

# **Interactional Effect of Various Factors on Organizational Retaliatory Behaviors**

Yutaka Ueda

## **1. Introduction**

### **1-1. The Concept of Organizational Retaliatory Behavior**

Since two pioneering papers were published in the early 1980s, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has received considerable attention from organizational behavior (OB) researchers. Job satisfaction has been a fundamental antecedent of OCB since the earliest studies on this subject (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Satisfied individuals are considered to feel obliged to the organization that offers good treatment and subsequently perform extra-role contributive behaviors, such as OCB, toward it (Organ, 1988). Furthermore, various individual factors such as attitude, perception, and disposition have been considered antecedents of OCB (Organ et al., 2006).

Rather than focusing on contributive behaviors to the organization, some researchers pay attention to employee behaviors that hinder the organization's effectiveness. Different researchers have considered various concepts to represent these employees' negative behaviors toward the organization, such as anti-social behavior (Aquino & Douglas, 2003), workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), and counterproductive work behavior (Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczko, 2009).

Organizational retaliatory behavior (ORB) was a concept initially proposed by Skarlicki and Folger (1997). They defined ORB as "adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employer" (p.434). Jones (2009) indicated that "(d)espite conceptual differences among these constructs, they are measured in largely the same way" (p.526). However, ORB differs from other concepts in that it acts as a response to dissatisfactory or unfair treatment from the organization. For example, some individuals might feign illness to take a vacation or steal small goods owned by the organization or a coworker regardless of whether they are satisfied with the organization. These behaviors are not classified as ORB. ORB is conceptually

limited to behaviors performed as “retaliation” against the organization.

Skarlicki and Folger (1997) referred to referent cognitions theory (Folger, 1987, 1993) as the theoretical basis for dealing with an individual’s retaliation against the organization. According to them, this theory suggests that “people refer to cognitive standards for evaluating certain levels of treatment or rewards based on past events, referent others, and implicit and explicit promises” (p.435). This cognitive standard determines the degree to which individuals feel dissatisfied and retaliate against the organization in response to their dissatisfaction. Although Skarlicki and Folger (1997) emphasized retaliation as a response to unfair treatment by the organization, retaliation could occur depending on dissatisfaction with various situations in and around the organization, even if they do not recognize the organization’s injustice treatment.

As can be seen from these descriptions, ORB is regarded as behavior aimed at “getting even” with the organization. However, it should be noted that most ORBs are not overt. As Skarlicki and Folger (1997) also described, every individual is “less powerful than the source of the perceived injustice (e.g., the boss or the corporation),” and most of their ORBs are “subtle and covert forms of retaliation that are not as dramatic but still might have adverse consequences for an organization’s effective functioning” (p.434). For example, an individual might take home a cheap ballpoint pen from an organization. A one-breakage ballpoint pen is of little value for the organization and even the employee who steals it. Even so, individuals sometimes receive consolation in getting such a small pen.

On the other hand, perceived excessive benefits from the organization serve as a cue to perform OCB (Organ, 1988). In other words, individuals’ perception of organizational injustice affects their OCB toward the organization. Therefore, from the standpoint of organizational justice, ORB is in opposition to OCB. This idea is consistent with that of Skarlicki and Folger (1997), who described “the withdrawal of citizenship behaviors” as a more covert form of retaliation (p.434).

Although the idea of organizational justice or equity appropriately serves as the reason for performing OCB, as described above, OCB research has examined the effect of various attitudinal factors on OCB. ORB can also be considered to stem from dissatisfaction arising from unfair treatment by the organization. The range of organizational justice is extensive. For example, poor human relations in the workplace are regarded as one of the shortcomings of interactional justice. An unfavorable work

environment is considered to neglect the distributive justice of the organization. Therefore, even if ORB has been theoretically discussed according to organizational justice theory, it is considered to be affected by various attitudinal factors, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

This study aimed to empirically examine whether various attitudinal factors, which have been confirmed as antecedents of OCB, also influence ORB. Each study described in the following sections is based on the shared data described below. One of the significant features of this study is that each study considered the main effect of these factors and the interactional effect of two factors on ORB.

### **1-2. Data Collection Method**

The author contracted Macromill Corp. to collect data on ORB and other variables from working persons via the Internet. The corporation has registered people who can be surveyed at the company's request. Data were collected in February 2021. A total of 416 workers participated in this study. As the author asked the company to collect data equally from male and female workers, there were an equal number of male and female respondents, 213 each. Their ages ranged from 20 to 60 years, with an average age of 39.98. About 46% were unmarried and about 54% were married. While the author and company did not specify the respondents' nationality, most respondents were thought to be Japanese because all the questionnaire items were presented to them in Japanese.

### **1-3. Whole Structure of The Paper**

Utilizing the above data, the effect of two factors on ORB was empirically examined in this study. Specifically, the effect of a different combination of two factors on ORB will be dealt with in each chapter as follows.

#### Role ambiguity and job satisfaction (Chapter 2)

This study examined whether role ambiguity moderates the negative effect of job satisfaction on ORB. It reveals a positive effect of role ambiguity on ORB and a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and ORB. The negative effect of job satisfaction on ORB was significant only when role ambiguity was high.

#### Role overload and job satisfaction (Chapter 3)

This study examined whether role overload affects ORB. Role overload also has a

moderating effect on the job satisfaction and ORB relationship, which means that a significantly negative impact of job satisfaction is only found when role overload is low.

#### Perceived person-job fit and job satisfaction (Chapter 4)

This study examined the interactional effect of job satisfaction and perceived person-job fit (PJF) on ORB. PJF is an individual's perception of his or her aptitude or skills for his or her job. It reveals that job satisfaction negatively influences ORB when PJF is high. However, when PJF is low, job satisfaction unexpectedly positively affects ORB. These results indicate that more ORB is performed when one job-related factor is high and the other is low.

#### Organizational commitment and career commitment (Chapter 5)

This study empirically examined the interactional effects of organizational and career commitment on ORB. The results revealed that only career commitment significantly affected ORB when both commitment variables were entered into the regression. Contrary to our hypothesis, a positive effect of organizational commitment on ORB was observed when career commitment was low.

#### General Overview and Conclusion (Chapter 6)

The final chapter provides an overview and conclusion.

## **2. The Effect of Role Ambiguity and Job Satisfaction<sup>1</sup>**

### **2-1. Effect of Role Ambiguity**

Organizational retaliatory behavior (ORB) is an action performed in response to organizational injustice. Individuals' attitudes toward their jobs and the organization are critical factors that affect ORB. In a previous study, the author found that job satisfaction negatively affects ORB (Ueda, 2021). This study examined whether the effect of job satisfaction on ORB is moderated by role ambiguity.

A role is a set of expectations regarding individuals' behavior in an organization. A clear definition of one's role is necessary and desirable for individuals within the organization, as it helps them recognize what they should do and what they expect from coworkers. In contrast, role ambiguity "occurs when behavioral expectations associated

---

<sup>1</sup> An earlier version of this chapter was introduced as "Moderating Effect of Role Ambiguity on the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Retaliatory Behaviors" Discussion Paper Series, No. 166, Seikei University, March 2022.

with a role are vague, imprecise, or unclear to a role occupant” (Carter & Harper, 2016, p. 1).

