. J. Hagen and K.S. Cook (Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, 1997), pp. 315–339.

⁸ See: Nollen and Axel, *op. cit.*

⁹ See: M.J. Gannon, "The Management of Peripheral Employees," *Personnel Journal*, Vol. 54 (1975), pp. 482–486; S. Ronen, *Alternative Work Schedules* (Homewood, IL: Dow Jones-Irwin, 1984); N.L. Rotchford and K.H. Roberts, "Part-time Workers as Missing Persons in Organizational Research," *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 7 (1982), pp. 228–234; and Jacobsen, *op. cit.*

motivations and attitudes toward work responsibilities. This lack of information on the behavior of part-time service workers is the reason behind our research on part-time and full-time restaurant employees. Because organizational performance in the service sector is highly predicated on ensuring appropriate employee behavior designed to achieve customer satisfaction, it is critical to determine whether and when there may be differences in the work behavior of full-time and part-time employees.

There are many different types of employee work behavior. The most obvious is job performance, usually defined as quantity and quality of work, which can be measured through quantitative and qualitative processes. There is, however, another important work behavior that differs from traditional in-role task performance. This second type of work performance is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB),¹⁰ which is defined 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." OCB requires extra effort on the part of employees who go beyond in-role or prescribed duties specified by management.¹¹ OCB comprises discretionary behavior that facilitates interpersonal relationships among coworkers and enables the smooth functioning of the organization.¹²

Organizational citizenship behavior is particularly important in service-sector work, given the unpredictability of guests' demands. Employees who are charged with meeting or exceeding cus-

tomers' expectations often have to adapt their work behavior to cope with the highly individualized nature of guest needs. They have to choose whether to exhibit discretionary work-related behavior. Therefore, understanding whether and under what circumstances the OCB of part-time and full-time workers differs is critical to understanding how to ensure high-quality customer service.

The two specific types of citizenship behavior that we studied are helping and voice.¹³ Helping occurs when one employee assists other employees with their work or work-related activities. Restaurant workers frequently help others with their work during busy meal times (e.g., taking drink orders for another server's table, helping others clear plates, showing a new employee how to prepare a salad). By helping each other, these workers reinforce social ties and strengthen interpersonal relationships in a manner that contributes to the organization. By helping coworkers, they help to ensure high levels of guest satisfaction, which will positively reinforce company goals.

Voice involves making suggestions for innovations or improvements in policies and procedures. Restaurant employees exercise voice when they suggest menu items, point out problems in the service process (e.g., hosts are slow to greet guests or salads are not fresh enough for serving), or provide feedback about customer likes and dislikes to managers. Employees' voice behavior contributes positively to the organization by introducing ideas that can attract new customers and retain current ones. In addition, voice allows employees to accept partial responsibility for the success of the business, by making them part of the decision-making process.

Helping and voice types of OCB provide an interesting contrast, because helping is an affiliative and cooperative behavior, whereas voice can be challenging and change oriented.¹⁴ Moreover, as is illustrated by the examples above, both types of citizenship behavior are increasingly

¹⁰ D.W. Organ, *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good-soldier Syndrome* (Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1988), p. 4.

¹¹ L. Van Dyne, L.L. Cummings, and J. McLean Parks, "Extra-role Behaviors: In Pursuit of Construct and Definitional Clarity (A Bridge over Muddied Waters)," in *Research in Organizational Behavior Vol. 17*, ed. L.L. Cummings and B.M. Staw (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1995), pp. 215–285.

¹² See: W.C. Borman and S.J. Motowidlo, "Task Performance and Contextual Performance: The Meaning for Personnel-selection Research," *Human Performance*, Vol. 10 (1997), pp. 99–109; and J.A. LePine, A. Erez, and D.E. Johnson, "The Nature and Dimensionality of Organizational-citizenship Behavior: A Critical Review and Meta-analysis," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 87 (2002), pp. 52–65.

¹³ L. Van Dyne and J.A. LePine, "Helping and Voice Extra-role Behaviors: Evidence of Construct and Predictive Validity," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 41 (1998), pp. 108–119.

