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**A Moderated Mediation Model of
Authoritarian Leadership and
Employee's Organizational Citizenship
Behavior:
The Role of Job Satisfaction and
Interdependent Self-Construal**

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Key word : Authoritarian Leadership, Interdependent Self-Construal,
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Abstract

This research examined psychological processes of and a moderator effect on subordinates' outcomes that bosses' leadership might bring in an organization. Specifically, this paper focused on a dark side of leadership, especially authoritarian leadership which is attracting attention as a negative leadership style these days, by examining the following model: authoritarian leadership has an effect to organizational citizenship behavior, which is mediated by workers' job satisfaction, and the indirect effect is moderated by interdependent self-construal. Through the several surveys, moderated mediation model was supported. Therefore, authoritarian leadership has a negative influence on organizational citizenship behavior, which is mediated by decrease in job satisfaction, and the indirect effect is more significant for individuals with higher interdependent self-construal.

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Thesis Outline

The purpose of this study is to test empirically whether the effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by job satisfaction and whether the indirect effect is moderated by interdependent self-construal.

The Psychological Connections Between Authoritarian Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in The Japanese Workplace

After the world war II , Japanese companies achieved miraculous growth and reconstruction; their momentum was amazing. In various industries where European and American companies had been overwhelmingly dominant, Japanese companies disabled the Western strongholds and rapidly increased their own presence in the business marketplace. For Western companies, the unstoppable offensive of Japanese companies was a serious threat. Therefore, the European and American companies and researchers desperately studied Japanese companies to find the source of their competitive edge. As a result of these efforts, the cohesiveness and voluntary cooperative behavior of the employees in those Japanese companies were determined to be the main components of Japan's competitive edge. These components were

conceptualized by Organ as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and the concept rapidly spread in the academic field of organizational psychology.

OCB refers to “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Although lending support to colleagues and their actions would tend to improve organizational performance, the effects of this behavior cannot be measured directly, and it is difficult to evaluate it as an individual performance indicator. It is not realistic for supervisors to check on every cooperative behavior performed by employees. Nonetheless, employee organizational citizenship behavior plays an important role in helping an organization run smoothly and effectively, and this behavior is fostered by the employees’ recognition of being a member of their organization and their positive attitude toward that organization. It is postulated that Japanese companies were able to realize a higher organizational productivity than Western companies because many of their employees were practicing good OCB.

However, after the collapse of the economic bubble in the 1990s, many Japanese companies were unable to continue with the same growth as previously, and it was pointed out by many experts that good OCB, which was recognized as a Japanese

strength, was being lost. For example, Organ (2007), who first advocated the concept of OCB, ironically says that recently the quality of OCB in Japanese companies has declined. There are several reasons for this, but one of the main reasons may be due to the fact that the negative aspects of Japanese paternalism in leadership has been becoming increasingly prominent. Paternalistic leadership has been a widely accepted general style in traditional Japanese companies, and it has long been considered to be one of the factors contributing to their competitive abilities. Paternalistic leadership has three components: moral leadership, benevolent leadership, and authoritarian leadership. By exercising these elements of leadership as would father has, an organization's leader could enhance subordinates' attitudes such as commitment, trust in the organization, and a sense of belongingness within the organization. Uhl-Bien (1990) pointed out that around the 1980s, paternalism existed in Japanese companies as the foundation of the relationship between companies and their employees, and the elements based on that function served as a strength for Japanese companies. Therefore, it is easy to imagine that paternalistic leadership has up to this time had a positive effect on employee OCB.

However, since the 1990s, it has become difficult for many Japanese companies to enjoy conventional growth. In many of these companies, restructuring has often been

implemented to accommodate an increasingly cutthroat business climate. Furthermore, as a result of seeking a shortsighted profit orientation, it is easy to imagine that negative behaviors such as an increase in pressure or a decrease in support from one's boss is more likely to occur than in the past. Under such circumstances, the negative influence of a paternalistic leadership style may become more conspicuous. The positive aspects of paternalism such as moral behavior and benevolence were lost as the negative aspects of an authoritarian leadership style became more prominent. In prior research, it has been shown that authoritarian leadership has a negative effect on employees' attitudes towards their workplace, and as a result, it reduces their organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2014; Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin, & Cheng, 2013).

Many studies have examined the relationship between leadership and employee performance, and they have shown that leadership is not necessarily only that positively affects the outcomes of subordinates. In recent years, academic interest in the dark side of business leadership has been rapidly rising, with authoritarian leadership held up as representative of many of the negative issues in leadership (Schaubroeck, Shen, & Chong, 2016). An authoritarian leadership style is defined as "asserting strong authority and control over subordinates and demanding unquestioned obedience from them"

(Chen et al., 2014, p. 799). In contemporary organizations, authoritarian leadership is said to detract from organizational productivity. However, it is unclear why authoritarian leadership has this negative impact on employee performance.

It is said that an authoritarian leadership style has a negative impact on employee motivation and relationships within the organization, because it restrains employees from recognizing themselves as being a team member within the organization (Schaubroeck et al., 2016). Moreover, an authoritarian leadership style may bring up fear and anger for employees (Wang et al., 2013). Given these points, it is assumed that an authoritarian leadership style has a stronger influence on extra-role performance behaviors such as cooperating than on in-role performance behaviors such as dealing with compulsory work. A boss' authoritarian leadership is likely to decrease the amount of extra-role performance behaviors in employees because extra-role performance behaviors are more likely to be affected by an employee's attitude and feelings toward their workplace than are in-role performance behaviors. Chen et al. (2014) also showed that while authoritarian leadership has no significant effect on in-role performance behaviors, it negatively affects extra-role performance behaviors.

OCB is fostered by the awareness of the employees themselves that they are working as members of an organization and by their positive attitude towards that

organization. Moreover, in previous studies, it has been pointed out that employee satisfaction affects organizational citizenship behavior (e.g. Foote & Tang, 2001; Koys, 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Zeinabadi, 2010). The current research focuses on clarifying the psychological mechanism that causes the authoritarian leadership style to reduce employee workplace satisfaction and to have a negative impact on OCB.

The Moderating Role of Interdependent Self-Construal

It is generally thought that the Japanese people embody cultural characteristics that emphasize acting in harmony with one's surroundings rather than acting solely based on personal motives (e.g., Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, it is often thought that Japanese people will behave cooperatively within their workgroup regardless of their cognitions about their workplace. However, this is not necessarily consistent with the current situation in Japanese companies. How can we explain this? In this research, we approach this question from the viewpoint that reciprocity is important for the cultural trait of harmonious cooperation to function properly within the workplace surroundings.

The way individuals think and behave is constructed by the interaction between their psychological processes and their surroundings. Studies have examined this

interaction based on the concept of culture (Kitayama, 1999), and a model of historically shared self-construal within a particular culture has been delineated (Kitayama, 1994). Cultural self-construal is made up of interdependent self-construal and independent self-construal. The former term is seen as the way one defines “oneself as part of an encompassing social relationship and recognizing that one’s behavior is determined by, contingent upon, and to a large extent organized by what the actor perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p. 227). The latter term is the way one defines “oneself as an individual whose behavior is organized and made meaningful primarily by reference to one’s own internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings, and actions, rather than by reference to the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p. 226).

Individuals with interdependent self-construal emphasize their relationships with the people around them, especially other members of their in-group, and this leads them to value reciprocity among their ingroup. Because of this tendency, such individuals are likely can be potentially vulnerable to exploitation by others. In order to decrease their risk, therefore, these individuals tend to observe others to determine whether their behavior is trustworthy (Brockner et al., 2005). Hashimoto & Yamagishi (2016) suggest that individuals with interdependent self-construal behave interdependently only when

they have established a trustworthy relationship with others. Individuals with interdependent self-construal pay attention to their surroundings and behave cooperatively when a reciprocal relationship is secured, rather than blindly cooperating with others. They change their degree of cooperative behavior according to how they perceive their workplace. It is expected that such individuals would cause significant changes in cooperative behavior depending on the degree of affirmation they receive in the workplace.

Ironically, it is thought that those who emphasize harmony with their surroundings would significantly decrease their cooperative behavior as their relationship with the organization and surroundings deteriorates. It is highly likely that the current situation of Japanese companies and their employees has resulted in deteriorated relationships within the organization and its surroundings and a significant decrease in organizational citizenship behavior. This research focuses on the interdependent self-construal that is the dominant cultural trait in Japan, and it clarifies the moderating effect of this interdependent self-construal on the psychological processes resulting from authoritarian leadership to OCB. Thus, this research aims at examining whether the indirect effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational

citizenship behavior is mediated by job satisfaction and that its indirect effect is moderated by interdependent self-construal.

1.2. Structure of This Thesis

This paper consists of the following five chapters.

Chapter 1. Introduction

Chapter 2. Literature Review

Chapter 3. Hypotheses

Chapter 4. Empirical Studies

Chapter 5. Conclusion

First, in Chapter 1, the Introduction, I outline the research story and purpose of this thesis. Moreover, its overall organization is described.

Chapter 2, Literature Review, presents the issues and results of leadership research thus far. Next, I organize the findings of research on the dark side of leadership, which has been of increasing interest in recent years. I focus on authoritarian leadership, which is a representative aspect of the dark side of leadership. In addition, I refer to interdependent self-construal as a variable that moderates the psychological process whereby authoritarian leadership influences the organizational citizenship behavior of

employees. I explain the definition of interdependent self-construal, its meaning in Japanese society, why the psychological process should be moderated, and its theoretical framework.

In Chapter 3, Hypotheses, I summarize the discussion in Chapter 2 and explain the verification of the hypotheses of this paper.

In Chapter 4, Empirical Studies, I concretely describe the three empirical studies that were conducted to verify the hypotheses. After describing specific scale items and analytical methods, I consider the results and interpretation.

Finally, in Chapter 5, Conclusion, I summarize this study. Specifically, I summarize the findings of the empirical research carried out in this paper and discuss its academic contributions and practical implications. In addition, I discuss issues and future prospects in this research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1. What is Leadership?

In order to ensure the continuous development of an enterprise, it is necessary to maintain and improve its performance, which requires a series of stories that clarify where employees should direct their attention, what they should do, and how they should solve problems that they face. In addition, it is crucial for employees to share the same stories; otherwise, it is hard for them to realize their stories and achieve their goals. However, sharing these stories is not that easy, considering that thoughts and motivations vary from employee to employee. Therefore, it is important for an organization to have a leader who shows his/her people where to go and unit them to have them direct at the same place. In other words, a leader should have influence over his/her people to make them solve the problems that are crucial for the organization.

Numerous empirical studies in the field of organizational behavior have shown that the influence of a boss's leadership is an extremely important factor in the psychological attitudes and productivity of employees and therefore in the performance of an organization. Such influence of a leader on a follower is often discussed under the concept of leadership. Academic studies of leadership have a history of about 100 years and have yielded a variety of insights that are of use today. In such a background, there

have been many definitions of leadership. According to Chemers (1997), the prevalent definition among researchers is that “leadership is a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task” (p. 1).

What are the factors that provide great leadership? Many researchers have addressed this question. In fact, studies of leadership are at the core of the field of organizational behavior. How then have they tried to understand leadership in particular? In this chapter, I review previous studies in order to understand the essential function of the concept of leadership and to clarify the theoretical position of this study.