Role ambiguity combined with role conflict and overload is often considered a cause of role stress. Therefore, these three variables were treated as proxy variables for role stress (Peterson et al., 1995). Role stress negatively affects working individuals’ motivation to engage in OCB. Contrary to Organ’s (1988) original concept of OCB, OCB is sometimes compulsorily performed within an organization (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006, 2007). In such cases, compulsory OCB may be a source of stress. However, the role stress caused by role ambiguity negatively affects OCB.

Discontent and stress caused by high role ambiguity might induce ORB, as ORB is sometimes performed to relieve stress. If so, role ambiguity is considered to positively affect ORB.

Furthermore, role ambiguity affects job satisfaction. Although a negative correlation between role ambiguity and job satisfaction is expected, individuals are satisfied with many factors other than role characteristics. They sometimes have high job satisfaction with high role ambiguity, or low satisfaction with low role ambiguity. In the case of low role ambiguity, individuals become aware of their capabilities and effectiveness within the organization. If satisfied, they are less likely to choose behaviors that negate the values of the organization and themselves. Conversely, when role ambiguity is high, individuals do not understand their value and position in the organization. They do not know the relationship between the organization and themselves. Even if their job satisfaction is high, they are not considered to have a lower ORB. In other words, role ambiguity moderates the effect of job satisfaction on ORB.

Based on the above argument, the following hypotheses can be proposed.

H1. Role ambiguity negatively affects ORB.

H2. Role ambiguity moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and ORB. Specifically, the negative effect of job satisfaction on ORB is weaker when role ambiguity is low than when it is high.

## 2-2. Method

### *Participants*

Data described in Section 1-3 were utilized.

### *Measures*

Job satisfaction. Brayfield and Rothe (1951) developed 18 items to measure overall job satisfaction, and a six-item version of the same was created by Agho, Price, and Mueller (1992). Job satisfaction was measured as the mean response to Agho et al.'s (1992) six-item version on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.826 in this study.

Role ambiguity. Peterson et al. (1995) regarded role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload as components of role stress, and investigated the impact of cultural factors on these elements. Subsequently, the mean of the five-item scale for role ambiguity was calculated. All the scales ranged from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). The Cronbach's alpha for role ambiguity was 0.781, implying that both met the criteria for internal reliability ( $> 0.7$ ).

Organizational retaliatory behavior. A 17-item ORB scale was developed by Skarlicki and Folger (1997). However, only eight were utilized to measure ORB in this study, as, from a Japanese standpoint, some items were inappropriate for measuring ORB. This is because revealing certain transgressions (such as "on purpose, damaged equipment or work process" or "disobeyed a supervisor's instructions") may render respondents liable to criminal prosecution or subject to disciplinary action. Cronbach's alpha for the remaining eight items was 0.786.

Gender and age. Gender (male =1, female =2) and age (real) were used as control variables.

**2-3. Result**

*Basic Statistics and Intercorrelations among Variables*

**Table 2-1 Basic Statistics and Intercorrelations of Variables**

variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	Gender	Age	JS	RA	ORB
Gender	1.500	0.501	—				
Age	39.976	10.886	-0.028	—			
Job Satisfaction (JS)	3.037	0.834	0.103*	0.118*	(0.826)		
Role Ambiguity (RA)	2.635	0.762	0.008	-0.088	-0.580**	(0.781)	
ORB	2.211	0.666	-.162**	-0.080	-0.253**	0.291**	(0.786)

N = 416, \*\* : p < 0.001, \* : p < 0.05

Table 2-1 shows the basic statistics and intercorrelations for the variables. Cronbach’s alphas of the variables are placed diagonally in the table. According to the results of the correlation analysis, gender has a significantly negative correlation with ORB ( $\gamma = -0.162$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), which means that female employees tend to engage in fewer ORBs than their male counterparts. There was no significant correlation between age and ORB ( $\gamma = -0.080$ , n.s.). As expected, ORBs were significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction ( $\gamma = -0.253$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and significantly positively correlated with role ambiguity ( $\gamma = 0.291$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Assuming a causal relationship between these variables, individuals’ ORB increases when they have low job satisfaction or when their roles are highly ambiguous.

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis***Table 2-2 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

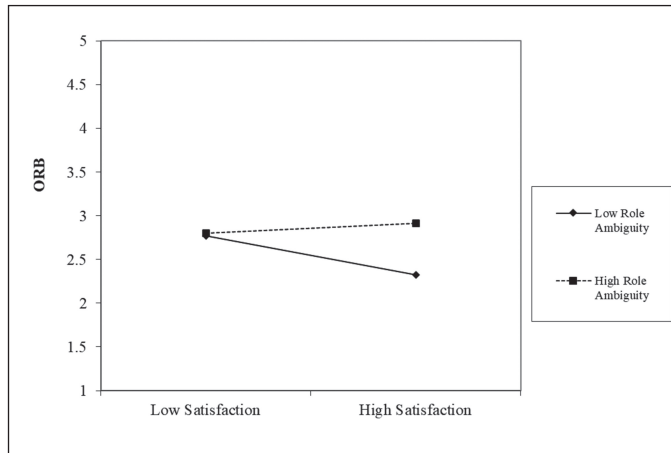
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
	B	Std. Error	Beta					
1 (Constant)	2.745	0.158			17.355	<0.001		
Gender	-0.219	0.064	-0.164		-3.394	0.001	7.119**	0.029
Age	-0.005	0.003	-0.084		-1.743	0.082		
2 (Constant)	2.649	0.153			17.293	<0.001		
Gender	-0.206	0.062	-0.155		-3.322	0.001		
Age	-0.003	0.003	-0.052		-1.124	0.262	14.155**	0.133
Job Satisfaction (JS)	-0.077	0.046	-0.097		-1.686	0.093		
Role Ambiguity (RA)	0.202	0.050	0.231		4.059	<0.001		
3 (Constant)	2.705	0.148			18.274	<0.001		
Gender	-0.217	0.060	-0.163		-3.624	<0.001		
Age	-0.002	0.003	-0.036		-0.794	0.428	18.595**	0.175
Job Satisfaction (JS)	-0.100	0.044	-0.125		-2.241	0.026		
Role Ambiguity (RA)	0.205	0.048	0.235		4.279	<0.001		
JS × RA	0.219	0.039	0.255		5.663	<0.001		

Dependent Variable: ORB

Table 2-2 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis. In this analysis, gender and age were entered first, followed by job satisfaction and role ambiguity. Finally, the products of job satisfaction and role ambiguity were entered to examine their interactional effects. As expected from the results of the correlation analysis, gender had a significantly negative impact on ORB in the first step. The negative effect of age on ORB was marginally significant ( $\beta = -0.084$ ,  $p = 0.082$ ). In the second step, ORB was negatively affected by job satisfaction ( $\beta = -0.097$ ,  $p = 0.093$ ) and positively affected by role ambiguity ( $\beta = -0.084$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), which was also expected. However, the significance of the impact of job satisfaction was not sufficiently low. Finally, a significant positive impact was observed on the interaction between job satisfaction and role ambiguity ( $\beta = 0.255$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Although the effect of job satisfaction on ORB is expected to be canceled when role ambiguity is high and to increase when it is low, further examination through a simple slope analysis is necessary.