¹⁴ Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks, *op.cit.*

EXHIBIT 2

Relationship of work status and organizational-citizenship behavior

| Step | Variable | Helping | Voice | Helping | Voice | Helping | Voice |
|------|-------------------------|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|--------|
| 1 | Age | .08 | .06 | .08 | .06 | .08 | .06 |
| | Gender | .07 | -.01 | .07 | -.02 | .07 | -.01 |
| | Ethnicity | -.01 | -.04 | -.01 | -.03 | -.01 | -.04 |
| | Tenure | .25*** | .20** | .25*** | .20** | .25*** | .20** |
| | R ² | .11 | .06 | .11 | .05 | .11 | .05 |
| | F | 7.28*** | 3.54** | 7.10*** | 3.42** | 7.28*** | 3.54** |
| 2 | Work status (WS) | .14** | .08 | .17*** | .09 | .14** | .08 |
| | Preferred status (PS) | | | -.08 | -.02 | | |
| | Org. culture (OC) | | | | | -.14** | .01 |
| | ΔR ² | .02 | .01 | .02 | .01 | .04 | .01 |
| | ΔF | 5.15*** | 1.73 | 3.04* | .76 | 5.09** | .86 |
| 3 | WS x PS | | | .24* | .40*** | | |
| | WS x OC | | | | | -.15* | -.16* |
| | ΔR ² | | | .01 | .04 | .01 | .01 |
| | ΔF | | | 3.62* | 9.78*** | 3.06* | 3.24* |
| | R ² | .13 | .06 | .14 | .10 | .16 | .07 |
| | Adjusted R ² | .11 | .04 | .12 | .07 | .13 | .05 |
| | F | 6.96*** | 3.18** | 5.57*** | 3.64*** | 6.24*** | 2.75** |

Notes: Figures are standardized beta coefficients; one-tailed significance tests were used; *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$.

Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female; ethnicity: 0 = white, 1 = other; work status: 0 = part-time, 1 = full-time; preferred status: 0 = prefer part-time, 1 = prefer full-time; higher values for organizational culture indicate greater bureaucracy.

important in creating quality service interactions with customers and competitive advantage for organizations.

In our study, we wanted to determine whether part-time and full-time employees differed in regard to their organizational citizenship behavior. We also wanted to know whether there were additional factors (those being an employee's preferred work status and the type of culture that exists in the organization) that may influence employees' efforts toward non-prescribed job tasks. We collected data from 257 employees and their managers in six restaurants (two large chain restaurants, one large destination resort, and three small family owned restaurants). Statistical analyses of these data are summarized in Exhibits 1 and 2 (see details in the accompanying sidebar).

Below, we describe the results, explain why differences in citizenship behavior exist, and conclude by discussing why this information is important to managers in the service sector.

Differences in Work Behavior and the Reasons Behind Those Differences

The first important finding is that full-time employees performed more helping behavior than part-time workers. The second key finding is that involuntary part-time workers (those who worked part-time but would have preferred full-time) engaged in less helping and less voice than voluntary part-time employees. Exhibit 3 (overleaf) illustrates these relationships. The third key finding is the importance of organizational culture in influencing helping and voice. Employees in

organizations with more-bureaucratic cultures engaged in less helping than those in less-bureaucratic cultures, and work status (part-time versus full-time) made more of a difference in organizational citizenship behavior in less-bureaucratic companies (see Exhibit 4, overleaf).

Similarities and Differences

Our findings for helping and voice differed. First, part-time workers performed less helping (mean = 3.63) than did their full-time counterparts (mean = 3.84), based on supervisors' ratings (1 = low to 5 = high). As described above, this is consistent with expectations commonly held by managers. Second, both part-time and full-time workers had similar levels of voice behavior. Finally, employees generally engaged in less voice (overall mean = 3.14) than helping (overall mean = 3.71).

Helping. There are three possible explanations for why part-time workers displayed lower levels of helping than did full-time workers. The first reason is based on what these employees receive from the organization. Compared to full-time workers, part-time employees are less likely to get high levels of pay, benefits, information, training, or recognition.¹⁵ Human-capital theory suggests that employers invest in employees (especially in training and other less tangible benefits) when they can expect an ongoing return on their investment.¹⁶ 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, and 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 extra effort beyond that specified in their job descriptions and they are less likely to contribute above and beyond their core job duties.