An Overview of Leadership Research

The history of studies of leadership is basically as follows: At an early stage, from its beginnings around 1900 to the 1940s the mainstream of research focused on individual dispositions. The aims of studies at that time were mainly to uncover the differences between leaders and non-leaders by identifying individual factors such as height, weight, age, IQ, and general characteristics and orientations (e.g., introvert or extravert). However, the more such research was performed, the greater the inconsistencies in the results of these studies. Researchers at the time began to recognize that the concept of leadership

was not so simple and that it was not possible to explain it only in terms of individual dispositions.

Under such circumstances, researchers became interested in observable leadership behaviors. In a variety of published studies, they tried to extract important common factors from an enormous body of descriptions of leadership behavior. Interestingly, almost all studies showed that the same two factors, “achieving a goal” and “maintaining a relationship,” were the most important factors. “Achieving a goal” is a leadership style that pursues achieving a goal of an organization, while “maintaining a relationship” is a leadership style that pursues building and maintaining good relationships among people.

Furthermore, after studying focusing on such behavioral characteristics, researchers began to think that which style should be adopted depends on the environment and situations in which an organization is located. Based on such a point of view, researchers began to think that situational factors should be taken into consideration. Specifically, their idea was that the appropriate leadership style should vary depending on the relationships between the leader and the followers, the degree of the leader’s authority, the complexity of the organizational task, and so on. Moreover, researchers started to think that leadership styles should transform from a directive style to an authority-delegating style based on the degree of employee maturity.

In the 1980s, many organizations faced rapid environmental changes, and researchers became to pay attention to transformational leadership, which is different from previous leadership styles. Transformational leadership is a leadership style where a leader projects a vision for his/her staff to motivate them internally through their morale and curiosity, and supports them by listening carefully to their opinions to improve their willingness to contribute to the organization. For this kind of leader, a follower tends to be treated as a partner trying to realize the same vision together. In fact, under transformational leadership, a follower is able to strive for the transformation of the organization through authority delegated from his/her leader. In addition, transformational leadership urges a follower to identify himself/herself with the organization and promote those behaviors necessary to maintain relationships in the organization even in the absence of an explicit work rule. Such a series of interactions between employees and an organization is said to allow the organization to transform. Because transformational leadership fit the situation at the time well, it rapidly prevailed, not only among researchers but among businessmen.

Studies conducted before the idea of transformational leadership spread mainly focused on the positive sides of the concept of leadership, but many researchers today are interested in its negative sides, following a trend in which bosses' harassment in the

workplace and its resulting costs are gaining attention as serious problems. As mentioned above, leadership is a process of social influence, and it is not surprising that leadership can have negative impacts. Particularly in our current situation of great uncertainties in the economic environment, in order to maintain the performance of a company, a leadership style of “achieving a goal” tends to receive greater focus than a leadership style of “maintaining a relationship.” In addition, while transformational leadership requires a leader to provide a clear vision to his/her staff, the many uncertainties of the situation today make it difficult for him/her to do so. Under these circumstance, the dark sides of leadership are gaining attention, and this study also focuses on them. Specifically, this study focuses on authoritarian leadership, which represents a major dark side of leadership, and examines the psychological processes whereby it influences employees’ performance.

After this survey of the history of studies of leadership, we will examine certain of its details by analyzing theories of leadership. In particular, I am going to focus on studies of the dark sides of leadership, considering the social background that makes people interested in its negative aspects, the characteristics of such leadership styles, and their influences on employees’ performance. Moreover, I discuss authoritarian leadership to determine its definition and function.

The Trait Approach to Leadership

As previously stated, empirical research on leadership began at the beginning of the 20th century. In its early stages, many studies tried to explain how a leader's traits and characteristics define the superiority of his or her leadership, which is called the "trait approach." Such studies tried to show the individual differences of inherent traits that can explain whether one is a leader by examining the relationship between leadership and a wide range of other variables, such as IQ test scores and such characteristics as height, weight, and so on. For example, Drake (1944) examined the relationship between various traits and leadership by conducting experiments with female students, and showed positive relationships between leadership and various traits, including self-confidence, aggressiveness, originality, sociability, intelligence, cooperativeness, humor, emotional stability, and desire to impose one's will. In addition, he conducted a similar experiment with male students and found differences between the genders. Generally, there were no gender differences except in self-confidence, sociability, intelligence, and desire to impose one's will.¹

¹ Women showed a higher positive correlation between these characteristics and leadership than did men.

However, the increasing body of inconsistencies found in such studies led many researchers to conclude that it was impossible to explain leadership only by individual traits. Stogdill (1948) reviewed the broad relationships between leadership and individual traits, such as age, height, weight, health, appearance, fluency of speech, intelligence, adaptability, introversion-extroversion, confidence, emotional control, social skill and so on, to see their validity. As a result, he concluded that there were relationships between leadership and individual traits to a certain extent, but that the relationships were not strong enough to explain every aspect of leadership. In addition, Mann (1959), who reviewed studies of relationships between leadership and individual traits, suggested that no specific trait had a significant influence on leadership. We should not overlook the fact that methodologies for scaling personality were still in the embryonic phase, but in any case the focus of attention gradually shifted from a leader's traits to a leader's behavior.

The Behavioral Approach to Leadership

From the 1950s to 1960s, as the trait approach was fading out, studies following an approach focusing on a leader's behavior and examining what kinds of behavior allow effective leadership were emerging and caught the interest of many researchers.

Representative studies of leadership were conducted at Ohio State University. This institution developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which has contributed to numerous studies of leadership as a tool to measure a leader's specific behavior. By analyzing the LBDQ, which includes a few hundred styles of behavior, two major factors were found: "achieving a goal" and "maintaining relationships." At the same time, many other researchers, for example at University of Michigan, Harvard University, and universities in Japan, also found these two factors as essential to superior leaders. For instance, Katz and Kahn (1951) studied leadership by contrasting production-orientation and employee-orientation. Fleishman and Harris (1962) focused on structure-behavior for achieving a goal (e.g., setting subordinates' tasks and rewards and recording their progress) and consideration-behavior for maintaining relationships (e.g., building good relationships between bosses and subordinates through interactive communication and having subordinates participate in decision makings). They studied empirically how these behaviors affect subordinates' psychological burdens and turnover behavior. They also showed that while structure-behavior increased burdens and turnover behavior, consideration-behavior lessened them. Moreover, they examined the effect of the interaction of these two behaviors and found that when the degree of

consideration-behavior was high, the impact of structure-behavior on subordinates was further lessened.

What we can learn from these studies is that superior leadership consists of motivation to achieve the organization's goals and motivation to maintain good relationships among members. The most important point here is that a leader should not put emphasis on either in exclusion to the other but rather focus on both equally in order to reach the best outcome.

Although pursuing both is crucial, it is true that which of them a leader should emphasize depends on the current situation of the organization and the relationships between the leader and followers. For example, if the relationships are good, the leader should emphasize achieving their goal. On the other hand, if the leader's power is too weak, what he or she must do first is to build relationships good enough to achieve the goal. The levels of tasks also may matter. A due consideration of these variables was the major way of examining effective leadership from the late 1960s to the 1970s.

The Contingency Approach to Leadership

The behavioral approach to leadership led to many studies considering situational factors. The idea motivating such studies is that effective leadership varies from situation to situation, which entails the “contingency approach” to leadership. Fiedler (1967) is a representative study in this approach. He developed a scale called the LPC (Least Preferred Coworker) to measure the motivation of leaders and examined the relationships between the situation in which a leader is located and the performance of the organization. The LPC has leaders evaluate their coworkers using a set of adjectives about personality (e.g., Pleasant, Friendly, Helpful, Cold, Boring, and Gloomy). All adjectives occur in opposed pairs and the participant checks a point somewhere between two adjectives to describe his or her coworker (e.g., pleasant ----- unpleasant). When the leader evaluates his or her coworker positively, the LPC score is high, which means the leader shows high job satisfaction and high self-esteem by maintaining good relationships with others. On the other hand, a leader with low LPC achieves high job satisfaction and high self-esteem through great performance. To sum up, LPC indicates factors of leaders’ motivations; while leaders with high LPC pay attention to job performance in order to achieve good relationships, leaders with low LPC pay attention to relationships at the workplace in order to achieve good performance.

Fiedler (1967) also examined the relationship between a leader's LPC and his or her environment. According to Fiedler, environment is determined by three factors: the relationships between leaders and followers, the clearness of the task-structure, and the leaders' official power. He divided each factor into two conditions—high and low—and classified environment into a total of eight patterns. These eight patterns are arranged on a one-dimensional scale² to show how favorable the environment is for leaders. By examining the relationships between this dimension and LPC, he found that whether leaders can exert their leadership effectively depends on the situation. For example, while leaders with low LPC tend to succeed more in both advantageous and disadvantageous environments, leaders with high LPC tend to succeed in relatively advantageous environments. Based on the idea that relationships between LPC and organizational performance depend on the situation of leadership, Fiedler (1967) suggested “Contingency Theory.”

In addition, House (1971) suggested Path-Goal Theory. According to this theory, the important function of leadership is to clarify the rewards that employees can obtain by achieving the relevant goal and paths to increase their satisfaction. Fiedler's model

² Circumstances in which the relationship between the leader and the follower is good, the task structure is clear, and the leader's official power is strong constitute the best environment. Conversely, circumstances in which the relationship between the leader and the follower is moderate to poor, the task structure is not clear, and the leader's official power is weak are the worst environment.

suggests that bosses' style of leadership influences organizational performance, but it does not clarify its process. Path-Goal Theory suggests a model in which bosses' leadership influences organizational performance mediated by subordinates' motivation (Evans, 1970). The main point of this theory is that the mediation effect depends on situational factors. Therefore, it is not always true that leaders' behavior in striving to achieve a goal has a negative effect on subordinates' psychological state. In fact, House pointed out that a leader's goal-oriented tendency does not necessarily have a negative impact on subordinates' psychological attitudes, but rather that the impact depends on the quality of employees' jobs. In concrete terms, he empirically showed that goal-oriented behavior (e.g., initiating structure) and relationship-oriented behavior (e.g., consideration) depended on how ambiguous employees' jobs were. For example, while one idea based on past research was that goal-oriented leadership is usually a burden on employees, one idea of Path-Goal Theory is that clarifying the relationship between paths and goals would improve the job satisfaction of employees dealing with ambiguous jobs, and in fact this idea is empirically supported. These studies imply the importance of the situation in which leaders and their subordinates are located, which cannot be explained by trait approach nor behavioral approach.

Transformational Leadership Research

Based on the studies above, researchers started to study leadership with a view to determining how to transform an organization. This is partly because in the 1980s, many researchers and entrepreneurs in the U.S. had an interest in the leadership necessary to achieve organizational transformations in order to survive international competition, which is called transformational leadership (Yukl, 1989). According to Yukl (1989), transformational leadership is a style that transforms an organization by assigning positions properly to followers and motivating them by recognizing their metaphysical goal when the organization has to change. At first, studies of transformational leadership suggested that such leaders gain power by attracting followers, reflecting not the leaders' own interests but the ideals and values important to the organization (Burns, 1978). Burns (1978) advocated the concept of transformational leadership and transactional leadership. He defined it this way: "The transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower" (Burns, 1978, p. 4), and "Transactional-leaders approach followers with an eye to exchange one thing for another" (Burns, 1978, p. 4).

Many studies examined the impact of these styles of leadership on subordinates' performance. Transformational leadership is a style in which bosses project a vision for

their subordinates, assign positions to them, motivate them, and achieve their goals.

Transactional leadership is a carrot-and-stick approach in which bosses set a norm and when their subordinates achieve it, they are praised but when they fail, they are punished.

