YAŞAR UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL

MASTER THESIS

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, MORAL IDENTITY, CWB, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

MELİSA NAKIP

THESIS ADVISOR: ASSIST. PROF. (PHD) EVRİM GÜLERYÜZ

MA IN PSYCHOLOGY

BORNOVA / İZMİR
July 2024

JURY APPROVAL PAGE

We certify that, as the jury, we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

Jury Members: **Signature:**

Assist. Prof. (PhD) Evrim GÜLERYÜZ
Yaşar University

Assoc. Prof. (PhD) Oya MORTAN SEVİ
Yaşar University

Assist. Prof. (PhD) Muazzez Deniz GİRAY
Toros University

Prof. (PhD) Yücel ÖZTÜRKOĞLU
Director of the Graduate School

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, MORAL IDENTITY, CWB, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

Nakıp, Melisa

MA, Psychology

Advisor: Assist. Prof. (PhD) Evrim Güleryüz

July 2024

Active and passive CWB behaviors show significant differences in terms of urgency, intensity, and risk. Therefore, it is important to address and examine CWB behaviors as active and passive. In the literature, no study has been found examining the moderating effect of moral identity internalization and perceived organizational support on the relationship between perceived organizational justice and active-passive CWBO/CWBI. The aim of this study is to investigate the moderating effect of moral identity internalization and perceived organizational support on the relationship between organizational justice and active-passive CWBO/CWBI. In the study, which sampled 402 full-time employees, a negative relationship was observed between perceived distributive, procedural justice and active-passive CWBO, and between perceived interactional justice and active-passive CWBI. Additionally, high moral identity internalization was found to have a buffering effect on the relationship between perceived distributive justice and passive CWBO, and the relationship between perceived interactional justice and active CWBI. However, perceived organizational support did not show a moderating effect on the relationship between perceived organizational justice and active-passive CWBO/CWBI. All findings were discussed in detail. This study contributes to the literature by introducing a Turkish adapted version of the active-passive CWBO/CWBI scale and presenting the findings on the antecedent variables with which this variable is related. Furthermore, based on the research findings, recommendations are provided to managers and human resources professionals.

Keywords: perceived organizational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, moral identity internalization, active-passive counterproductive work behavior (CWB), perceived organizational support.

ÖZ

ALGILANAN ÖRGÜTSEL ADALET, AHLAK KİMLİK, CWB VE ALGILANAN ÖRGÜTSEL DESTEK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Nakıp, Melisa
Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji
Danışman: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Evrim Güleryüz
Temmuz 2024

Aktif ve pasif CWB davranışları aciliyet, yoğunluk ve risk açısından önemli farklılıklar gösterir. Bu nedenle, CWB davranışlarının aktif ve pasif olarak ele alması ve incelemesi önemlidir. Literatürde, algılanan örgütsel adalet ve aktif-pasif CWBO/CWBI arasındaki ilişkide ahlaki kimlik içselleştirmesinin ve algılanan örgütsel desteğin düzenleyici etkisini inceleyen çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, algılanan örgütsel adalet ve aktif-pasif CWBO/CWBI arasındaki ilişkide ahlaki kimlik içselleştirmesinin ve algılanan örgütsel desteğin düzenleyici etkisini incelemektir. Örneklemini 402 tam zamanlı çalışanın oluşturduğu araştırmada, algılanan dağıtımsal adalet ve prosedürel adalet ile aktif-pasif CWBO arasında, algılanan etkileşimli adalet ile aktif-pasif CWBI arasında negatif bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca, yüksek ahlaki kimlik içselleştirmesinin algılanan dağıtımsal adalet ile pasif CWBO arasındaki ilişkide ve algılanan etkileşimli adalet ile aktif CWBI arasındaki ilişkide tampon etki gösterdiği bulunmuştur. Ancak, algılanan örgütsel destek, algılanan örgütsel adalet ile aktif-pasif CWBO/CWBI arasındaki ilişkide bir düzenleyici etki göstermemiştir. Tüm bulgular ayrıntılı olarak tartışılmıştır. Bu çalışma, aktif-pasif CWBO/CWBI ölçeğinin Türkçe versiyonunu uyarlayarak ve bu değişkenin ilişkili olduğu öncül değişkenlerle ilgili bulguları sunarak literatüre katkıda bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca, araştırma bulgularına dayalı olarak yöneticilere ve insan kaynakları uzmanlarına öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: algılanan örgütsel adalet, dağıtımsal adalet, prosedürel adalet, etkileşimsel adalet, ahlaki kimlik içselleştirmesi, aktif-pasif üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışı (ÜKİD), algılanan örgütsel destek