The second explanation for why part-time workers differ from full-time employees in

Our Study Methods

Entry-level employees from six restaurants who had worked for the organization for at least one month participated in the study.

Participants: Of the approximately 350 individuals eligible to participate, we obtained complete data on 257 employees (a 74-percent response rate). On average, respondents were 23 years old and had been employed by their organization for 12 months. The sample was 88-percent white, 75-percent female, and approximately evenly divided between full-time and part-time workers. There were no differences across restaurants in work status or preferred work status.

Procedures: During on-site group meetings, employees completed questionnaires that included demographic information and questions concerning their work status and preferred work status. Supervisors rated the levels of employees' helping and voice, and an industry expert provided information on the restaurants' organizational culture. Employees and supervisors were assured that their responses were confidential and were told they could withdraw from the study at any time.

Measures: 1. *Organizational citizenship.* We measured helping with the five-item scale developed and validated by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter.¹ A sample helping item is "Helps others who have been absent." We measured voice with the eight-item scale developed and validated by Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch.² "Frequently makes creative suggestions to co-workers" is a sample voice item. Likert-scale responses ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

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

3. *Preferred work status.* Employees answered: "Given your current overall personal situation and financial responsibilities, which work status category would you prefer to work?" (0 = part-time, 1 = full-time).³

4. *Organizational culture.* Two different individuals rated descriptions of the restaurants using ten items from the Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, and Sanders' measure of organizational culture.⁴ The correlation between their ratings was .91 ($p < .000$). On a scale of 1 to 5, culture was 2.05 for family-owned restaurants and 4.20 for chain restaurants, indicating that chain restaurants had more bureaucratic cultures. Restaurants with a more-bureaucratic culture were more formal, had clearly established policies, required scripted interactions between service employees and customers, specified employee uniforms, and relied on specialized 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.

5. *Controls.* Age, gender, ethnicity, and organizational tenure can be related to work status.⁵ Accordingly, we controlled for those 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.⁶ 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.—C.L.S. and L.V.D.

¹P.M. Podsakoff, S.B. MacKenzie, R.H. Moorman, and R. Fetter, "Transformational Leader Behaviors and Their Effects on Followers' Trust in Leader, Satisfaction, and Organizational-citizenship Behaviors," *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol 1 (1990), pp. 107-142.

²L. Van Dyne, J.W. Graham, and R.M. Dienesch, "Organizational-citizenship Behavior: Construct Redefinition, Measurement, and Validation," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37 (1994), pp. 765-802.

³P.C. Morrow, J.C. McElroy, and S.M. Elliott, "The Effect of Preference for Work Status, Schedule, and Shift on Work-related Attitudes," *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 45 (1994), pp. 202-222.

⁴G. Hofstede, B. Neuijen, D.D. Ohayv, and G. Sanders, "Measuring Organizational Cultures: A Qualitative and Quantitative Study across Twenty Cases," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 35 (1990), pp. 286-316.

⁵ See: W.V. Deutermann, Jr., and S.C. Brown, "Voluntary Part-time Workers: A Growing Part of the Labor Force," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 101 (1978), pp. 3-10; and S.D. Nollen and J.H. Martin *Alternative Work Schedules, Part 2: Permanent Part-time Employment* (New York: AMACOM, 1978).