Transformational leadership consists of four factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

According to Judge and Piccolo (2004), first, idealized influence involves followers' belief that their leader has the capability to achieve their goal. Second, inspirational motivation concerns how inspiring the vision is that leaders show to their followers.

Leaders with this factor set a high standard for their followers, show positive attitudes toward it, and make their task meaningful. Third, intellectual stimulation pertains to stimulating one's followers to reach original ideas by questioning existing ideas. Leaders with this factor are good at stimulating followers' curiosity and stimulating their creativity.

Fourth, individualized consideration involves earnestly supporting followers by understanding their needs and tasks. Proper instructions are also included in this factor.

These four factors of transformational leadership are thought to promote followers' morale and commitment.

Transactional leadership consists of three factors: contingent reward, management by exception—active, and management by exception—passive. Contingent reward

pertains to leaders' setting rewards for followers by clarifying their expectations. Management by exception concerns the extent to which leaders intervene in followers' jobs; while leaders with the style of management by exception—active intervene in followers' jobs before something happens by foreseeing possible troubles, leaders with the style of management by exception—passive intervene in followers' jobs after they face troubles.

Many studies have been performed of how transformational leadership and transactive leadership influence subordinates' performance (e.g., Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Judge & Bono, 2000; Kane & Tremble, 2000). Judge and Piccolo (2004) carried out a meta-analytical study to see the relationships between transformational leadership and followers' job performance. As a result, transformational leadership had a moderate positive correlation with subordinates' motivation, while contingent reward of transactional leadership had a lower positive correlation. On the other hand, management by exception of transactional leadership did not show such a correlation. Based on these results, the issue is not a simple matter of whether transformational leadership or transactional leadership is better. It is suggested that superior leadership uses not just one of these styles but both depending on the purposes in question.

2.2. The Dark Side of Leadership

As mentioned above, previous research has examined leadership from various perspectives, such as leaders' traits, behaviors, and their relationships with the organization. Therefore, it is hard to define leadership clearly, but it can be said that many studies have the same idea that the basic function of leadership is to have power over followers; bosses' leadership has an influence on subordinates' psychological attitudes, which would affect their job performance.

Considering that leadership is process of social influence, leaders' power over followers has a significant impact on the followers' performance. Therefore, we should consider whether this power is properly working, taking into account that it can have negative impacts; we should see the negative aspects of leadership.

Many researchers have been interested in the dark side of leadership for the past decade (Mathieu, Neumann, Hare, & Babiak, 2014). This is partly because companies today recognize such a dark side as a big problem; for example, it is said that in American companies, negative influences of leadership (e.g., quitting jobs, absenteeism, and neglect) cost 23.8 billion dollars annually (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006).

Recently many studies focus on the dark side of leadership in order to deal with these problems.

It is said that negative factors have a stronger impact on people's cognitive processes than positive factors do. For instance, Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, and Vohs (2001) showed that people react more to negative external factors than to positive external factors, so negative factors have more impact on people's psychological attitudes and behavior. In this regard, negative leadership might cause serious problems for subordinates' attitudes toward jobs and the organization, and it is important to study this problem academically and practically. Previous studies mainly focused on positive aspects of leadership (Ashforth, 1994; Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012), so studying its dark side will contribute to a better understanding of the essence of leadership. In other words, examining the negative aspects of leadership should help us to achieve insight into the effectiveness and troubles of leadership. Also, such insight might prevent the dark side from cause problems (e.g., Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007).

Previous studies have shown that bosses' negative leadership decreases subordinates' productivity, increases their psychological stress, and provokes their anti-organizational behavior (Mathieu et al., 2014; Tepper et al., 2009; Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Such negative leadership has been described as tyrannical, toxic, abusive

supervision, and so on. The definitions of these words differ, but all imply traits whereby leaders do not care about their followers but instead try to control them in order to exert their power. This is a style in which leaders make their subordinates follow their order blindly by consistently exhibiting threatening and apathetic behaviors. Leaders with this kind of dictatorial leadership do not care about nor support their subordinates, and do not clarify their own responsibility (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

For example, Tepper (2000) suggested the concept of abusive supervision, and examined how it influences subordinates. Abusive supervision is regarded as being based on “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). He showed that abusive supervision has a negative correlation with subordinates’ job satisfaction, commitment, and a sense of fairness. Moreover, it has a positive correlation with anxiety, depression, and mental fatigue. Many other studies have followed up on this study (e.g., Rafferty & Restubog, 2011; Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011; Tepper et al., 2006; Zellars et al., 2002). For example, Rafferty and Restubog (2011) showed that abusive supervision has a negative influence on voluntary cooperative behavior for the organization that is mediated by the meaningfulness of work,

a sense of justice, and self-esteem at the organization. In addition, leadership of abusive supervision decreases subordinates' creativity (Liu et al., 2012).

Einarsen et al. (2007) suggested the concept of destructive leadership. This is defined as “the systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates” (Einarsen, 2007, p. 208). They located destructive leadership on a two-dimensional map by analyzing previous ideas of negative leadership styles. The map comprises two dimensions, concern for production and concern for people, based on the ideas of achieving goals and maintaining relationships, as mentioned in the section on the behavioral approach. Einarsen et al. (2007) located three types of destructive leadership (Supportive-Disloyal Leadership, Derailed Leadership, and Tyrannical Leadership) in contrast with constructive leadership. The point here is that constructive leadership, located in the first quadrant, is the only positive style of leadership on the map.

As mentioned above, an increasing body of recent research focuses on the dark side of leadership. While it is thought that the fundamental trait is shared by any kind of negative leadership style, its concrete traits must vary depending on the organization's

socio-cultural system and the organizational climate. My question here is what would be the representative negative leadership styles of Japanese companies. According to previous research, authoritarian leadership is one such style. Authoritarian leadership is often practiced in East Asian countries, and its negative aspects have received increasing attention recently. We shall examine this trait, its impact on followers, and the psychological mechanism of its impact in the next section

2.3. The Negative Effects of Authoritarian Leadership

As mentioned above, an increasing body of research has focused on the dark side of leadership during the last decade. Researchers in East Asian countries such as China are especially interested in authoritarian leadership, which is defined as “a leader’s behavior of asserting strong authority and control over subordinates and demanding unquestioned obedience from them” (Chen et al., 2014, p. 799). Bosses exerting authoritarian leadership do not transfer authority to their subordinates in order to maintain their own power. They ask their subordinates to follow them without question so that they can completely control them (Jiang, Chen, Sun, & Yang, 2017).

It is said that authoritarian leadership is a more general leadership in East Asia, including China and Japan. In this region, paternalistic leadership is widespread. In prior research, authoritarian leadership has been regarded as one element of paternalistic leadership. Paternalistic leadership is defined as “a style that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and morale integrity couched in a personalistic atmosphere” (Farh & Cheng, 2000, p. 94). Moreover, this leadership style is composed of three elements termed authoritarian, benevolent, and morality. Although authoritarian leadership is as described above, benevolent leadership means that “a leader demonstrates

individualized, holistic concern for subordinates' personal and familial well-being" (Chen et al., 2014, p. 799). Finally, morality leadership involves "a leader's behavior that demonstrates superior moral character and integrity through acting unselfishly and leading by example" (Chen et al., 2014, p. 799).

Paternalistic leadership is exerted especially in East Asian countries with Confucian philosophy, such as China. According to Confucian philosophy, the tightness of the family is the most important consideration, and the vertical relationship between father and son is crucial, so it is taken as granted that the son follows his father's authority (Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2006).

Paternalistic leaders take care of their subordinates both in the workplace and in private life just like a father, asking them to have loyalty to the organization (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Therefore, such bosses' benevolence or morality of course have a positive impact on their subordinates' attitudes and performance. However, they tend to emphasize authority and order and try to control their subordinates, which both might be harmful. The point here is that in order to allow paternalistic leadership to work, both bosses and subordinates have to understand their roles. Without such understanding, subordinates will have negative feelings such as anxiety and nervousness when their bosses exert authoritarian leadership. It is said that paternalistic leadership is a matter of

subordinates' followership rather than a matter of bosses' leadership (e.g., Farh et al., 2006).

Chen et al. (2014) examined the relationship between these three leadership styles and their performance. Benevolent and moral leadership was positively correlated with the performance of subordinates. Meanwhile, authoritarian leadership had a negative correlation with the performance of subordinates. In addition, some studies have demonstrated that authoritarian leadership has a negative impact on ethical workplace climate (Erben & Güneşer, 2008) and that it affects the deviant behavior of employees (Jiang et al., 2017).

In Japanese companies, it is expected that evils of authoritarian leadership have been increasing recently. In other words, during the period of high economic growth after the war, companies had been increasing their sales year by year, people's income had risen, and employment had been guaranteed for life as an implicit contract. In such a situation, it was relatively easy for the company and the superior to guarantee the lifetime employment of the employee. Moreover, unless companies pursued unethical behavior, it was also not a dangerous situation in which they could not survive. Therefore, it can be said that although the authoritarian aspect seemed to have an essentially negative influence on the employee's outcomes, it was acceptable to a certain extent. However,

after the collapse of the bubble economy, factors such as globalization of the economy, discontinuity of operations due to technological innovation, and saturation of the domestic market intensified competition among companies. Companies and bosses are finding it increasingly difficult to care about their employees as before. Corporate scandals resulting from taking excessive measures to further increase sales have become noticeable recently. It is thought that such pressure and job orders from above have also led to the promotion of the authoritarian aspect of company leadership. It has been pointed out that employees become less willing to contribute to organizations when authoritarian leadership is exerted (Chen et al., 2014).

In a conventional Japanese company, each employee has a high tendency to cooperate voluntarily for the sake of the organization, and such collective cohesiveness was regarded as one of the strengths of Japanese companies. Such voluntary cooperative actions are explained in the field of organizational theory by the concept of employees' "extra-role behavior." Therefore, I next explain the influence and psychological mechanism of the relation between the authoritarian leadership and extra-role behavior after a survey of previous studies.

The Influence and Psychological Process of Authoritarian Leadership

Previous studies have demonstrated that authoritarian leadership has a negative impact on employee attitudes, commitments, and job performance. For example, Farh et al. (2006) demonstrate that authoritarian leadership increases subordinates' fear and consequently decreases commitment and boss favor. And, more interestingly, in terms of job performance, that negative effect is more prominent in extra-role behavior than in in-role behavior (e.g., Chen et al., 2014). Extra-role behavior is not as clearly defined as an individual's role but is thought to consist of important actions for the group maintenance function of an organization. In previous studies, discussion has often made of the concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Organizational citizenship behavior is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). In other words, the basic idea of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is that even if employees do not perform such behavior, they do not receive punishment directly. That is, such behavior depends on the voluntariness of employees. Authoritarian leadership has been shown to have a negative impact on the organizational citizenship behavior of subordinates.