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my advisor, Assist. Prof. (PhD) Evrim Güleryüz. I am eternally grateful that she noticed the light within me throughout my master's degree and made my light shine even brighter. Her unwavering motivation, guidance enriched with extensive knowledge, and exceptional patience were invaluable throughout my thesis journey. In addition to her expertise in thesis consultancy, I am grateful for the way she bolstered my self-belief, illuminated my path with profound life guidance, and provided unwavering support for my progress in this area. And finally, Assist. Prof. (PhD) Evrim Güleryüz, I am grateful that you opened new doors full of flowers in my life. You mean much more than a thesis advisor to me and will remain forever.

In addition, I would like to extend my deepest gratitude to the esteemed members of my thesis defense committee, Assoc. Prof. (PhD) Oya Mortan Sevi and Assist. Prof. (PhD) Muazzez Deniz Giray. Their creation of a supportive environment during my defense and their constructive feedback on my thesis were truly invaluable. Moreover, their recommendations for future research have greatly motivated me. Their unwavering dedication and thoughtful contributions have significantly enriched my academic journey, and I am profoundly grateful for their exceptional support and guidance.

Also, I would like to thank my dear friend and colleague, Burcu Taşkan, for her sincere and expert guidance throughout this process. I'm grateful for our paths crossing and for her constant support.

One of my most important expressions of thanks is directed towards my dear family and loved ones, to whom I would like to express my deepest and most heartfelt gratitude for being by my side and supporting me throughout this process. I am especially grateful to my mother for patiently listening to me and helping me practice my presentations, and to my father for supporting my academic pursuits and instilling determination in me. I appreciate my brother for his constant guidance; knowing that he will always be there to guide me fills me with confidence. In addition, I am grateful to a very valued individual for providing continuous support, motivation, unwavering belief, and endless encouragement.

I am profoundly grateful to have such incredible support, whose belief in me has been instrumental in my success. Thank you all for your unwavering support and encouragement.

Lastly, I extend my heartfelt thanks to all participants for dedicating their time and contributing to science.

Melisa NAKIP

İzmir, 2024

TEXT OF OATH

I really affirm and certify that my research, entitled “THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, MORAL IDENTITY, CWB, AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT” and filled out as a master's thesis, was composed without the use of any outside help that would go against accepted practices and ethical principles in science. To the best of my knowledge and belief, I now certify that all ideas and content derived, either directly or through ingestion, from outside sources are cited and acknowledged in the text as well as in the list of sources.

Melisa NAKIP

16.07.2024

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

CWB	: Counterproductive Work Behavior
CWBI	: Interpersonal Counter Work Behavior
CWBO	: Organizational Counter Work Behavior
ACWBI	: Active Interpersonal Counter Work Behavior
ACWBO	: Active Organizational Counter Work Behavior
PCWBI	: Passive Interpersonal Counter Work Behavior
PCWBO	: Passive Organizational Counter Work Behavior
DJ	: Distributive Justice
IJ	: Interactional Justice
PJ	: Procedural Justice
MII	: Moral Identity Internalization
POJ	: Perceived Organizational Justice
POS	: Perceived Organizational Support
OS	: Organizational Support
COR	: Conservation of Resources
S-E Model	: Stress Emotion Model