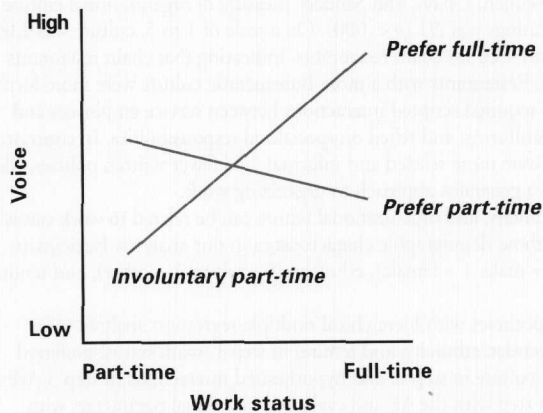
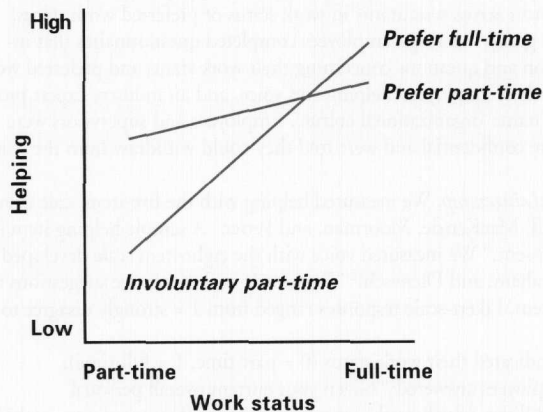
⁶J. Cohen and P. Cohen, *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences, second edition* (Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1983).

¹⁵ Hipple, *op.cit.*

¹⁶ G.S. Becker, *Human Capital* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1964).

EXHIBIT 3

Interaction results of work status and preferred status with OCB



performing helping OCB is related to the first. Blau argues that employment relationships may be described as based on social exchange or economic exchange.¹⁷ 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 employees believe that if they exercise initiative and contribute above minimum expectations, they will receive unspecified positive outcomes at an unspecified future date (a phenomenon known as the norm of reciprocity).¹⁸ If part-time workers receive fewer tangible and intangible inducements than do full-time employees (receiving only wages in return for performing core job duties), they most likely perceive their employment relationships as being based on economic exchange. Thus, part-time workers may not believe they have anything to gain by exerting extra effort and making discretionary work contributions, and so they may refrain from helping others.

The final explanation for why part-time employees engage in less helping OCB than full-timers is based on the fact that many part-timers choose to work part-time due to other demands and interests in their lives. Many part-time employees want to minimize their involvement at work so that they have time and energy for other activities and responsibilities that are important to them, such as children, another job, or educational goals that make it difficult for them to work full-time.¹⁹ Therefore, when work is one of sev-

¹⁷ P. Blau, *Exchange and Power in Social Life* (New York: Wiley, 1964).

¹⁸ See: A.W. Gouldner, "The Norm of Reciprocity: A Preliminary Statement," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 25 (1960), pp. 53-62; and D.M. Rousseau, S.B. Sitkin, R.S. Burt, and C. Camerer, "Not So Different after All: A Cross-discipline View of Trust," *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 23 (1998), pp. 393-404.

¹⁹ M.A. Ferber and J. Waldfogel, "The Long-term Consequences of Nontraditional Employment," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 121 (1998), pp. 3-12.

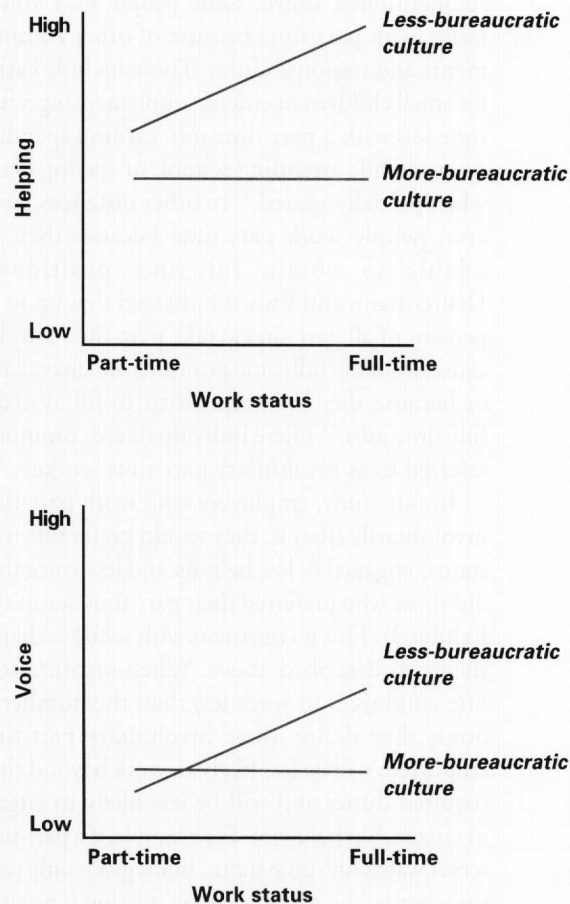
eral important, competing activities,²⁰ part-time workers may choose a well specified economic-exchange relationship with the organization and intentionally limit their involvement and contributions to those specified explicitly by their employer. They may view their part-time work as temporary and may not intend to work for the organization long-term.²¹ This is supported by the research of Peters *et al.*,²² who demonstrated that part-time employees plan to stay with a particular organization for a shorter period of time than do full-time workers.