*Simple Slope Analysis*



**Figure 2-1 Result of Simple Slope Analysis**

Figure 2-1 depicts the results of simple slope analysis. Based on a conventional idea regarding this analysis, means  $\pm$  one standard deviation was adopted as the criterion for the high and low values of the variables. As shown in this figure, in the case of low role ambiguity, ORB is lowered with enhanced job satisfaction (gradient of slope:  $-0.267$ , t-value:  $-4.810$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). By contrast, when role ambiguity was high, the impact of job satisfaction on ORB was rendered insignificant (gradient of slope =  $0.068$ , t-value =  $1.324$ ,  $p = 0.186$ ). It was hypothesized that the effect of job satisfaction would be stronger when role ambiguity is low than when it is high. Although the effect of job satisfaction is no longer significant with high role ambiguity, this result seems to support our hypothesis.

**2-4. Discussion and Conclusion**

Based on past findings, in which job satisfaction negatively influences ORB, this study further specifies the conditions under which this impact is actually shown. Naturally, organizations should introduce various personnel policies that satisfy working persons to minimize individuals' ORB as much as possible. However, this was insufficient. This study revealed that even satisfied individuals perform ORBs, depending on their role ambiguity. Even if they are satisfied with various organizational personnel policies but stressed by the uncertainty of their role within the organization,

they are induced to perform ORB as a kind of tit-for-tat behavior toward their situation. The organization must fully consider enhancing job satisfaction and role clarity.

Although this study demonstrates the interactional effects of job satisfaction and role ambiguity, it has some limitations. It assumes that role ambiguity leads to high stress, which increases ORB as the reason for the positive effect of role ambiguity on ORB. However, this is only an inference, and there are no data on employee stress levels. Future studies should empirically investigate the mediating role of stress in the relationship between role ambiguity and ORB by collecting more appropriate data. The second limitation pertains to the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. This study analyzed the interactional effects of these two variables. However, role ambiguity means that individuals do not understand their roles or jobs, and the meaning of job satisfaction is not strictly the same depending on role ambiguity. If role ambiguity is low, employees are satisfied with the jobs they understand well. However, in the case of high role ambiguity, they must judge whether they are satisfied with such ambiguous jobs or with organization-level variables, such as an organizational policy that provides them with an ambiguous job. Therefore, along this line of consideration, it might be simplistic to tackle the interactional effect of job satisfaction and role ambiguity by calculating the product of the two variables and entering it into the equation.

Despite these limitations, this study has academic significance in that it empirically reveals the effect of role ambiguity on ORB, which has not been examined previously. Researchers are expected to pursue further studies on ORB to overcome the limitations mentioned above.

### **3. The Effect of Role Overload and Job Satisfaction**

#### **3-1. The Differences between OCB and ORB**

This study focuses on the effect of role overload on organizational retaliatory behavior (ORB). Specifically, it considers that role overload could enhance job stress, which is one of the sources of ORB. The author's previous study revealed that job satisfaction negatively affects ORB (Ueda, 2021). However, this study examines whether role overload has a moderating effect on this relationship using data collected differently from the previous one. This study assumes that the negative effect of job satisfaction on

ORB is stronger when role overload is higher than when it is low.

Individuals pursue OCB because they are willing to reciprocate various benefits from the organization, not by task performance for which they are given little discretion, but by discretionary extra-role contributive behaviors toward the organization (Organ, 1977, 1988).

According to Organ's (1988) definition, OCB is an individual's voluntarily performed behavior, even if nobody notices it. These behaviors are theoretically unrewarded. However, they are often rewarded or used as information for promotion judgments (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993). Sometimes, employees perform OCBs to create a good impression of themselves to those who see them (Bolino, 1999). Because these behaviors are never bad for these individuals, few do not want others to see their good behaviors. Further, even excessive OCB is tolerable unless it inhibits the fulfillment of a formal duty.

In contrast, ORB researchers assert that individuals retaliate by engaging in minor destructive behaviors in response to the organization's unfair treatment. Unlike OCB, individuals need to consciously retaliate against the organization. No matter how conscious they are of the organization's unfair treatment, engaging in explicit retaliation would be subject to disciplinary penalties. For example, a typical ORB is when individuals take home a cheap ballpoint pen that the organization supplies, without permission. Obtaining such an inexpensive pen is meaningless for these individuals. Although this behavior is a violation of rules in the organization, the organization rarely punishes individuals only for the action. However, such behavior might provide spiritual comfort for individuals frustrated by the organization's poor treatment. Most ORBs should be performed as discreet behaviors that are not subject to disciplinary action, even if they are caught. Although it would serve as adequate consolation, individuals never steal an expensive PC supplied by the organization because they might be fired if it is brought to light. ORB is performed not to damage the organization but to obtain psychological consolation for organizational frustration.

### **3-2. Effect of Role Overload**

Job satisfaction is one of the essential factors that affect organizational behavior. Researchers in the field of organizational behavior (OB) have also paid attention to job satisfaction as the primary factor affecting OCB. The author's previous study examined

whether job satisfaction influences ORB and found a significantly negative impact of job satisfaction on ORB (Ueda, 2021). This result was expected because dissatisfied employees perform ORB as a tit-for-tat behavior.

Role overload often becomes one of the severe problems associated with organizational personnel management. Role overload increases workers' physical and psychological fatigue and harms them and their organization. Individuals who become physically and psychologically exhausted because of role overload need an outlet to vent their frustrations. However, it is not always realistic to complain about their condition directly to a manager or explicitly act contrary to the organization's rules. Thus, they come to terms with their current condition by engaging in ORB without being seen by their supervisor or coworkers. The following hypothesis can be proposed regarding the impact of role overload on ORB.

H1: Role overload will positively influence ORB.

Furthermore, role overload is considered to affect ORB interactively with other factors. Specifically, we examined the relationship between role overload and job satisfaction. As previously described, job satisfaction negatively affects ORB. However, this effect of job satisfaction on reducing ORB is considered limited to situations in which individuals have room to consider the organization and coworkers around them. Individuals are vulnerable to the temptation to perform small destructive behaviors when they feel stressed owing to the high burden of role overload. Thus, the impact of job satisfaction is considered weaker in such situations. This argument is proposed in the following hypothesis.

H2: Role overload moderates the effect of job satisfaction on ORB. Specifically, the negative impact of job satisfaction on ORB is weaker when role overload is high than when it is low.

### **3-3. Method**

#### *Participants*

Data described in Section 1-3 were utilized.

#### *Measures*

Role overload. Peterson et al. (1995) regarded role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload as component elements of role stress, and investigated the impact of these

elements on cultural factors. Subsequently, the mean of the responses on the five-item scale for role overload was utilized. The scale ranged from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). Cronbach’s alpha for role overload was 0.846.

Job satisfaction, organizational retaliatory behavior, gender, and age were measured using the method described in Section 2-2.

### 3-4. Result

#### Basic Statistics and Intercorrelations of Variables

**Table 3-1 Basis Statistics and Intercorrelations of Variables**

variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	Gender	Age	JS	RO	ORB
Gender	1.500	0.501	—				
Age	39.976	10.886	-0.028	—			
Job Satisfaction (JS)	3.037	0.834	0.103*	0.118*	(0.826)		
Role Overload (RO)	2.904	0.886	-0.047	-0.021	-0.273**	(0.846)	
ORB	2.211	0.666	-0.162**	-0.080	-0.253**	0.167**	(0.786)

n = 416, \*\*: p < 0.01, \*: p < 0.05

Table 3-1 shows means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the variables. The values of Cronbach’s alpha are displayed on the diagonal line.

ORB had a significantly negative correlation with job satisfaction ( $\gamma = -0.253, p < 0.01$ ) and a significantly positive correlation with role overload ( $\gamma = 0.167, p < 0.01$ ). It may be assumed that job satisfaction has a negative impact, and role overload positively affects ORB, but not vice versa.