Why is that negative effect greater in extra-role behavior? As mentioned above, a psychological mechanism is assumed that the leadership style of the boss affects the employees' attitudes, and as a result affects their performance of their jobs. Furthermore, it has been pointed out that when employees are under authoritarian leaders, they show action tendencies isolated from the organization to maintain their own autonomy (Zellars et al., 2002). As a result, the subordinates weaken their connection to the organization, and as a result their motivation to voluntarily contribute to the organization is reduced. Also, it is assumed that such a negative influence would become more noticeable in extra-role behavior. This is because in-role behavior is clearly defined in the employee's own job requirements, which is practiced unless the situation has become very bad; on the other hand, extra-role behavior includes acts that they voluntarily perform for the organization and that are not required through explicit requests. In other words, the question of whether or not to perform extra-role behavior is easily affected by the attitudes of the employees themselves to their workplaces. In fact, many studies have demonstrated that the employees' attitudes toward the workplace (especially, job satisfaction) have an impact on organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Foote & Tang, 2008; Koys, 2001; Moorman, 1993; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Zeinabadi, 2010). Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian (1997) point out that job satisfaction here is

a concept falling on the range from the “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke 1976, p. 1300) to “all characteristics of the job itself and the work environment which [sales people] find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or frustrating and unsatisfying” (Churchill et al., 1974, p. 255). According to the findings of existing research, employees have been demonstrated to perform more organizational citizenship behavior as they feel higher job satisfaction. Organ and Ryan (1995) meta-analyzed 55 empirical studies. As a result, they concluded that, at least for non-managerial employees, the impact of job satisfaction on extra-role behavior was greater than on in-role behavior. Of course, no matter how satisfied an employee feels, it may be difficult for him or her to achieve high performance depending on the lack of personal capacity or the business environment. However, it has been pointed out that there is a high possibility that at least societal behavior towards organizations would increase (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Furthermore, it is also assumed that the leadership styles of the boss have an impact on the OCB through subordinates’ job satisfaction. Indeed, in some studies it has been shown that the supportive leadership style of the boss increases the satisfaction of subordinates, and as a result organizational citizenship behavior is promoted (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1997; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Given these findings, negative

leadership as described above has a negative influence on the employees' attitudes and emotions, which is thought to lead to a decline in their organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, to summarize the discussion thus far, it is assumed that the psychological mechanism whereby the boss's authoritarian leadership exerts a negative influence on subordinate's job satisfaction thereby reduces the subordinate's organizational citizenship behavior. Is there then a factor to moderate this psychological process? In this study, I focus on interdependent self-construal in cultural psychology. Next, after describing the concept of interdependent self-construal, I explain why this moderates the above psychological process. Furthermore, I discuss why I focused on interdependent self-construal in this research.

2.4. Interdependent Self-Construal as Moderator

It has been thought that the Japanese tend to conduct organizational citizenship behavior more voluntarily than Westerners do. In fact, Organ, who conceptualized organizational citizenship behavior, propounded the theoretical base by observing Japanese companies in the period from the 1970s to the 1980s. Why the Japanese tend to be cooperative with their organization can be explained partly by their cultural background.

An individual's thinking and behavior styles is composed by the interaction between the psychological process of the self and the environment to which the individual belongs. Cultural psychology (Kitayama, 1999) as an academic discipline examines this environmental factor from the point of view of "culture." Cultural psychology is based on the premise that personal feelings, thinking, motivations, and behavior are regulated by the interaction of mind and culture. Culture here is understood as the whole of historically accumulated customs and the public semantic structure (Kitayama, 1999). In past cultural psychology research, it was important to understand the following points: how to scientifically measure the difference between cultural cognition, emotion, thought, and behavior style; how culture and mind are related; and what the mechanism is behind

this relation. A number of empirical studies have been made concerning these questions (e.g., Adams & Plaut, 2003; Choi, Koo, & Choi, 2007; Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000; Kitayama, Markus, Matsumoto, & Norasakkunkit, 1997; Masuda & Nisbett, 2001; Miyamoto, Uchida, & Ellsworth, 2010; Morling, Kitayama, & Miyamoto, 2002; Singelis, 1994; Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995; Uchida, Kitayama, Mesquita, Reyes, & Morling, 2008).

Culture is the whole of the semantic structure. To better implicitly understand its meaning is extremely important in facilitating social life in that particular culture, as a concrete approach whereby individuals have a more adaptive view of human life and values in their culture (Masuda & Yamagishi, 2010). Such a view of human life and values serve as an implicit norm in that culture, and not-deviating from it is an effective strategy for avoiding friction with one's surroundings and society. Furthermore, based on such a view of the human life and view of the world, it can be said that customs and behavior styles unique to that culture are also constructed (Kitayama, 1998).

In this way, the common sense concerning the self that is implicitly shared in a certain culture is called cultural self-construal. This is a model of the self that is shared throughout a certain culture (Kitayama, 1994), and it is usually implicitly accepted among people of that culture in the same way as the relationship between water and fish. Through

living in that culture, people naturally acquire the self-construal unique to their culture, so they do not intentionally explicitly identify it unless they come into contact with an outside culture. Furthermore, the culture-specific products (e.g., customs, specific behavior forms, buildings, languages) are influenced by cultural self-construal. For example, Kitayama (1998) points out that everyday reality, such as the customs in a certain culture or its routinized scripts, is constructed based on the cultural self-construal, and he explains that cultural self-construal gives meaning to things and provides a frame of reference for the thoughts, emotions, and motivations of people living there. This means that there is an interaction between cultural self-construal and cultural products. In addition, Hashimoto (2011) points out that the cultural self-view does not only affect the values and preferences of people who have lived long in their culture. That is, he points out that cultural self-construal makes it possible for people to predict what other people respond to in their own thoughts and behaviors. Therefore, individuals can decide to make their behavior smarter by considering predictions of others' behaviors. The function of predicting other behaviors involved in this cultural self-construal suggests that individuals are motivated to act on the basis of cultural self-construal in a society because it is adaptive. Therefore, if individuals recognize that an action is not adaptive in their society and among the members of their group, such actions may not be taken.

Cultural self-construal may be distinguished as two forms of self-construal, interdependent self-construal and independent self-construal. The former is “oneself as part of an encompassing social relationship and recognizing that one’s behavior is determined, contingent on, and, to a large extent organized by what the actor perceives to be the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p. 227); the latter is the way one defines “oneself as an individual whose behavior is organized and made meaningful primarily by reference to one’s own internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings, and action, rather than by reference to the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p. 226). In other words, individuals who emphasize interdependent self-construal focus on building good relationships with others rather than achieving their own goals and hopes, and it is more important for such individuals to respond to expectations from their surroundings. On the other hand, individuals who emphasize independent self-construal focus on achieving their own goals and hopes. It is more important for such individuals to stick to their claims without failing to succumb to resistance or repulsion from the surroundings (Masuda & Yamagishi, 2010). These two types of cultural self-construal also differ in their recognition of the boundary between self and others. With interdependent self-construal, the boundary between self and others is ambiguous and the self is recognized as being embedded in relationships

with the surrounding others. On the other hand, with independent self-construal, the boundary between self and others is clearly distinguished and the self is recognized as a unique existence separated from others. However, considering the viewpoints of the in-group and the out-group, deeper insight can be gained into the characteristics of these types of self-construal. In other words, with interdependent self-construal, the boundary between self and others is ambiguous, but this term “others” is supposed to refer to people in the in-group, such as family members, best friends, or colleagues in the workplace; the boundaries with people of an out-group such as strangers are clearly distinguished, or rather the boundary is more clearly distinguished than that assumed by independent self-construal (Masuda & Yamagishi, 2010). Traditionally, it is said that Japan is a village society, but in such a culture, being kicked out of the village increases the risks to survival for that individual. In such circumstances, maintaining a good relationship with the surroundings is more important than achieving one’s own goals and hopes. However, the surroundings here are understood to assume people within the group.

The important thing here is that these two types of cultural self-construal are not inherently superior or inferior, but rather their superiority varies across cultures. For example, it has been pointed out that in the cultural sphere of North America there is a dominant cultural foundation in independent self-construal, but interdependent self-

construal serves as a dominant cultural foundation in East Asia, including Japan (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, for people who prioritize the achievement of their own goals and hopes rather than responding to expectations and requests from the surroundings, living in Japanese society might be difficult. However, it is highly likely that such individuals would rather live a life in North American society that they would find smoother. This means that the skills and characteristics required by cultures differ. Of course, there may be individual differences, but the finding that the self-construal that exists as an implicit premise in a particular social culture functions as a cultural norm is very interesting.

Individuals with high interdependent self-construal place greater emphasis on responding to expectations from the surroundings than through self-assertion. This style is applied not only to direct relationships with others but also to relationships between the self and his/her belonging group (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In Japanese society, because many individuals have a preference for good relationships with others, it can be easy for cooperative behavior to be conducted on behalf of an organization or a group. Therefore, even without clear requirements to that end, employees would voluntarily do what their organization needs. In other words, it can be said that in Japan, where interdependent self-construal is dominant, people are likely to value themselves when

they are building good relationships with others and that they would voluntarily cooperate with their belonging group, and it has been assumed that such people will behave cooperatively for their group or take actions in greater awareness of what the organization wants.

However, many researchers have pointed out that voluntarily cooperative behavior, which was an advantage of Japanese enterprises, has been lost since the collapse of the bubble economy (e.g., Jo, 2004; Takahashi, Kawai, Nagata, & Watabe, 2008). In addition, there are some studies that showed that the Japanese showed less organizational citizenship behavior than Americans did (e.g., Shibata & Kamibayashi, 2013). Also, Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2007) suggested that the organizational citizenship behavior of Japanese companies was getting worse. Based on these facts, this study questions why people in Japanese society, where interdependent self-construal is supposed to be dominant, do not show cooperative behavior at their organizations.

The Moderating Role of Interdependent Self-Construal

This study examines sensitivity to situation, another function of interdependent self-construal. It is said that in a society characterized by interdependent self-construal, in which relationships and harmony with others are important, cooperative behavior is

supposed to make other people behave in the same way. Without such reciprocity, cooperative behavior might be lost.

Interdependent self-construal does not mean cooperating blindly; it describes people who change their behavior depending on their situation. For example, Brockner et al. (2005) stated that individuals with high interdependent self-construal are latently vulnerable because they are at risk of being exploited psychologically by people connected to them. Thus, they try to decrease this risk by closely observing other people's behavior. Hashimoto and Yamagishi (2016) explained that interdependent self-construal is a shared belief that is meaningful only when an individual is properly embedded in relationships with others. In other words, individuals with high interdependent self-construal are those who carefully observe the people around them and cooperate voluntarily with others when reciprocity is secured, rather than those who cooperate with others without thinking. Therefore, it is crucial for such individuals to know that their relationships with others are positive and maintain them.

It can be said that when employees with high interdependent self-construal are satisfied with their job, they would voluntarily show organizational citizenship behavior, and vice versa. Therefore, individuals with high interdependent self-construal

would change their organizational citizenship behavior more dramatically depending on their job satisfaction than would those with low interdependent self-construal.

Chapter 3. Hypotheses

3.1. Research Hypothesis

In Chapters 1 and 2, I summarized the outline of this research and related previous research. In this chapter, I explain the empirical model of this research. This paper focuses on authoritarian leadership, one of the leadership styles that negatively affects the psychological attitudes and performance of employees. I consider that this leadership style would have a negative impact on employees' organizational citizenship behavior through their job satisfaction. In addition, I focus on interdependent self-construal to adjust this indirect effect. In other words, this paper seeks to verify that the impact of the indirect effect differs depending on the degree of interdependent self-construal.