Voice. Another interesting finding in this study is the similar, low level of voice exhibited by both part-time and full-time employees. One possible explanation for this is based on the risk involved in making suggestions for change, because making such suggestions can seem to imply problems with past practices. Additionally, 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, challenge, or criticism. Also, the nature of the server position may affect employees' willingness to voice opinions. Service-sector positions, such as restaurant hosts and servers, are typically entry-level positions, and employees may feel that they do not have the expertise or authority to recommend innovations or changes in company policies and procedures. Finally, since service jobs are predicated on assisting and helping, managers may encourage co-workers to help each other, but may not encourage or reward voice behavior. Sometimes server routines are highly standardized, leaving no room for employees' suggestions.

To summarize, our research demonstrated that part-time employees helped their co-workers less than full-time workers did, but that there was no difference in the level of voice for part-time and full-time employees. The overall low level of voice suggests that although full-time restaurant

EXHIBIT 4

Interaction results of work status and organizational culture with OCB



²⁰ Rotchford and Roberts, *op.cit.*

²¹ D.C. Feldman and H.I. Doeringhaus, "Patterns of Part-time Employment," *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 41 (1992), pp. 282-294.

²² L.H. Peters, E.F. Jackofsky, and J.R. Salter, "Predicting Turnover: A Comparison of Part-time and Full-time Employees," *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, Vol. 2 (1981), pp. 89-98.

workers are willing to engage in high levels of helping, neither full-time nor part-time employees make many suggestions for change.

Work Preferences and Organizational Culture

As mentioned above, some people may voluntarily work part-time because of other commitments and responsibilities. These include caring for small children or elders, supplementing a full-time job with a part-time job, earning spending money while attending school, or staying active when partially retired.²³ In other instances, however, people work part-time because they are unable to obtain full-time positions.²⁴ Deutermann and Brown indicated that up to 20 percent 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.²⁵ These individuals are commonly referred to as involuntary part-time workers.²⁶

In our study, employees who work part-time involuntarily (that is, they would prefer full-time status) engaged in less helping and less voice than did those who preferred their part-time status (see Exhibit 3). This is consistent with social exchange theory as described above. When organizations hire employees to work less than the number of hours they desire, these involuntary part-time employees will be less likely to work beyond their required duties and will be less likely to engage in citizenship behavior. For example, if a part-time server wants full-time status, but is given only part-time hours, the employee may develop a negative attitude and may provide only basic service to guests as opposed to exceptional service. This is consistent with the idea of reciprocity, which suggests that employees reciprocate by exhibiting behavior that is consistent with the treatment they receive from their work organizations.²⁷ In other words, if the employee's preferred work

schedule is not granted, he or she may reciprocate by withholding extra work effort.

Organizational culture. In our study, organizational culture directly influenced the level of helping among co-workers and also influenced the work status-OCB relation for both helping and voice. Specifically, employees were more helpful in organizations that were less bureaucratic in their organizational culture.²⁸ When restaurants are local and family owned, the management style and culture of the organization is usually more personal and less bureaucratic than when restaurants are part of a large chain. In family-owned organizations, personal characteristics and personal relationships play a strong role in influencing the exchange between employees and the organization.²⁹ For example, family-owned service establishments generally have less standardization, fewer formal policies and procedures, and more idiosyncratic decision making than do organizations that are part of more standardized and centralized chains.