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis***Table 3-2 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

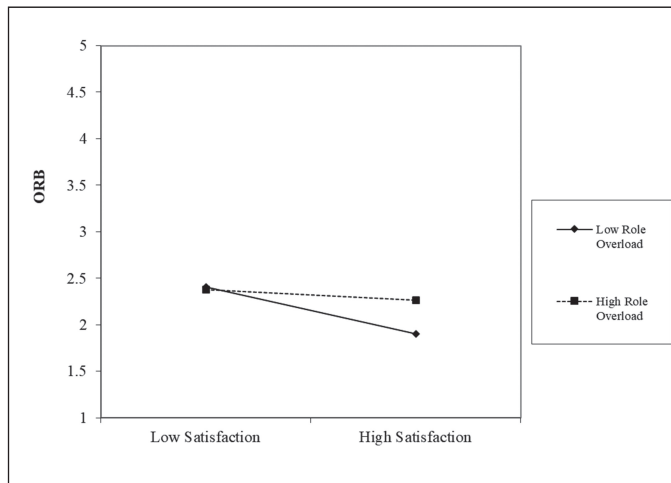
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig.	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
	B	Std. Error	Beta					
1 (Constant)	2.745	0.158			17.355	<0.001		
Gender	-0.219	0.064	-0.164		-3.394	0.001	7.119**	0.029
Age	-0.005	0.003	-0.084		-1.743	0.082		
2 (Constant)	2.626	0.155			16.914	<0.001		
Gender	-0.183	0.063	-0.138		-2.915	0.004		
Age	-0.004	0.003	-0.057		-1.214	0.225	10.892**	0.087
Job Satisfaction (JS)	-0.163	0.039	-0.204		-4.132	<0.001		
Role Overload (RO)	0.078	0.037	0.104		2.131	0.034		
3 (Constant)	2.651	0.153			17.350	<0.001		
Gender	-0.198	0.062	-0.149		-3.194	0.002		
Age	-0.003	0.003	-0.048		-1.021	0.308	12.018**	0.117
Job Satisfaction (JS)	-0.169	0.039	-0.212		-4.371	<0.001		
Role Overload (RO)	0.094	0.036	0.125		2.587	0.010		
JS×RO	0.137	0.035	0.181		3.878	<0.001		

a. Dependent Variable: ORB

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis using ORB as the dependent variable are shown in Table 3-2. In this analysis, two controlling variables were entered into the regression equation in the first step. Job satisfaction as an independent variable and role overload as a moderator were entered in the next step. Finally, the product of job satisfaction and role overload was entered into the equation to check the interactional effect of these two variables.

As can be imagined from the correlational analysis above, job satisfaction had a negative impact ( $\beta = -0.204$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and role overload positively affected ORB ( $\beta = 0.104$ ,  $p < 0.034$ ) in the second step, as expected. The effect of job satisfaction on ORB has already been observed in our previous study using different data (Ueda, 2021). Thus, it can be said that this is a relatively consistent result. The positive effect of role overload on ORB is a novel finding of this study. This result implies that ORB is used as an outlet for stress situations stemming from a high level of role overload. This result supports H1.

Finally, the interaction between the two variables had a significantly positive impact on ORB ( $\beta = 0.181, p < 0.001$ ). Combined with the signs of the coefficients of job satisfaction and role overload, the positive sign of this coefficient means that the effect of one variable is more substantial when the other variable is low than when it is high. However, the actual relationship between these two variables should be analyzed using simple slope analysis.



**Figure 3-1 Results of Simple Slope Analysis**

*Simple Slope Analysis*

Finally, a simple slope analysis was conducted to examine the moderating effect of role overload on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. As a matter of convention, means  $\pm$  one standard deviation was adopted as the criterion of high or low values of an independent variable and a moderator.

The results of this analysis are presented in Figure 3-1. According to this analysis, when role overload was low, the effect of job satisfaction on ORB was  $-0.068$  ( $t = -5.927, p < 0.001$ ), indicating that job satisfaction had a significantly negative impact on ORB. By contrast, when role overload is high, its effect is  $-0.302$  ( $t = -1.400, p = 0.162$ ), which means we cannot conclude that job satisfaction has an effect on ORB. This result is in accordance with H2.

### 3-5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study focuses on ORB as a contrapositive concept of OCB and empirically examines the effect of role overload on ORB. Role overload was found to positively affect ORB, and have a moderating impact on the negative effect of job satisfaction on ORB. The latter suggests that establishing an organization's personnel policies to enhance job satisfaction and inhibit role overload is necessary.

Both academic researchers and practitioners have considered job satisfaction desirable for employees and organizations. Based on this premise, various personnel policies have been implemented in the organization. For example, job enlargement and enrichment are the most typical policies introduced in several organizations. Policies aimed at job enlargement and enrichment provide employees with various jobs or jobs with decision-making authority regarding how to perform the jobs, based on the idea that employees tend to dislike monotonous jobs or want to perform their job by themselves. Although these policies are effective in many cases, they may carry a significant risk of increasing role overload. Suppose that the implementation of these policies enhances employees' job satisfaction and role overload. In that case, they might encourage employees to secretly perform minor deviant acts, which seriously affect the organization if they are accumulated.

Role overload is not a characteristic of jobs given to employees and considerably depends on how these employees perceive it. It is difficult or impossible to judge how many jobs would induce too much role overload, because they are perceived differently depending on the personality and skills of employees. An organization should carefully consider these policies by considering each employee to increase their job satisfaction without incurring role overload.

Despite its contribution to OB research, this study had several limitations. The first concerns data collection. Even though the anonymity of respondents was guaranteed, it is difficult for researchers to collect data regarding the employees' transgressions because no person wants to unmask themselves as villains, and they tend to avoid expressing their destructive behaviors. Although each ORB is minor, a direct affirmative response to the questionnaire regarding ORB might lead to the loss of a spiritually healthy self. Appropriately collecting data is one of the most severe problems in ORB research. The second limitation concerns the causal relationship between job overload and ORB. It is challenging to directly associate role overload with ORB. Although we



assumed a mediating effect of job stress on this relationship, this study did not trace the role of job stress. Future studies should examine the mediating effect of job stress or other processes by which role overload leads to ORB.

As mentioned initially, ORB has not received sufficient attention from researchers in OB despite its importance. Although this study has some limitations, as described above, it can serve as a catalyst for researchers to pay attention to this critical aspect of employee behavior.

#### **4. Perceived Person-Job Fit and Job Satisfaction**

##### **4-1. Perceived Person-Job Fit**

Previously, Ueda (2021) found that ORB was negatively affected by various types of job satisfaction. However, it is unclear whether job satisfaction affects ORB in any condition. For example, although it is not a study on ORB, Ueda (2022a) revealed that perceived person-job fit (PJF) moderated the effect of job satisfaction on OCB. While job satisfaction is an attitudinal factor representing affective attachment to the job, PJF is an individual's perception of the fit of their aptitude and ability to do their job. Although a high correlation is usually expected between job satisfaction and PJF, it is conceptually different. According to the empirical results of Ueda (2022a), when PJF is high and individuals are confident in their ability to do their job, they perform OCB more actively in return for the benefits that the organization provides them. However, in the case of low PJF, individuals are unsure about their performance skills and tend to hesitate to exhibit OCB, even if they feel high satisfaction with their job.