In recent years, interest in the negative aspects of leadership has been rising. Particularly in East Asia, including Japan, authoritarian leadership is discussed as a representative form of leadership. Authoritarian leadership controls subordinates by not sharing information with them or delegating authority to them and demands unquestioning obedience. Therefore, it is suggested that this style of leadership has a negative effect on the performance of subordinates. In particular, it is assumed that this negative effect is remarkable on extra-role behavior as represented by organization citizenship behavior (e.g., Chen et al., 2014). Extra-role behavior depends on the

autonomy of the employee in deciding whether or not to perform it since there is no penalty for non-performance. Therefore, it is expected that the psychological cognition of subordinates for their workplace mediates the influence of the boss's authoritarian leadership on subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. In previous research, it has been demonstrated in many studies that job satisfaction promotes organizational citizenship behavior. In other words, the boss's authoritarian leadership decreases the job satisfaction of his subordinates, and as a result it is expected to have a negative influence on organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, this study empirically examines the psychological process mediated by job satisfaction whereby authoritarian leadership influences organizational citizenship behavior.

Furthermore, this psychological process whereby authoritarian leadership impacts organizational citizenship behavior is expected to be moderated by interdependent self-construal. Given the discussion of previous research, individuals with high interdependent self-construal are not expected to blindly behave cooperatively toward the group and group members. Rather, such individuals are expected to observe the situation carefully and take cooperative actions if they can affirm the situation. Otherwise, such actions are expected to decline markedly (Brockner et al., 2005). Therefore, the negative psychological impact of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is

expected to be more prominent in individuals with high interdependent self-construal. That is, it is predicted that a person with high interdependent self-construal would show a more positive effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than would people with a low interdependent self-construal. Therefore, in this paper I consider this point empirically as well. Finally, I also verify the validity and reliability of the theoretical model derived by integrating the above discussions. Specifically, I empirically examine whether job satisfaction mediates the influence of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior, and whether the impact of the indirect effect is moderated by interdependent self-construal. Therefore, in this paper I will empirically test the following three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals with high interdependent self-construal show a more positive influence of the causal relationship of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than do those with low interdependent self-construal.

Hypothesis 2: The causal relationship of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The indirect effect of job satisfaction on the impact of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is stronger when an individual has higher interdependent self-construal.

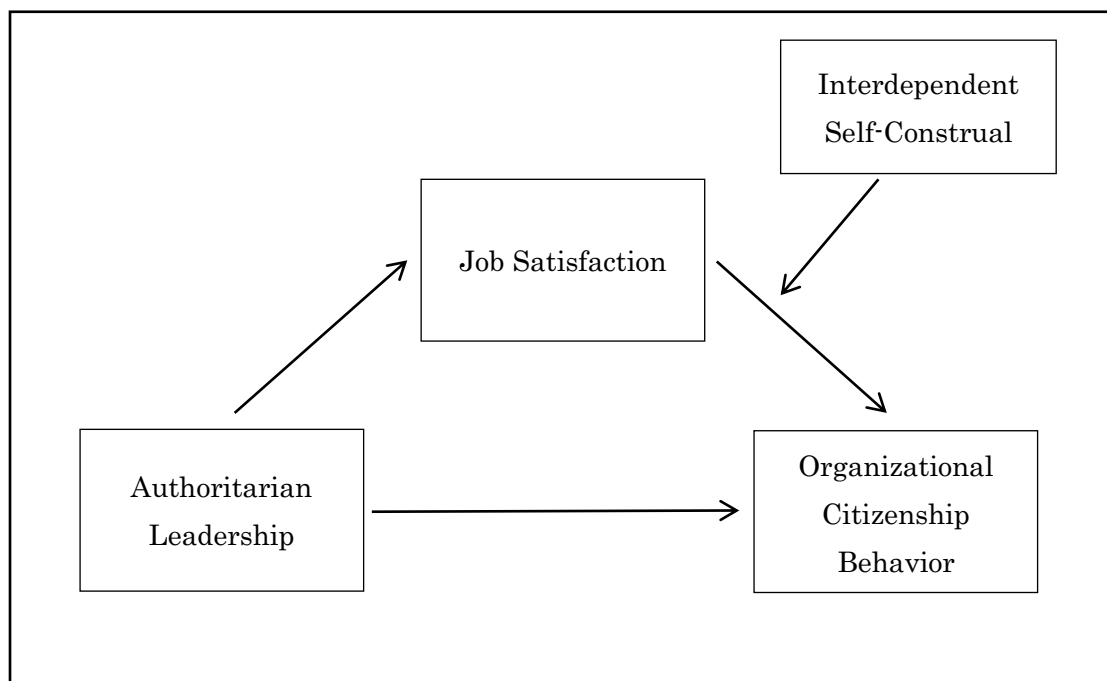


Figure 1. The Theoretical Model

Chapter 4. Empirical studies

4.1. Study 1

In this thesis, I examine whether authoritarian leadership of a boss influences subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction, and whether the indirect effect is moderated by interdependent self-construal. Study 1, which serves as a preliminary survey, empirically tested the moderation effect of interdependent self-construal. Although previous studies have pointed out positive influences of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior, I verified that interdependent self-construal adjusts the causal relationship. As mentioned in the discussion of preceding research, persons with high interdependent self-construal do not blindly act cooperatively with the surrounding persons and groups to which they belong. Rather, they observe their surroundings carefully and only behave cooperatively if the situation is positive to themselves. In other words, if individuals with high interdependent self-construal feel job satisfaction at the organization to which they belong, they would more actively practice organizational citizenship behavior. However, if they feel low job satisfaction, it is supposed that organizational citizenship behavior would be significantly decreased. That is, individuals with high interdependent self-construal, compared to those with low interdependent self-construal, are expected to show job satisfaction as having a strong

positive impact on organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, in Study 1 I examined the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals with high interdependent self-construal show a more positive influence of the causal relationship of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than do those with low interdependent self-construal.

For this study an online research company was used and a web questionnaire survey was conducted among Japanese regular employees working for large Japanese companies,³ who were asked to answer a questionnaire about job satisfaction, interdependent self-construal, and organization citizenship behavior. Multiple regression analysis was performed on the data, with organization citizenship behavior as the dependent variable and job satisfaction, interdependent self-construal, and their interaction term set as the independent variables.

³ I conducted preliminary screening so that only regular employees working for Japanese companies with more than 1,000 employees would be respondents.

Method

Study 1 was a preliminary study to investigate the moderating effect of interdependent self-construal. In this study, I checked the basic trend of this moderating effect as pretest. In order to extend into the verification of the moderated mediation model, I checked the basic trend of this moderating effect as pretest. Specifically, I conducted a questionnaire survey of employees working in large companies to examine the interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The number of participants was 125 and their average age was 37.46 years ($SD = 11.06$). The measurement of job satisfaction used five items based on Kitayama, Akutsu, Uchida, and Cole (2016) (“I am proud of my company/workplace,” “I think my company or workplace is really good,” “I think there is no use trying to improve my company/work environment [reverse],” “In respect to job, I’ve had as many opportunities as most people in my company,” and “I think my workplace is generally peaceful”). The reliability of this scale was shown by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.74. The measurement of interdependent self-construal at work used 10 items drawn from Kitayama et al. (2016) (“I care about what others at work think about me,” “I consider my relationship with the person and their position when I am interacting with fellow employees,” “It is important for me to maintain harmony with my coworkers at work,”

“Even when I strongly disagree with coworkers, I avoid confrontation,” “I often accept others’ views when we have conflicting views,” “I respect people who are modest about themselves,” “I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the company or the team at work,” “I often feel that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments,” “I feel that my fate has a mutually dependent relationship with that of others around me at work,” and “I change my attitude and behavior depending on who I am with and the situation.”). The reliability of this scale was shown by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.82. The measurement of OCB used a single item based on Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) and Koike (2009) (“I would take any job in order to continue working for this company”). Job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal were each measured with a 5-point Likert scale, and OCB was measured with a 3-point Likert scale. Additionally, age and gender were entered as covariates.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 1)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1. Job satisfaction	2.46	0.59	-		
2. Interdependent self-construal	3.02	0.57	.15	-	
3. OCB	1.66	0.57	.30**	.06	-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

Results and Discussion

Multiple regression analysis was conducted with job satisfaction, interdependent self-construal (ISC), and their interaction term as independent variables and OCB as the dependent variable, indicating an interaction between job satisfaction and OCB ($\beta = .393$, $t = 3.079$, $p < .01$) (Table 2). The result of slope analysis was that when ISC was high ($\beta = .484$, $t = 4.610$, $p < .001$), compared to when it was low ($\beta = .041$, $t = .361$, n.s.), job satisfaction had greater influence on OCB (Figure 2). Thus, the moderating effect of interdependent self-construal on the impact of job satisfaction on OCB was supported.

In Study 1, as a preliminary survey, I examined the moderation effect of interdependent self-construal on the influence from job satisfaction to organizational citizenship behavior. As expected, those with high interdependent self-construal showed a larger positive effect of job satisfaction than those with low interdependent self-construal. However, the design of Study 1 left room for doubt in terms of reliability and validity because the dependent variable was measured in only a single item. Therefore, it is important to re-examine this moderating effect of interdependent self-construal and moderated mediation model with the OCB scale.

Table 2: Regression Model (Study 1)

Variables	OCB	
	Coefficient	SE
Intercept	1.871	.220***
Age	-.002	.004
Gender	-.134	.105
Job satisfaction	.263	0.082**
ISC	.080	.090
Job satisfaction*ISC	.393	.128**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.; *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.

ISC_Interdependent Self-Construal

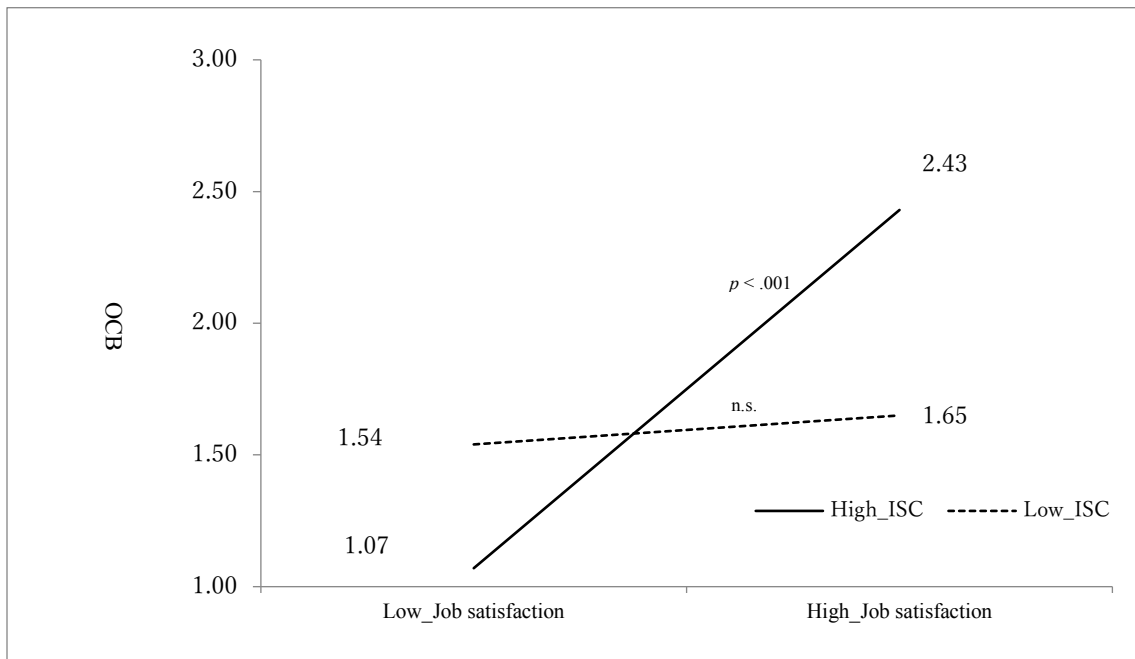


Figure 2. The Interaction Effect of Job Satisfaction and Interdependent Self-Construal on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Study 1)

4.2. Study 2

In Study 1, an interaction effect between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal on organizational citizenship behavior was seen. However, since in that study the variable of organization citizenship behavior was only single item (“In order to work for this company, I will do anything”), its reliability and validity could be questioned. Therefore, in Study 2 I measured organizational citizenship behavior on a scale and verified the reliability and validity of the results of Study 1. Furthermore, this study examined the moderating mediation model of the indirect effect of job satisfaction on the effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior as moderated by interdependent self-construal. Therefore, this study empirically tests the following three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals with high interdependent self-construal show a more positive influence of the causal relationship of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than do those with low interdependent self-construal.