When employees work for less-bureaucratic organizations, they have more choices about what to do, when to do it, and how to do it. In contrast, when ownership is not local and when policies are determined by managers at some other location, decision making is more centralized and standardized. In bureaucratic organizations, employees' work behavior is clearly specified and regulated by rules, procedures, and norms.³⁰ Standardization often dictates employment practices, leaving little room for employee discretion, which reduces discretionary helping in service encounters. Since employee behavior is more constrained in bureaucratic organizations, individuals have less discretion regarding their work behavior and therefore engage in less helping toward their co-workers.

²³ Smith, *op.cit.*

²⁴ W.V. Deutermann, Jr., and S.C. Brown, "Voluntary Part-time Workers: A Growing Part of the Labor Force," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 101 (1978), pp. 3-10.

²⁵ Ferber and Waldfogel, *op.cit.*; and Nollen and Axel, *op.cit.*

²⁶ E.H. Schein, *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, second edition (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1992).

²⁷ See: Gouldner, *op.cit.*

²⁸ See: Schein, *op.cit.*

²⁹ S. Ranson, B. Hinings, and R. Greenwood, "The Structuring of Organizational Structures," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 25 (1980), pp. 1-17.

³⁰ T. Burns and G.M. Stalker, *The Management of Innovation* (London: Tavistock, 1961); and J.A. Courtright, G.T. Fairhurst, and L.E. Rogers, "Interaction Patterns in Organic and Mechanistic Systems," *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 32 (1989), pp. 773-802.

Another way in which culture matters is that there is a greater difference in the citizenship behavior of full-time and part-time workers in cultures that are less bureaucratic (see Exhibit 4) than in those that are more bureaucratic. As we noted above, rules, regulations, procedures, and policies govern employee work behavior in bureaucratic cultures. This most likely constrains an employee's ability to engage in citizenship behavior. It also constrains the effect of work status on citizenship behavior. In other words, there is little difference in part-time and full-time worker OCB (helping and voice) in highly standardized organizational cultures because neither part-time nor full-time employees have significant discretion regarding their work actions. Instead, they have to conform to service scripts and procedures dictated by company policies. In contrast, part-time and full-time employees who work in less bureaucratic cultures have more discretion regarding their work actions. Therefore, relational factors (i.e., social vs. economic exchange) and reciprocity have a stronger influence on discretionary behaviors such as helping and voice, resulting in a greater difference between part-time and full-time work behavior.

Implications: Why This Matters

Our research demonstrates that work status, work-status preferences, and organizational culture all have substantial effects on employee helping and voice forms of organizational citizenship behavior. Although organizations may obtain short-term cost reductions by hiring part-time employees, they may at the same time be forfeiting discretionary helping behavior, given our finding that part-time employees contribute less helping than do full-time employees. As a starting point, social exchange theory suggests that employees go beyond core job requirements when they feel they get more than minimum inducements from the organization. If part-time workers feel they get less than full-time workers (different pay or benefit packages), they are less likely to cooperate and less likely to help co-workers. Helping behavior among co-workers in service-based jobs is essential for coping with fluctuating demand and delivering high-quality service to customers. When employees refrain from cooperating with each other, tensions may arise that

interfere with projecting a friendly, relaxed atmosphere where guests may enjoy themselves. If servers argue over sections, if hosts do not work together while seating tables, or if attendants do not readily assist servers in bussing tables or delivering food during busy meal times, this lack of cooperation and help among co-workers can lead to disastrous results for companies where customer satisfaction is critical to success. Therefore, the short-term labor cost savings of hiring part-time workers may be offset by lower levels of employee cooperation that lead to reduced customer satisfaction. We suggest that managers should carefully consider long-term organizational priorities and the importance of discretionary helping when making decisions regarding the increased use of part-time employees.