This study empirically examined the interactional effects of job satisfaction and PJF on ORB. Because ORB is the opposite of OCB, PJF and its interaction with job satisfaction are considered predictors of ORB.

PJF was first reported by Xie and Johns (1995). Their study examined the moderating effect of PJF on the U-shaped relationship between job scope and stress. They considered PJF a subjective indicator of person-environment fit and defined it as "the job holder's perceptions of the fit between job demands and his or her ability" (p.1292). They found that PJF negatively affects exhaustion and anxiety.

As described above, PJF is a job-related factor similar to job satisfaction; the former is a perceptual factor, while the latter is an attitudinal factor. Although these two factors

are expected to have a relatively high positive correlation, it is not always so. Sometimes, individuals are proud of their high job skills while being dissatisfied with coworkers and salaries. Alternatively, although they are satisfied with their current workplace, they may be distressed by their low level of job skills. These discrepancies between attitudinal and perceptual factors may leave individuals with a feeling of self-contradiction and stress.

#### 4-2. Hypotheses

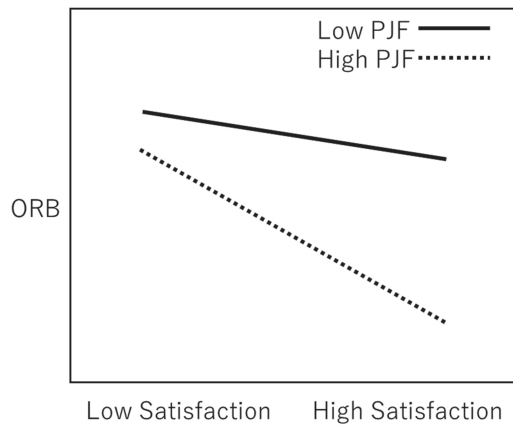
A previous study (Ueda, 2022a) revealed that PJF positively affects OCB and moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. According to this study, job satisfaction had a significantly positive effect on OCB when PJF was high. No significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB was observed in employees with low PJF. It can be interpreted that regardless of how highly individuals are satisfied with their job, they do not understand what contributes to the organization and thus have low motivation to perform OCB if they have low PJF.

By contrast, this study deals with ORB. First, individuals will feel dissatisfied with the organization if their roles do not match their ability and aptitude. In this case, a positive correlation between job satisfaction and PJF would be observed. Furthermore, PJF is related to pride in working correctly. If employees have high PJF, they might resist the temptation to perform ORB secretly. Then, PJF is considered to negatively affect ORB.

Furthermore, the impact of job satisfaction differs depending on the level of PJF. Employees feel highly stressed and dissatisfied if they have low PJF because they consider that the organization refuses to give them appropriate jobs. Even if they are satisfied with their jobs but not with their organizations, such high job satisfaction will affect ORB less. Specifically, the negative impact of job satisfaction on ORB is weaker when PJF is low than when it is high. This assumption is illustrated in Figure 4-1. In this figure, the two lines show the effect of job satisfaction on ORB, depending on PJF. The line is placed higher, but its gradient is lower when PJF is lower than when it is high. The following hypotheses can be proposed:

H1: PJF will have a negative impact on ORB.

H2: PJF will moderate the negative impact of job satisfaction on ORB. Specifically, the impact of job satisfaction on ORB will be weaker when PJF is low than when it is high.



**Figure 4-1 Hypothesis on Impact of Two Factors on ORB**

### 4-3. Method

#### *Participants*

Data described in Section 1-3 were utilized.

#### *Measures*

Perceived ability-job fit. Following Xie (1996), perceived ability-job fit was measured as the mean of the responses to a five-item scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). Cronbach's alpha for the scale in this study was 0.744.

Job satisfaction, organizational retaliatory behavior, gender, and age were measured using the method described in Section 2-2.

#### 4-4. Result

##### *Basic Statistics and Intercorrelations*

**Table 4-1 Basis Statistics and Intercorrelations of Variables**

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation						
			gender	age	JS	PJF	ORB	
Gender	1.500	0.501	—					
Age	39.976	10.886	-0.028	—				
Job Satisfaction (JS)	3.037	0.834	0.103*	0.118*	(0.826)			
Perceived Person-Job Fitness (PJF)	3.280	0.735	0.049	0.107*	0.699**	(0.744)		
ORB	2.211	0.666	-0.162**	-0.080	-0.253**	-0.334**	(0.786)	

N = 416, \*\* : p < 0.01, \* : p < 0.05

As shown in Table 4-1, the correlation between job satisfaction and PJF is very high, as expected. ORB has a significantly negative correlation with job satisfaction ( $\gamma = -0.253$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and PJF ( $\gamma = -0.334$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), which is also expected from our hypothesis.

##### *Hierarchical Regression Analysis*

**Table 4-2 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

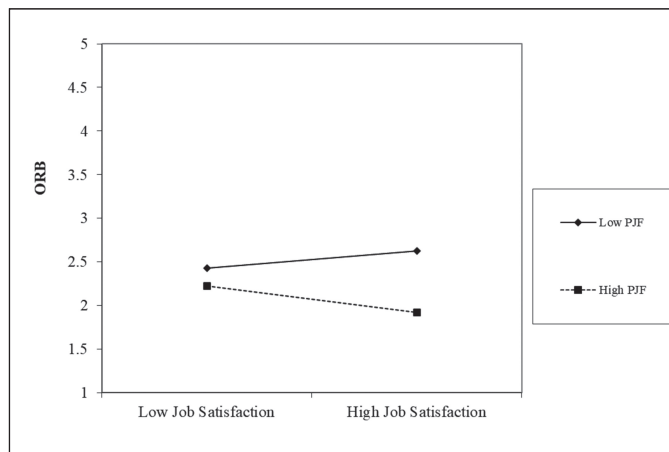
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
	B	Std. Error	Beta				
1 (Constant)	2.745	0.158		17.355	<0.001	7.119**	0.029
Gender	-0.219	0.064	-0.164	-3.394	0.001		
Age	-0.005	0.003	-0.084	-1.743	0.082		
2 (Constant)	2.623	0.152		17.279	<0.001	16.118**	0.127
Gender	-0.195	0.061	-0.146	-3.173	0.002		
Age	-0.003	0.003	-0.049	-1.058	0.290		
Job Satisfaction (JS)	-0.011	0.052	-0.014	-0.220	0.826		
Perceived Job Fitness (PJF)	-0.283	0.058	-0.312	-4.863	<0.001		
3 (Constant)	2.670	0.148		18.100	<0.001	19.073**	0.179
Gender	-0.197	0.060	-0.148	-3.308	0.001		
Age	-0.002	0.003	-0.031	-0.683	0.495		
Job Satisfaction (JS)	-0.014	0.050	-0.017	-0.275	0.784		
Perceived Job Fitness (PJF)	-0.315	0.057	-0.347	-5.546	<0.001		
JS×PJF	-0.207	0.040	-0.234	-5.181	<0.001		

a. Dependent Variable: ORB

Next, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the main and interactional effects of job satisfaction and PJF on ORB. Gender and age were entered into the equation in the first step, and two job-related factors were added in the second step. Finally, the results of job satisfaction and PJF were included.

Table 4-2 shows that although job satisfaction has a significantly negative correlation with ORB, it has no significant effect on ORB when simultaneously entering PJF as another explanatory variable in the second step ( $\beta = -0.014$ , n.s.). However, the VFI is lower than 2.0, which means an effect of multicollinearity on this result may be disregarded. In the third step, the interaction between job satisfaction and PJF is significantly negative ( $\beta = -0.234$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This negative coefficient is also as expected from our hypothesis.