Hypothesis 2: The causal relationship of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The indirect effect of job satisfaction on the impact of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is stronger when an individual has higher interdependent self-construal.

Method

Study 2 examined the moderated mediation model. A questionnaire survey for Japanese employees working in one large domestic company⁴ was conducted. The number of participants was 201 and their average age was 30.29 years ($SD = 4.02$). The same measurements of job satisfaction and interdependent at work were used as in Study 1. The measurement of OCB used nine items with reference to Hui, Law, & Chen (1999) (“I am willing to assist new colleagues in adjusting to the work environment,” “I am willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems,” “I am willing to cover work assignments for colleagues when needed,” “I take my job seriously and rarely make

⁴ This company conducts planning, manufacturing, and sales of clothing, miscellaneous goods, etc., as business products. It is a large company with about 5000 employees and consolidated net sales of about 200 billion yen.

mistakes,” “I comply with company rules and procedures even when nobody is watching and no evidence can be traced,” “I do not mind taking on new or challenging assignments,” “I am eager to tell outsiders good news about the company and clarify their misunderstandings,” “I make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the company,” and “I actively attend company meetings”). OCB was measured with a 7-point Likert scale whose reliability was shown by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.78. The measurement of authoritarian leadership used 10 items set with reference to Chen et al. (2014) (“My supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely,” “My supervisor determines all decisions in the organization, whether they are important or not,” “My supervisor always has the last say in the meeting,” “My supervisor always behaves in a commanding fashion in front of employees,” “I feel pressured when working with him/her,” “My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates,” “My supervisor scolds us when we can’t accomplish our tasks,” “My supervisor emphasizes that our group must have the best performance of all the units in the organization,” “We have to follow his/her rules to get things done. If not, he/she punishes us severely,” and “My supervisor does not share information with us”) on a 7-point Likert scale whose reliability was shown by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.89. In addition, gender, age, occupation, job title, and job change experience were entered as covariates.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 2)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Authoritarian leadership	2.57	1.09	-			
2. Job satisfaction	3.75	0.54	-.32**	-		
3. Interdependent self-construal	3.41	0.42	.01	.21**	-	
4. OCB	5.03	0.71	-.15**	.42**	.10	-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

Results and Discussion

Study 2 examined a moderated mediation model in which authoritarian leadership is an independent variable, job satisfaction is a mediator, interdependent self-construal is a moderator, and OCB is the dependent variable. First I re-examined the moderation effect of interdependent self-construal on OCB with job satisfaction, interdependent self-construal, and their interaction term as independent variables and OCB as the dependent variable. A multiple regression analysis was conducted whose result showed an interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal on OCB ($\beta = .390$, $t = 2.141$, $p < .05$) (Table 4). The result of slope analysis was that when interdependent self-construal is high ($\beta = .689$, $t = 5.892$, $p < .001$) job satisfaction had more influence on OCB, than when it is low ($\beta = .357$, $t = 3.028$, $p < .01$) (Figure 3).

Table 4: Regression Model (Study 2)

Variables	OCB	
	Coefficient	SE
Intercept	4.474	.900***
Gender	-.050	.108
Age	.010	.013
Job category	-.035	.071
Position	.226	.103*
Job change experience	.250	.106*
Job satisfaction	.523	.088***
ISC	.073	.110
Job satisfaction * ISC	.390	.182*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.; *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.

ISC_Interdependent Self-Construal

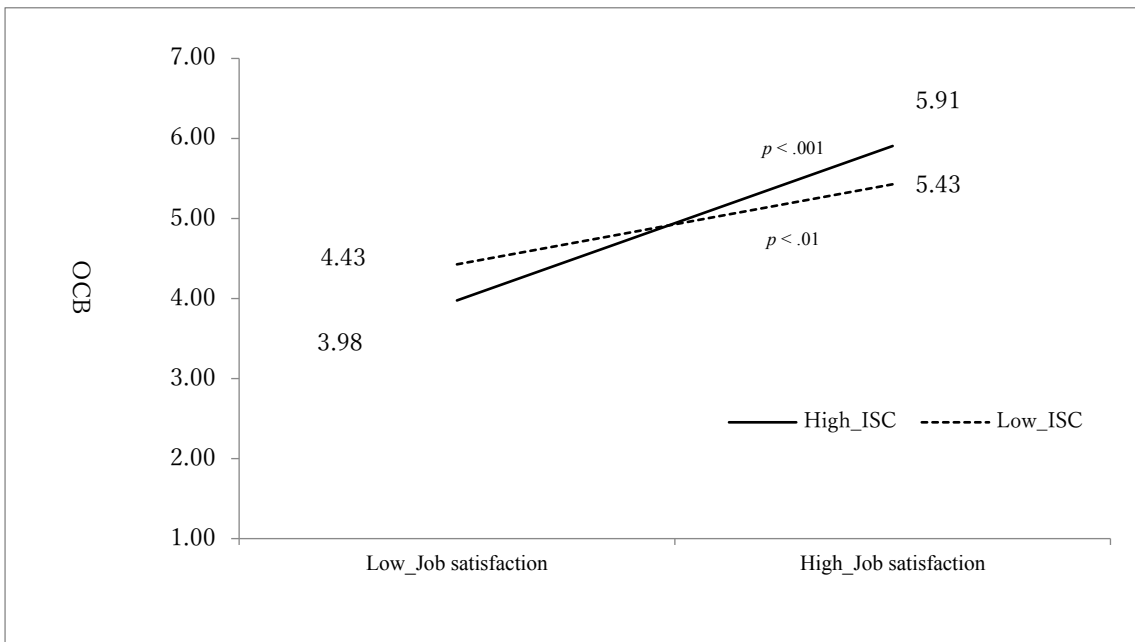


Figure 3. The Interaction Effect of Job Satisfaction and Interdependent Self-Construal on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Study 2)

We next investigated a mediation model of the influence of authoritarian leadership on OCB with mediation by job satisfaction. First, the direct effect of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction was significant ($\beta = -.151, t = -4.579, p < .001$), and the direct effect of job satisfaction on OCB was also significant ($\beta = .528, t = 5.744, p < .001$). The direct effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB was not significant ($\beta = -.005, t = -.120, n.s.$), but its indirect effect was significant (Indirect effect = $-.080, SE = .021, 95\% CI [-.128, -.045]$).

Finally, the moderated mediation model was examined using Hayes's (2013) process macro (Model 14), which found the interaction between interdependent self-construal and job satisfaction to be significant ($\beta = .391, t = 2.139, p < .05$). Moreover, the indirect effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB mediated by job satisfaction was stronger for people with high interdependent self-construal (Indirect effect = $-.103, SE = .029, 95\% CI [-.172, -.056]$) than for those with low interdependent self-construal (Indirect effect = $-.053, SE = .020, 95\% CI [-.102, -.021]$). That is, the indirect effect of job satisfaction on the effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB was higher among people with high ISC (Hayes index of moderated mediation = $-.059, SE = .029, 95\% CI [-.147, -.019]$). Thus, this moderated mediation model was supported (Figure 4).

In Study 2, we re-examined the interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal on organizational citizenship behavior that had been examined in Study 1. Also, a model with mediation through job satisfaction of the effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior was verified, as was a moderated mediation model in which the indirect effect was moderated by interdependent self-construal. First, in this study the interaction effect of interdependent self-construal between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior yielded the same result as in Study 1. In other words, those with high interdependent self-construal showed a greater effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than did those with low interdependent self-construal. In Study 2, I measured organizational citizenship behavior on a scale and obtained the same result as in Study 1, which appears to increase the reliability and validity of the hypothesis.

Next, I found the results expected for the mediation model of the effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. This can be interpreted as indicating that authoritarian leadership severely deteriorates job satisfaction and consequently weakens the positive effect of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, the result of the moderated mediation model suggests that the

indirect effect is more prominent in people with high interdependent self-construal than in those with low interdependent self-construal.

Next, with regard to the evaluation design of organizational citizenship behavior, a person who assessed job satisfaction, interdependent self-construal, and authoritarian leadership was asked in both Study 1 and Study 2 about the degree of organization citizenship behavior as well. Of course, it would be best to measure their actual organizational citizenship behavior. However, in fact it merely measured the subjective attitude of the person toward organizational citizenship behavior in general. Therefore, it is important to examine the reliability and validity of organizational citizenship behavior by measuring the actual organizational citizenship behavior based on others' evaluations.

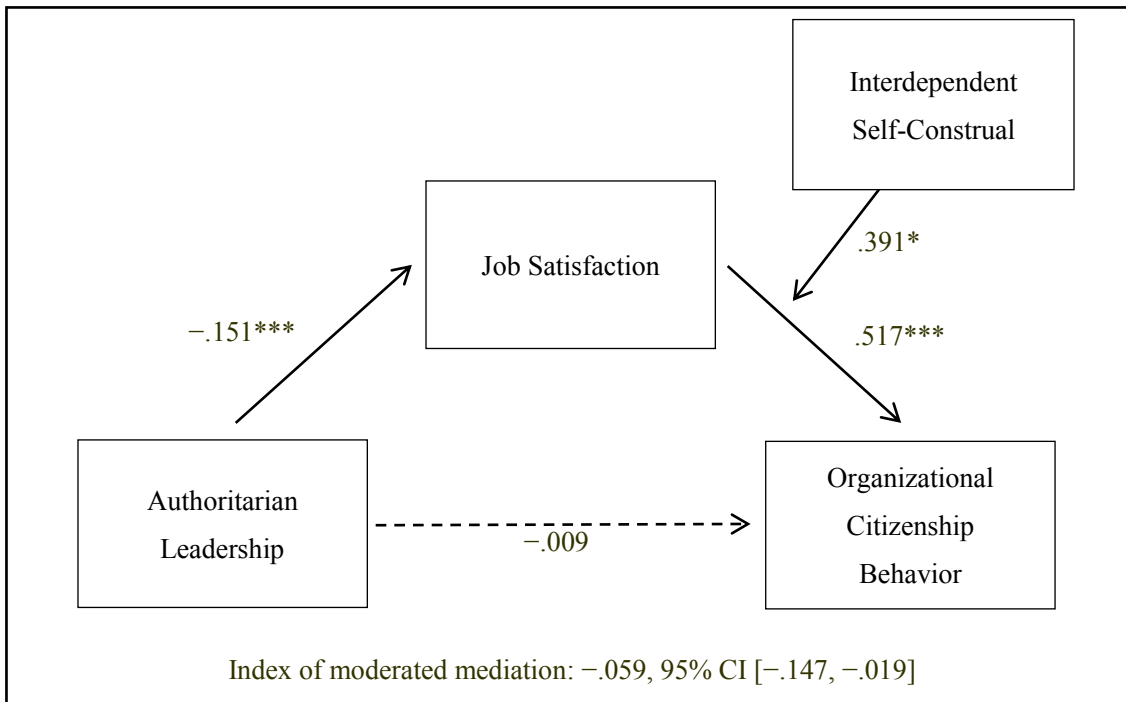


Figure 4: The Results for Moderated Mediation Model (Study 2)

4.3. Study 3

Studies 1 and 2 demonstrated that job satisfaction mediated the influence of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior, and that the indirect effects were moderated by interdependent self-construal. However, in these studies all variables were measured by the same person.