Second, managers should be aware of the importance of an employee's preferred work status to OCB, given that involuntary part-time employees exhibit low levels of helping and low levels of voice. When managers value employee cooperation and suggestions for change, they should attempt to accommodate the work-status preferences of their employees, especially those of their part-time workers. The research of McGinnis and Morrow supports this point; they found that work-status preference influences the relationship between work status and job satisfaction.³¹ That is, if managers allow an employee to work the desired number of hours, they can expect greater job satisfaction. More important, our research demonstrates that managers can also expect higher levels of helping and voice, which should enhance customer service. By asking employees about their preferences and meeting those preferences when possible, or providing an explanation for when this is not possible,³² managers can increase the likelihood that service workers will exert extra effort. While accommodating servers' work-status preferences may require more time for determining schedules, the potential payoff of more helping and voice should enhance service and customer satisfaction in the long run.

³¹ S.K. McGinnis and P.C. Morrow, "Job Attitudes among Full- and Part-time Employees," *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 36 (1990), pp. 82-96.

³² R.J. Bies, D.L. Shapiro, and L.L. Cummings, "Causal Accounts and Managing Organizational Conflicts: Is It Enough to Say It's Not My Fault?," *Communication Research*, Vol. 15 (1988), pp. 381-399.

Third, if managers want to encourage helping and voice behavior, they also should consider the workplace's organizational culture. Highly formal, bureaucratic firms may benefit by encouraging flexibility in customer interactions instead of requiring formally scripted, standard service techniques. When an organization's culture signals that employees are trusted (in this case, that they have latitude to make discretionary judgments to meet customer expectations), such employees are more likely to take an ownership attitude toward their work and go beyond minimum job requirements. Therefore, there is an increased likelihood that they will see themselves as organizational citizens and accept the responsibility for helping their co-workers and for making suggestions for improvements. For organizations that have a flexible and less-bureaucratic organizational culture, managers should look to their full-time employees when assisting co-workers (helping) or suggesting new ideas (voice) are key to high levels of customer service. In other words, managers can expect the greatest organizational citizenship behavior when the organization is less bureaucratic and when there are a large number of full-time employees, rather than part-time employees.

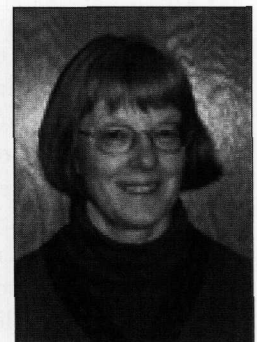
We acknowledge that changing the culture of an entire organization is difficult. Accordingly, managers may want to start by focusing on the culture of their immediate work group. Specifically, they should make it clear that cooperating with co-workers and suggesting improvements are components of customer service. Instead of dictating rules and standards to employees, managers should facilitate cooperation and flexibility. They should involve employees in decisions about procedural changes and listen to their suggestions for improvement. In addition, managers should encourage employees to be flexible in their customer-service processes with a focus on the end result of customer satisfaction. A less-bureaucratic approach to supervising employees should result in increased employee-citizenship behavior.

Finally, managers in service organizations should encourage all employees to make more suggestions for change. Given our finding that restaurant employees engage in low voice behav-

ior, managers and organizations are missing out on the benefits of employee suggestions for improvements and ideas that might increase competitive advantage. Employees are the backbone of the service industry; they create the service interaction with the customer, and thus hold a primary responsibility for helping to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Front-line service workers have a wealth of information regarding customer interactions and ideas for improvements and policy changes that could increase customer satisfaction. If employees do not speak up or if managers do not listen to employee ideas, business processes may stagnate and customers may choose to do business with a competitor who provides better and more progressive service.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that managers in the service industry would create more helping and voice behavior in their employees if they made three changes: (1) hire more full-time workers than part-timers, (2) accommodate employee work-status preferences, and (3) create less-standardized organizational and work-group cultures. By increasing employee-citizenship behavior, such as helping and voice, organizations will benefit from high-quality customer service that means increased customer satisfaction, greater customer retention levels, and improved competitive advantage. ■

A more-technical version of this article appeared in *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 2001, Vol. 22, pp. 517-536.



Christina L. Stamper, Ph.D. (photo on left), is an assistant professor at Haworth College of Business at Western Michigan University (christina.stamper@wmich.edu). **Linn Van Dyne, Ph.D.** (photo on right), is an associate professor at Eli Broad Graduate School of Management at Michigan State University (vandyne@msu.edu).