*Simple Slope Analysis*



**Figure 4-2 Simple Slope Analysis**

Finally, a simple slope analysis was conducted to confirm whether PJF moderated the effect of job satisfaction on ORB. According to the convention, means  $\pm$  one standard deviation was adopted as the high and low criteria for each variable.

Figure 4-2 depicts this moderating effect. This figure shows that more ORBs are observed when PJF is low than when it is high. This result was as expected due to the significant positive effect of PJF on ORB (Table 4-2). More importantly, job satisfaction had a significant negative effect on ORB when PJF was high (gradient of slope was

-0.185,  $t = -3.160$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ), whereas its effect on ORB was significantly *positive* when PJF was low (gradient of slope was 0.121,  $t = 2.081$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). This is an unexpected result. The probable cause of this finding is discussed in the next section.

#### 4-5. Discussion and Conclusion

According to the results of the hierarchical regression analysis, with job satisfaction and PJF as exploratory variables, the effect of job satisfaction on ORB was not significant. However, when the simple slope analysis considered high and low PJF situations separately, the effect of job satisfaction was significant in both cases: a negative effect when PJF was high and a positive impact when it was low.

Job satisfaction initially had a negative correlation with ORB. Considering PJF as a moderator in this relationship, the negative impact of job satisfaction on ORB in the case of high PJF was as expected. However, job satisfaction positively affected ORB when PJF was low. This result is unexpected.

Researchers have found that self-efficacy is positively related to job satisfaction. Self-efficacy is associated with PJF, and PJF is also expected to be positively correlated with job satisfaction. However, individuals with low PJF and high job satisfaction were placed under a self-contradictory condition. There are two probable reasons why job satisfaction positively affected ORB in this situation.

One possible reason is that when individuals like their job but recognize that they lack the ability to perform it, they feel highly stressed. This highly stressful condition caused by a feeling of self-contradiction is considered to trigger ORB.

The other possible reason is that ORB might positively affect job satisfaction, rather than job satisfaction influencing ORB. Individuals may relieve their stress by performing minor ORBs. However, the validity of this idea should be carefully examined because it leads to the assumption that job-satisfied employees with low self-efficacy might engage in wrongful behavior behind the scenes.

Individuals with high PJF and low job satisfaction also had a self-contradictory condition. However, they have great pride in executing their jobs, which might inhibit ORB.

However, these explanations are based only on inference and not on empirical analyses. Future studies should reveal the complicated interactional effects of the two job-related factors on ORB. In past research on organizational behavior, individuals'

high job satisfaction unconditionally had a desirable effect on them and the organization. This study's finding of a positive relationship between job satisfaction and ORB under some conditions, such as low PJF, is essential for future research.

## **5. The Effect of Career Commitment and Organizational Commitment**

### **5-1. Introduction**

Researchers have found that various attitudinal factors positively or negatively affect OCB. The earliest studies on OCB focused on the effect of job satisfaction on OCB among attitudinal factors (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and organizational commitment has also been considered an antecedent of OCB (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006 for a review).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment comprises affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective organizational commitment is an emotional or psychological attachment to an organization. Although the organization is a crucial entity for most employees, it is not the only target to which they feel a psychological attachment. Affective attachment to a career is career commitment. The organization holds a crucial position in their careers, and career commitment is closely related to organizational commitment. Career commitment is an entirely different attitudinal factor from organizational commitment because individuals can consider their career without a relationship with a specific organization if they attempt to do so. Moreover, the traditional lifetime employment system appears to have already been disrupted in the Japanese labor market. Thus, it is necessary to address the effect of career commitment, apart from organizational commitment, on individuals' behavior.

The author empirically examined the effect of organizational and career commitment on OCB and found a moderating effect of career commitment on the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB (Ueda, 2022c). Specifically, a significant positive effect of organizational commitment on OCB was observed when career commitment was high. By contrast, this effect became insignificant when career commitment was low.

In contrast to OCB, ORB has received less attention from researchers, despite its severe effect on the organization if accumulated for a long time. This study empirically

examines the effects of organizational and career commitment on ORB. Even if ORB is considered an opposite concept of OCB, it may not be the reason for performing ORB. Therefore, we must investigate and consider their effect on ORB separately from that on OCB.

## **5-2. Effect of Organizational and Career Commitment on ORB**

The author examined the effect of various kinds of job satisfaction on ORB and found that the effects on ORB were different depending on what individuals were satisfied with (Ueda, 2021). While satisfaction with work itself, supervisors, and coworkers negatively affected ORB, satisfaction with pay did not significantly influence ORB (Ueda, 2021).

Organizational commitment has received much attention as an antecedent of OCB, similar to job satisfaction. If ORB is considered in contrast to OCB, low affective organizational commitment is expected to lead to high ORB. However, because ORB is a type of criminal behavior, individuals with low affective organizational commitment do not always perform such behaviors. This type of behavior is related to individuals' vocational ethics. Career commitment is considered one such vocational ethic.

Career commitment is simply defined as "the willingness or desire of employees to keep their jobs and embodies the development of personal career goals as well as identification with and involvement in those goals" (Zhang, Wu, Miao, Yan, & Peng, 2014, p.811). By referring to Vandenberghe and Ok (2013), Arora and Rangnekar (2016) also considered that "career commitment should be viewed as an attitude that fulfills the goal of personal advancement and is a reflection of one's commitment to one's personal goals" (p.14). An important point regarding this definition of career commitment is that it is a commitment to the goal of personal advancement. In other words, career commitment is associated with individuals' life objectives rather than with the organization to which they belong. As exemplified by Arora and Rangnekar (2016), who focused on the effect of personality factors such as conscientiousness and agreeableness on career commitment, factors unrelated to the organization are often considered antecedents of career commitment.

How does career commitment affect ORB? Career commitment can also be considered a variable that represents the degree to which individuals emphasize their own lives and position their vocations as a means of attaining their life objectives.



Individuals with high career commitment tend to hesitate to perform ORB as tit-for-tat behavior toward the organization because such ORB is not beneficial to them and involves significant risk to their career. Career commitment has a negative impact on ORB.

Furthermore, career commitment moderated the relationship between affective organizational commitment and ORB. When career commitment is high, individuals tend to have a solid motivation to defend their career; they hesitate to perform ORB, regardless of the degree of affective organizational commitment. In other words, the positive effect of affective organizational commitment is weak when career commitment is high. In contrast, the expected effect of affective organizational commitment on ORB is observed when career commitment is low. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Affective organizational commitment will have a negative impact on ORB.

H2: Career commitment will have a negative impact on ORB.

H3: Career commitment will moderate the effect of affective organizational commitment on ORB. Specifically, the negative impact of affective organizational commitment is more substantial when career commitment is low than when it is high.

### **5-3. Method**

#### *Participants*

Data described in Section 1-3 were utilized.

#### *Measures*

**Organizational commitment.** Following Marsden, Kalleberg, and Cook (1993), organizational commitment was measured as the mean response to their six-item scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree). While Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a three-component organizational commitment model comprising affective, continuance, and normative commitments, Marsden et al.'s (1993) items were primarily associated with affective commitment. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.826 in this study.

**Career commitment.** To measure career commitment, the mean of the responses on the seven-item scale developed by Blau (1999), ranging from 1 (disagree) to 5 (agree), was utilized. This scale has been widely utilized to assess an individual's commitment to their occupation and career. Cronbach's alpha for the scale in this study was 0.877.