In particular, organizational citizenship behavior was the subjective answer of the respondent, not an independent measurement of the actual behavior. In previous studies, the importance of examining the difference between self-report and evaluation by others was pointed out (e.g., Carpenter, Berry, & Houston, 2014). Therefore, Study 3 was designed to pair an employee and his or her boss and have the boss evaluate the employee's organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, in this study I reconsidered the following three hypotheses using the degree of organizational citizenship behavior evaluated by the supervisor of the respondent.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals with high interdependent self-construal show a more positive influence of the causal relationship of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than do those with low interdependent self-construal.

Hypothesis 2: The causal relationship of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The indirect effect of job satisfaction on the impact of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is stronger when an individual has higher interdependent self-construal.

Method

Study 2 analyzed respondents' subjective answers on OCB as dependent variable. However, this merely measured the subjective attitude of the individual regarding organization citizenship behavior. Thus, Study 3 examined the actual degree of organizational citizenship behavior of respondents based on evaluation by another. More specifically, this study paired a respondent and his or her boss and had the boss evaluate the respondent's organizational citizenship behavior.

Participants were Japanese full-time employees working for IT companies. The number of participants was 71 and their average age was 33.85 years ($SD = 8.55$). The extent of their organizational citizenship behavior was measured by their boss's rating. For authoritarian leadership, job satisfaction, and interdependent self-construal, the same scales were used as in Study 2. The scale of organization citizenship behavior was that used in Study 2 with the subject changed from "I" to "this subordinate" (e.g., "This subordinate is willing to assist new colleagues in adjusting to the work environment" and "This subordinate is willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems"). In addition, the following item was excluded from the scale items: "This subordinate complies with company rules and procedures even when nobody is watching and no evidence can be traced," as it would be difficult for the supervisor to evaluate this item and because the

scale reliability when excluding this item (Cronbach's alpha: 0.86) was higher than when including it (Cronbach's alpha: 0.84). Additionally, the following items were covariates; gender, age, educational background, length of service, job category, position, job change experience, length of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, boss's gender, and the degree of performance under this boss.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 3)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Authoritarian leadership	2.60	1.20	-			
2. Job satisfaction	3.43	0.59	-.32**	-		
3. Interdependent self-construal	3.37	0.49	.03	.24*	-	
4. OCB	4.84	0.95	-.24*	.33**	.09	-

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Two-tailed tests.

Results and Discussion

First, as in the previous studies, the interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal on organizational citizenship behavior was examined. Results showed that there was a marginally significant interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal on OCB ($\beta = .637, t = 1.747, p < .10$) (Table 6). The result of slope analysis was that when interdependent self-construal is high ($\beta = .881, t = 3.310, p < .01$), it had more influence on OCB than when it is low ($\beta = .254, t = 1.001, n.s.$) (Figure 5).

A moderated mediation model was next examined in which authoritarian leadership was an independent variable, job satisfaction was a mediator, interdependent self-construal was a moderator, and organizational citizenship behavior (based on the evaluation of the boss) was a dependent variable. In the analysis, the mediation model was first examined to determine whether authoritarian leadership affected organizational citizenship behavior through the mediation of job satisfaction. First, the direct effect of authoritarian leadership on job satisfaction was significant ($\beta = -.129, t = -2.117, p < .05$) and the direct effect of job satisfaction on OCB was also significant ($\beta = .566, t = 2.940, p < .01$). The direct effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB was not significant ($\beta = -.055, t = -.591, n.s.$), but the indirect effect was significant (Indirect effect = $-.073, SE = .056, 90\% CI [-.199, -.010]$).

Finally, the moderated mediation model was examined using Hayes's (2013) process macro (Model 14), with the result that the interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal was marginally significant ($\beta = .650, t = 1.772, p < .1$). Furthermore, the indirect effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB mediated by job satisfaction was stronger for people with high interdependent self-construal (Indirect effect = $-.109, SE = .068, 90\% CI [-.246, -.018]$) than for those with low interdependent self-construal (Indirect effect = $-.027, SE = .058, 90\% CI [-.154, .036]$). That is, similar

to the results of Study 2, the indirect effect of job satisfaction on the effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB was higher, as people had high interdependent self-construal (Hayes index of moderated mediation = $-.084$, $SE = .074$, 90% CI [$-.254$, $-.003$]). Thus, this moderated mediation model was supported (Figure 6).

In Study 3, as in Studies 1 and 2, the interaction effect between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal for organization citizenship behavior was supported. Positive effects of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior were more conspicuous in people with high interdependent self-construal through all three studies. This result shows the robustness of this research model. Furthermore, the moderated mediation model in which the influence of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior through job satisfaction was moderated by interdependent self-construal was supported as well as in Study 2. In particular, in Study 3 organizational citizenship behavior was evaluated by another (i.e., employee's boss). The fact that the same results were obtained supporting the hypothesis across several studies was a very important support of the reliability and validity of this research model.

Based on these results, the interpretation may be advanced that authoritarian leadership is highly likely to have a negative influence on the psychological perception of the workplace by Japanese employees, and as a result it would appear that this would

reduce their organization citizenship behavior. In addition, the negative influence was more pronounced in people with high interdependent self-construal, which is highly dominant in Japanese culture. At first glance, people with high interdependent self-construal seem to behave cooperatively with their group and others, but it is obvious from the results of a series of studies that this changes according to their perception of the environment in which they are located. Because many Japanese have high interdependent self-construal, the claim that they would act cooperatively even if the workplace environment is somewhat worse needs to be revised from the viewpoint of productivity and group maintenance in the workplace. The series of results of the studies in this paper suggests this point.

Table 6: Regression Model (Study 3)

Variables	OCB	
	Coefficient	SE
Intercept	-.246	2.13
Gender	-.358	.258
Age	.034	.041
Educational background	.409	.141**
Length of service	-.059	.043
Job category	-.072	.043†
Position	1.399	1.039
Job change experience	.171	.452
Job change experience (Domestic company)	.020	.094
Job change experience (Foreign-owned company)	.150	.446
Length of the supervisor-subordinate relationship	.001	.005
Boss's gender	.775	.405†
The degree of performance under this boss.	.363	.133**
Job satisfaction	.568	.188**
ISC	.112	.237
Job satisfaction * ISC	.637	.365†

† $p < .1$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.; *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.

ISC_Interdependent Self-Construal

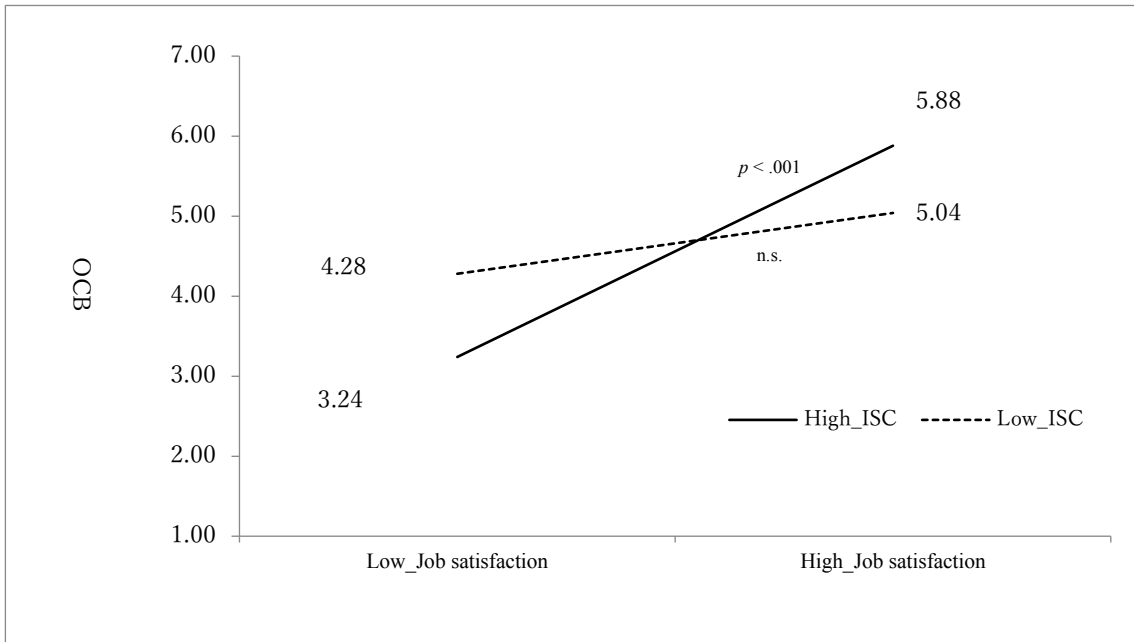


Figure 5. The Interaction Effect of Job Satisfaction and Interdependent Self-Constraint on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Study 3)

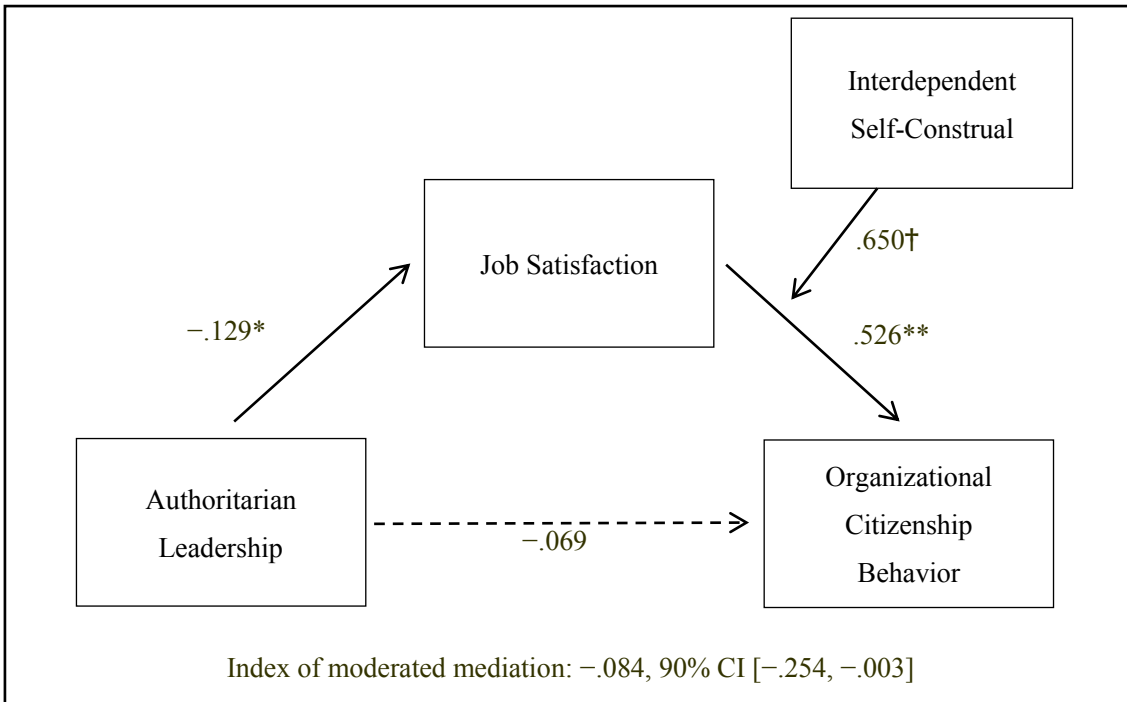


Figure 6: The Results for Moderated Mediation Model (Study 3)

Chapter 5: Conclusion

5.1. Summary

The three studies examined the psychological process whereby bosses' authoritarian leadership influences their subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior, and the moderation effect of interdependent self-construal.