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Employees can occasionally stray from their expected job performance, showing attitudes and behaviors that don't align with the organization's goals, potentially disrupting its functioning. Counterproductive work behaviors are actions intentionally performed by workers that violate corporate norms and values, leading to adverse consequences (Polatcı et al., 2014). The term counterproductive work behavior, which has many definitions in the literature, was initially coined by Hollinger (1986) as "Deviant Behaviors". Spector and Fox (2005) defined unproductive workplace conduct as deliberate acts that injure or aim to injure the company or persons working there, such as coworkers, supervisors, or clients. Sackett and DeVore (2001) offer a broader definition, characterizing deliberate behaviors of a company person that go opposed to the organization's lawful interests as unproductive work conduct. In addition, there are three crucial criteria for categorizing a behavior as counterproductive work behavior (Sackett & DeVore, 2002). The first criterion emphasizes that the focus should be on the behavior itself rather than its outcomes. Not every counterproductive behavior necessarily leads to harmful results; thus, the potential for harm, regardless of actual consequences, is crucial in identifying counterproductive behaviors. Secondly, these behaviors typically exhibit traits such as being illegal, immoral, or deviant. In other words, being immoral is another criterion for defining it as counterproductive work. Lastly and most importantly, these behaviors are voluntary, meaning individuals engage in them willingly (Sackett and DeVore, 2002). The literature on counterproductive work behaviors has focused on several issues related to the precursors, outcomes, and dimensions of this behaviors (Gruys & Sacket, 2003; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Lian et al., 2014; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector et al., 2006; Yuan et al., 2018). Classifications were used in the initial studies to comprehend the complexity of unproductive work behavior (Spector et al., 2006). According to Bennett and Robinson (2000), researchers have concentrated on distinguishing whether counterproductive work behavior is organizational or interpersonal. Crucial perspectives were obtained from systematic reviews that demonstrated notable distinctions between organizational and relational

counterproductive work behavior (Berry et al., 2007). Nevertheless, research published on the subject indicates that diversity in substance appears to be of greater significance than differences in aims, as deviant workplace behaviors vary in both the goal and the substance of specific actions (Marcus et al., 2016). In recent years, Evans and colleagues (2023) have introduced a novel classification scheme for counterproductive work behaviors, categorizing them as follows: CWBI: active and passive, and CWBO: active and passive. Active deviant workplace behaviors encompass activity that is focused on motion that detriment legitimate interests, disregarding regulations regarding organizational and employee conduct. Conversely, passive CWBs undermine the organization without being effective; they breach regulations regarding employee obligations by abstaining from action. In essence, one involves proactive behaviors while the other involves passive behaviors. According to Cuddy et al. (2007), the disparity between them lies in the urgency, severity, and danger characteristics. In addition, based on Theory of Rational Choice (Becker, 1968), offenders evaluate the potential harm to others and opt for actions that minimize their own risk while achieving desired objectives. Consequently, active CWB involves overt actions with a direct risk of harm, whereas passive CWB is indirect and covert, carrying a reduced risk (Evans et al., 2023).

The concept justice of organization pertains to the way in which workers view and react to fairness within the company (Greenberg, 1987; Ployhart & Ryan, 1997). The theory of social interchange, that contends that workers react with unproductive work actions to inequitable and unequal behavior by the company, has been used in the majority of studies to examine the relationship between low organizational fairness and unproductive work actions (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). Workers who believe that company processes are unfair may try to make things fair by punishing individuals who are considered to be at fault (Aquino et al., 2006). Organizational injustice constitutes a moral transgression as it violates moral and societal norms, triggering unfavorable ethical feelings and responses (Folger & Skarlicki, 2005). These adverse ethical sentiments can fuel counterproductive work behaviors as a kind of payback to restore communal and ethical balance (O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011). On the other hand, some people use CWB to respond destructively to organizational injustice, whereas others do not (Wu et al., 2016).