Organizational retaliatory behavior, gender, and age were measured using the methods described in Section 2-2.

#### 5-4. Result

**Table 5-1 Basis Statistics and Intercorrelations of Variables**

variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	gender	age	OC	CC	ORB
Gender	1.500	0.501	—				
Age	39.976	10.886	-0.028	—			
Organizational Commitment (OC)	2.730	0.823	0.002	0.072	(0.826)		
Career Commitment (CC)	2.988	0.918	0.071	0.085	0.771**	(0.877)	
ORB	2.211	0.666	-0.162**	-0.080	-0.115*	-0.211**	(0.786)

N = 416, \*\*:  $p < 0.01$  \* :  $p < 0.05$

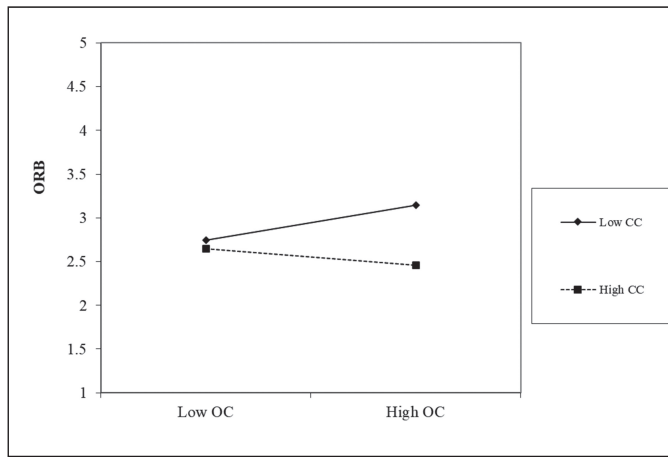
Table 5-1 shows means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the variables. Two commitment variables have a highly positive correlation ( $\gamma = 0.771$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). From this result, focusing on only one commitment variable might be enough to consider the effect of such commitment on ORB. However, this correlation value means that some individuals have high affective commitment and low career commitment or vice versa. Then, it is necessary to address their interactional effect on ORB. ORB has significant negative correlations with affective organizational commitment ( $\gamma = -0.115$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and career commitment ( $\gamma = -0.211$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), which is as expected.

**Table 5-2 Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	F	Adj R <sup>2</sup>
	B	Std. Error	Beta				
1 (Constant)	2.745	0.158		17.355	<0.001	7.119**	0.029
Gender	-0.219	0.064	-0.164	-3.394	0.001		
Age	-0.005	0.003	-0.084	-1.743	0.082		
2 (Constant)	2.666	0.156		17.063	<0.001	8.307**	0.066
Gender	-0.192	0.064	-0.145	-3.029	0.003		
Age	-0.004	0.003	-0.068	-1.425	0.155		
Organizational Commitment (OC)	0.080	0.061	0.099	1.326	0.186		
Career Commitment (CC)	-0.197	0.054	-0.272	-3.620	<0.001		
3 (Constant)	2.752	0.151		18.177	<0.001	13.585**	0.132
Gender	-0.191	0.061	-0.143	-3.113	0.002		
Age	-0.004	0.003	-0.058	-1.256	0.210		
Organizational Commitment (OC)	0.065	0.058	0.081	1.120	0.263		
Career Commitment (CC)	-0.213	0.053	-0.294	-4.059	<0.001		
OC×CC	-0.195	0.034	-0.262	-5.673	<0.001		

a. Dependent Variable: ORB

Next, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to test the main and interactional effects of the two commitment variables on ORB (Table 5-2). In this analysis, two control variables were entered into the equation first, and then the commitment variables were added. Finally, the interaction between the two commitment variables was entered. In the second step, while career commitment had a negative impact on ORB ( $\beta = -0.272$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), as expected, the effect of affective organizational commitment on ORB was not significant ( $\beta = 0.099$ , n.s.). This result indicates that H2 is supported but H1 is not. The VIFs of the two commitment variables were checked and found to be less than 2.60, which means that the effect of multicollinearity did not have to be considered. Finally, the interaction between the two commitment variables negatively influenced ORB ( $\beta = -0.262$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This result implies that the effect of one variable is more substantial when that of the other variable is low. This prediction was confirmed by simple slope analysis.



**Figure 5-1 Simple Slope Analysis**

Figure 5-1 depicts the results of a simple slope analysis. According to a conventional idea, means  $\pm$  one standard deviation was adopted as the criterion for the variables' low and high values. This figure shows the effect of affective organizational commitment (OC in Figure 5-1) on ORB depending on career commitment (CC in Figure 5-1). When career commitment was low, the gradient of the slope of affective organizational commitment was 0.245 ( $t = 3.727$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). However, it became  $-0.114$  ( $t = -1.670$ ,  $p = 0.096$ ) in the case of high career commitment. This result contradicts H3.

## 5-5. Discussion and Conclusion

According to the results in Table 5-2 and Figure 5-1 in the previous section, career commitment moderated the effect of affective organizational commitment on ORB. However, contrary to our hypothesis, affective organizational commitment has a positive impact on ORB at a low career commitment condition and a negative impact at a high level. From this result, the insignificant effect of affective organizational commitment on ORB in the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 2 might be due to its different impacts on ORB, depending on high or low career commitment.

First, the positive impact of affective organizational commitment on ORB in the case of high career commitment means that it is necessary, but not sufficient, for the organization to focus on employee affective organizational commitment to decrease ORB. The organization should take care of the two employee commitments in workforce

management. It is undesirable to neglect the importance of career commitment because such commitment is an individual personality matter.

However, the positive impact of affective organizational commitment in the case of low career commitment is shocking. There are two possible reasons for this. One possible reason is that individuals feel high stress when they face self-contradiction stemming from high affective organizational commitment and low career commitment, which may increase ORB. The other reason is based on the moral licensing model of Klots and Bolino (2013). According to this idea, individuals seek to balance their excellent and destructive behaviors. High affective organizational commitment enhances OCB, and individuals tend to consider that they are permitted to perform ORB unless it is equated with OCB. Individuals with high career commitment do not perform ORB because their careers might be denigrated if their ORB is exposed. However, they take little consideration if they have low career commitment. Additional data are needed to confirm these inferences.

This study examines how these two commitment variables affect ORB. As already described, some empirical results contradict our initial hypotheses. Although possible reasons were inferred, no data were available to confirm them. This was the first limitation of the present study. Furthermore, the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their ORB. However, each item of the ORB scale utilized in this study was easily recognized by the respondents as bad behavior toward the organization. Thus, it is uncertain whether the respondents answered these items honestly. Nevertheless, it is also difficult for a supervisor or peer to evaluate these behaviors because most of these behaviors are often hidden. Although a similar problem has been addressed in OCB studies, collecting ORB data using a standard questionnaire may be more challenging. Finally, this study deals only with affective organizational commitment in three dimensions of organizational commitment, which is also a limitation of this study. Future studies should consider the interactional effect of career commitment on normative or continuance organizational commitment.

Despite these limitations, to the author's knowledge, this is the first study focusing on the effect of two commitment variables on ORB. Future studies should consider the relationship between various attitudinal factors and ORB.