Study 1 was an exploratory study of the interaction between interdependent self-construal and job satisfaction, which is supposed to mediate the effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. As expected, the results showed an interaction between job satisfaction and interdependent self-construal. In other words, people with high interdependent self-construal showed more significant positive effects of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship behavior than those with low interdependent self-construal. This means that people with high interdependent self-construal change their organizational citizenship behavior more dramatically, which supports one of the hypotheses of this study concerning the sensitivity of interdependent self-construal to the situation.

Study 2 verified the theoretical model that describes the process whereby authoritarian leadership affects organizational citizenship behavior through the mediation of job satisfaction, which is moderated in turn by interdependent self-construal. The

results showed a negative effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior that was mediated by job satisfaction. In other words, this study statistically supported the hypotheses that authoritarian leadership has a negative effect on job satisfaction and that low job satisfaction causes low organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, it was shown that the psychological process is moderated by interdependent self-construal. Therefore, people with high interdependent self-construal showed a more indirect effect than those with low interdependent self-construal.

Study 3 elaborated the theoretical model that had been verified in Study 2 and examined whether the model is valid when organizational citizenship behavior is evaluated, not by participants themselves but by people around them. In this study, employees' organizational citizenship behavior was evaluated by their bosses so as to measure it based on their actual behavior, which would be expected to increase the validity and reliability of the model. As in Study 2, the indirect effects of authoritarian leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior were confirmed, and the moderation effect of interdependent self-construal was shown.

5.2. Theoretical Contributions

This study focused on a negative aspect of leadership and examined a model combining the effect of the negative aspect on subordinates' performance with moderating factors. This study focused on authoritarian leadership, which is representative in Japan and China, and showed that leadership had an effect on subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior, mediated by subordinates' job satisfaction, and that this psychological effect was moderated by interdependent self-construal. The contributions of this theoretical model are as follows.

First, while previous studies of authoritarian leadership have been conducted in China and Taiwan, so far as the author knows there has been no study of authoritarian leadership in Japan. As Japan is part of East Asia, we can expect that knowledge and insights derived from studies of other East Asian countries could be applicable to Japan as well. This expectation has not previously been empirically verified, and it is worthwhile to conduct studies in Japan since Japanese and Chinese society have numerous differences, considering the changes in authoritarian leadership due to the higher standard of education and democratization (e.g., Farh, Liang, Chou, & Cheng, 2008). A contribution of this study is the examination of the negative effect of

authoritarian leadership on subordinates' psychological attitudes and their job performance in Japan.

Moreover, most previous studies of authoritarian leadership focused primarily on causal relations and psychological process and, with the exception of a few studies (e.g., Schaubroeck et al., 2016), did not examine its boundary conditions. This study focused on interdependent self-construal as a moderation variable, which further increases the contribution of this study.

As Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggested, interdependent self-construal is prevalent in East Asia, including Japan. It is interesting that such self-construal functions as a moderator of the psychological process above. This study suggests that this function as a moderator differs from the usual function of interdependent self-construal, which is an important theoretical contribution. In other words, this study did not accept the belief that people with high interdependent self-construal tend to blindly cooperate voluntarily with their organization or the people around them, and instead theoretically and empirically validated that people with high interdependent self-construal tend to change their cooperative behavior based on their observations and understanding of the norms of reciprocity in their society.

Certain previous studies suggested the importance of the question of reciprocity—whether others are cooperative when you are cooperative to them (e.g., Watabe, Terai, Hayashi, & Yamagishi, 1996). Reciprocity might be increased by interdependent self-construal since people with high interdependent self-construal have a tendency to strengthen their relationships with others (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000), and moreover, it may be supposed that they would expect that others would also behave in the same way. If such an expectation is contrary to reality, they would quite readily refrain from cooperating with others. By supporting the insight, this study contributed not only to the field of business but also to the field of cultural psychology.

5.3. Managerial Implications

This study also holds the potential of practical contributions to society. Today, the business environment that Japanese enterprises face is more uncertain than ever before, and only a few companies can enjoy rapid growth. In such a situation, the existence of a leader who can decide where to go and take action to achieve his or her goals is extremely important. “Leader” does not always mean the leader of a company, such as a CEO, but also refers to the leaders of each division or section of a company. After the war, almost all Japanese companies enjoyed an expanding market, and their goal was to manufacture high-quality products at a low cost because there was always somebody to buy them. Therefore, Japanese companies knew where to go or what to do and could achieve growth through hard work. The leaders of each division only needed to focus on controlling employees’ progress and dealing with unusual matters—they did not have to plan strategically about the direction of company operations in order to make a profit.

However, after the burst of the bubble, most Japanese companies stopped growing because of the intensification of international competition, shrinkage of the domestic market, innovations in technology, and so on (e.g., Higuchi, 2001; Yashiro, 1997). While some leading companies continued to grow, most other companies are suffering in

strained circumstances. In such a situation, leaders who can give the company direction, make strategic plans, and achieve their goals together with their employees are necessary. Unfortunately, leadership can have disastrous results if its social impact is abused. It is true that command and control are important for the smooth management of an organization, but when they are extreme, they will have a negative impact on subordinates' psychological attitudes.

On the one hand, previous studies suggested that clarifying one's vision, supporting employees, and helping them to identify themselves with their organization are crucial to superior leadership by increasing commitment and decreasing the incidence of employees leaving. On the other hand, recent studies have focused on the dark sides of leadership. Especially in Japanese companies, authoritarian leadership is considered the normal style for controlling an organization, and few people have considered its effects on subordinates' psychological attitudes and behaviors.

As previous studies have showed, in a society with a strong Confucian tradition, authoritarian leadership does not necessarily have a negative effect on subordinates' psychological attitudes, since they accept their bosses' dominant attitude (e.g., Chen et al., 2014). This tendency might have been common throughout Japanese history from the feudal society of the Edo Period to the Meiji and Showa Eras. In such a society, where

the existence of hierarchical power is basically accepted, it is questionable whether authoritarian leadership has a negative effect on subordinates' job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. This study was conducted on Japanese businesspeople in Japanese companies in order to empirically examine whether authoritarian leadership negatively affects employees' psychological attitudes and performance, which is another contribution of this study.

Studies in Western countries in the 1970s and 1980s indicated that Japanese companies and their employees were cooperative, but the tendency has disappeared since the 1990s, which is problematic for the companies (e.g., Organ, 2007). The Japanese tend to build and maintain good relationships with others, and if this strength fades away, that would be a great loss for Japanese companies. There are several reasons for such loss, among which this study focused on interdependent self-construal, which is prevalent in Japanese society, and aimed to discuss its associated trait of sensitivity to the situation from a theoretical point of view.

This study contributes to showing empirically that such a trait is crucial for people with high interdependent self-construal to do a better job that is not stipulated. A managerial method focusing only on regulation and achievement—not on the job satisfaction of employees—would not suffice for organizational development. In

Japanese society, where interdependent self-construal is prevalent, in order to promote behaviors of employees that are not evaluated directly but are important for maintaining the organization, it is extremely important to increase their job satisfaction. This study showed that bosses' leadership is crucial as an antecedent factor.

5.4. Limitations and Future Directions

Limitations

The limitations of this study are as follows. First, these three studies were conducted using a one-time survey, and it was impossible to define the respective causal relationships. It can be said theoretically that bosses' authoritarian leadership has an effect on employees' job satisfaction and that their job satisfaction has an effect on their organizational citizenship behavior. In order to prove these causal relationships, it would be better to conduct studies at a few times (i.e., Time 1 and Time 2) to examine whether the independent variable at Time 1 predicts the mediator and the dependent variable at Time 2. Another solution is to examine the theoretical model through qualitative research, such as interviewing the participants. By doing these further studies, this theoretical model would be more improved.

Second, this study posited a model whereby the effect of authoritarian leadership on organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by job satisfaction, but there could be other variables mediating the effect. For example, authoritarian leadership could make employees feel pressured and end up decreasing motivation for organizational citizenship behavior (Chen et al., 2014). Also, authoritarian leadership could have a negative effect

on organizational identification (e.g., Mael & Ashforth, 1992) and thereby decrease organizational citizenship behavior. Future studies need to examine these psychological processes and the moderation effect of interdependent self-construal.

Third, there might be another independent variable besides bosses' leadership; in particular, the organizational system should have a psychological effect on employees. This study did not focus on this point. The organizational system of many Japanese companies today is changing from seniority-based to performance-based.

After the war, most Japanese companies, especially major companies, adopted a lifetime employment system. Usually, people in such companies started working at about 20 years of age after their education finished and continued working at the same company until their retirement. Because they are ensured to be hired until their retirement, they were able to reassure and settle themselves. In return, they worked hard.

Seniority wage system was also functioned in those days. It helped improve employee morale since they were promised better positions and wages based on the length of their tenure at the company. This system requires rapid company growth and increases in the number of positions, so its adoption was rational when Japanese companies enjoyed constant economic growth. However, because of the current economic downturn, Japanese companies can no longer use this system.

In fact, most Japanese companies began adopting a performance-based system since it allows the flexible adjustment of wages. At first, it was expected that employees' morale would increase because their performance was constantly evaluated, with positive effects on their wages. However, many companies introduced the system focusing on individual performance, and as a result it became a barrier to motivating employees to contribute to a team. Moreover, the system was in disorder since it was hard to evaluate employees properly.

Future studies need to evaluate the model of this study, considering the perspective of an organizational system mentioned above. As previous studies pointed out, the best style of leadership varies from situation to situation, and it is crucial to examine the boundary conditions of authoritarian leadership and the organizational system. For example, it has been shown that authoritarian leadership can be effective depending on the situation (e.g., Niu, Wang, & Cheng, 2009).

To sum up, it would be valuable for future studies to discuss this topic by considering factors of organizations and of the environment in order to examine employees' detailed psychological mechanisms.

Future Directions

The purpose of this study was to draw insights from organizational management to increase the competitiveness of Japanese companies suffering from a stagnating economy. The important point of great leadership is to make employees' attitudes toward the company positive and increase their morale. However, as mentioned above, the social power of leadership might have negative effects. An organizational hierarchy based on command and control might promote the power of leaders indirectly, but we should not overlook its negative effects on employees and their behavior in maintaining the organization, especially at Japanese companies where teamwork is said to be deteriorating. On the other hand, this study suggests that when employees' positive attitudes toward their organization and job satisfaction increase, their voluntarily cooperative behavior would be promoted since interdependent self-construal is prevalent in Japanese society. Such a change in employees' psychological attitudes might not have a direct effect on job performance, but it is meaningful from a long-term point of view in order to achieve organizational growth. It is to be hoped that the insights of this study will aid future studies of the productivity and competitiveness of Japanese companies.

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