## 6. General Overview and Conclusion

This study conducted four empirical studies on the effects of various factors and their interactions on ORB. Job satisfaction has a negative impact on ORB. In other words, because ORB is tit-for-tat behavior toward the organization, individuals who are satisfied with their job tend not to perform such vindictive behaviors toward the organization. However, the effect of job satisfaction is not always related to ORB. The effects of role ambiguity and job satisfaction (Chapter 2) and the effects of role overload and job satisfaction (Chapter 3) were examined. The negative impact of job satisfaction on ORB was observed only when role ambiguity or role overload was low. In a situation of high role ambiguity or high role overload, job satisfaction did not significantly affect ORB. These empirical results support our hypotheses.

In contrast, the effect of the interaction of PJF and job satisfaction (Chapter 4) and that of organizational commitment and career commitment (Chapter 5) did not support our initial hypotheses. Specifically, when PJF was low, a positive impact of job satisfaction on ORB was observed. Similarly, organizational commitment positively affected ORB when career commitment was low. Although already described in the previous sections, the possibility that high stress stemming from self-contradiction increases ORB should be considered as the reason for these contradictory results.

Role ambiguity and overload are perceived job characteristics, and job satisfaction is an attitudinal factor. Although they are expected to have a negative correlation, this does not mean that they must always have such a correlative relationship. Some individuals prefer busy or ambiguous jobs, reflecting differences in personalities.

On the other hand, the situation of high job satisfaction and low PJF means that job-related attitudes contradict job-related perceptions. Individuals experience high levels of stress in this situation. Similarly, while organizational commitment is conceptually different from career commitment, the organization is the most crucial factor for individuals' careers. Thus, high organizational commitment and low career commitment produce high-stress situations, which could increase ORB.

Unfortunately, our current data cannot confirm whether this explanation is correct. Additional data regarding perceived contradictory situations and stress are required in future studies.

As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, ORB research has lagged behind that on OCB, which has been conducted over the past 40 years. It is generally difficult for

researchers to collect data on OCB and ORB because both are very subtle behaviors. Furthermore, because everyone wants to hide their ill deeds, collecting OCB data through regular questionnaires is even more challenging. This difficulty is why far less attention has been paid to ORB research so far, even though ORB can negatively affect the organization, at least in the long term.

Finally, the relationship between ORB and OCB should be addressed. In introducing the concept of ORB, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) indicated that “(b)efore resorting to direct retaliation (e.g., theft or sabotage), disgruntled employees may engage in more covert retaliation, such as the withdrawal of citizenship behaviors, psychological withdrawal, and resistance behaviors” (p.434). This means that when individuals encounter organizational injustice, they first hesitate to perform OCB; afterwards, the level of OCB reaches zero. Subsequently, they start to perform ORB. In other words, they assume that individuals perform either OCB or ORB depending on their perception of organizational justice.

By contrast, Klots and Bolino (2013) indicated the possibility that OCB and ORB are simultaneously performed. According to their model, when individuals have a strong consciousness of performing good behaviors such as OCB, they tend to have the mindset that they are permitted to perform destructive behaviors such as ORB toward the organization until bad behaviors offset good ones. Empirical analysis of the other data revealed a negative correlation between OCB and ORB. Subsequently, this idea was statistically rejected. However, it is too simple and incorrect to assume that all individuals perform either OCB or ORB, and some individuals may mentally use their OCB as an excuse for their ORB. The complex relationship between OCB and ORB should be understood both theoretically and empirically.

\*This work was financially supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 19H01520

(Professor, Faculty of Business Administration, Seikei University)

## References

- Agho, A. O., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1992). Discriminant validity of measures of job satisfaction, positive affectivity and negative affectivity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 65(3), 185-196.

- Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and anti-social behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90(1), 195-208.
- Arora, R., & Rangnekar, S. (2016). The interactive effects of conscientiousness and agreeableness on career commitment. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 53(1), 14-29.
- Bateman, T. S. & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(4), 587-595.
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3), 349-360.
- Blau, G. (1999). Early-career job factors influencing the professional commitment of medical technologies. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(6), 687-695.
- Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *The Academy of Management Review*, 24(1), 82-98.
- Brayfield, A. H. & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 35(5), 307-311.
- Carter, M. J. & Harper, H. (2016). Role Ambiguity, Wiley Online Library. (<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/9781119085621.wbef040>).
- Folger, R. (1987). Reformulating the preconditions of resentment: A referent cognitions model. In J. C. Masters & W. P. Smith (Eds.), *Social Comparison, Justice, and Relative Deprivation: Theoretical, Empirical, and Policy Perspectives* (pp. 183-215). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- (1993). Reactions to mistreatment at work. In J. K. Murnighan (Ed.), *Social Psychology in Organizations: Advances in Theory and Research* (pp. 161-183). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Jones, D. A. (2009). Getting even with one's supervisor and one's organization: relationships among types of injustice, desires for revenge, and counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(4), 525-542.
- Klots, A. C. & Bolino, M. C. (2013). Citizenship and counterproductive work behavior: A moral licensing view. *Academy of Management Review*, 38(2), 292-306.
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1993). The impact of organizational citizenship behavior on evaluations of salesperson performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 70-80.
- Marsden, P. V., Kalleberg, A. L., & Cook, C. R. (1993). Gender differences in organizational



- commitment: Influences of work positions and family roles. *Work and Occupations*, 20(3), 368-390.
- Meyer, J. P. & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61-89.
- Organ, D. W. (1977). A reappraisal and reinterpretation of the satisfaction-causes-performance hypothesis. *Academy of Management Review*, 2(1), 46-53.
- (1988). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature, Antecedents, and Consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Peterson, M. F., Smith, P. B., Akande, A., Ayestaran, S., Bochner, S., Callan, V., Jesuino, J. C., D'amorim, M., Francois, P.-H., Hofmann, K., Koopman, P. L., Mortazavi, S., Munene, J., Radford, M., Ropo, A., Savage, G., & Setiadi, B. (1995). Role conflict, ambiguity, and overload: A 21-nation study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(2), 429-452.
- Sackett, P. R., Berry, C. M., Wiemann, S. A., & Laczko, R. M. (2006). Citizenship and counterproductive behavior: Clarifying relations between the two domains, *Human Performance*, 19(4), 441-464.
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), 434-443.
- Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(4), 653-663.
- Ueda, Y. (2021). Effects of various types of job satisfaction on organizational retaliatory behaviors. *Bulletin of Seikei University*, 52(4), 1-12.
- (2022a). The impact of two job-related factors on organizational citizenship behavior. *The Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, 53(2), forthcoming.
- (2022b). The Moderating Effect of Role Ambiguity on the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Discussion Paper Series, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, 166.
- (2022c). Moderating Effects of Career Commitment on the Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Discussion Paper Series, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration.
- Vandenberghe, C., & Ok, A. B. (2013). Career commitment, proactive personality, and work outcomes: A cross-lagged study. *The Career Development International*, 18(7), 652-672.

- Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2006). Compulsory citizenship behavior: Theorizing some dark sides of the good soldier syndrome in organizations. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 36(1), 77-93.
- (2007). Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 21(3), 377-405.
- Xie, J. L. (1996). Karasek's model in the People's Republic of China: Effects of job demands, control, and individual differences. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(6), 1594-1618.
- Xie, J. L. & Johns, G. (1995). Job scope and stress: Can job scope be too high? *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1288-1310.
- Zhang, J., Wu, Q., Miao, D., Yan, X., & Peng, J. (2014). The impact of core self-evaluations on job satisfaction: The mediator role of career commitment. *Social Indicators Research*, 116(3), 809-822.