People's moral identities are the moral aspect of their communal identities and a powerful source of ethical drive that directs ethical conduct (Hardy & Carlo, 2005). According to Lapsley and Lasky (2001), "chronically available, readily primed, and easily activated schemas for processing social information" are present in people with moral identities. Moral character is thus a self-regulating process that pushes humans to act morally to preserve their integrity (Blasi, 2004). Additionally, even in situations when the company gains, an ethical character might thwart immoral supportive conduct actions (Matherne & Litchfield, 2012). Cheating, theft, and sabotage are universally condemned actions that disrupt societal and organizational norms, violating moral standards (Kidwell & Kochanowski, 2005). According to Ilies et al. (2013), individuals often experience considerable moral shame upon realizing their involvement in counterproductive work behaviors and being informed of its deviation from societal norms. Consequently, people with a strong ethical character struggle to justify counterproductive work behaviors as ethically acceptable and are thus less inclined to participate in such behaviors. Furthermore, studies show that ethical character reduces the effect of organizational injustice on unproductive work actions. For example, Skarlicki and colleagues (2008) found that when faced with relational injustice, client service workers who had a strong moral character shown less client sabotaging than those who had a weak ethical identity. Greenbaum et al. (2013) found that workers with strong moral character didn't mistreat clients to get even with bosses. Moreover, Wu and colleagues (2016) discovered that ethical character moderates the association between unproductive workplace actions and work exhaustion and that among people with low ethical character but not high ethical identities, there was a significant indirect effect of organizational justice on counterproductive work behaviors through workplace exhaustion. Lastly, Mingzheng and colleagues (2014) discovered that moral identity acted as a protective factor, buffering the association between institutional unfairness and and unproductive work actions among Chinese government employees. Upon review of the literature, it is apparent that there is a lack of studies that investigate the correlation between active-passive CWB and perceived organizational justice while also investigating how moral identity influences this association in a moderation way.

The degree to which workers feel their employer appreciates their efforts is concerned about their welfare and attends to their socioemotional needs is known as POS, or

perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Three processes help understand how POS affects employee behavior (Baran et al., 2012). First, according to the reciprocity norm, workers and the company ought to have a mutual connection. When a worker receives substantial backing from the company, they feel obligated to reciprocate by exhibiting favorable attitudes and actions. Secondly, POS provides employees with socio-emotional satisfaction. Psychological requirements like respect, validation, and belonging provide organizational commitment and the formation of social identity. It also helps to reduce stress and increase the well-being of every employee. Third, POS also means that the organization is ready to reward employees (Abas et al., 2015). According to earlier studies, POS promotes emotions of responsibility, confidence in the company, workplace engagement, commitment to the company, corporate citizenship in behavior at work, and responsibility orientations (AlKerdawy, 2014; Karavardar, 2014; Kurtessis et al., 2015). Prior studies have primarily examined the association between POS and favorable outcomes, but it has also been linked to unfavorable attitudes and actions. According to research by Vatankhah and colleagues (2017), POS mediated the association between flight attendants' unproductive work actions and exceptionally well work behaviors. Bal (2020) discovered that in government personnel, the association between POS and unproductive work actions was mediated by company cynicism. Lastly, Liu et al. (2011) discovered that the association between characteristics of personality and unproductive work actions was modareted by POS. It appears that the moderating effect of perceived organizational support in the association between perceived organizational justice and active-passive CWB has not been examined in prior research.

Upon reviewing the literature, correlation was observed among counterproductive work behavior, perceived organizational justice, moral identity, and perceived organizational support. Despite existing studies on these relationships, it has been noted that counterproductive work behavior has not been examined as active and passive in this relationship pattern in both domestic and international studies. Additionally, no Turkish adaptation study of the active-passive counterproductive work behavior scale has been found in the literature. In this context, it is crucial to categorize counterproductive work behavior as active and passive and explore its relationship with other variables, which would significantly contribute to the literature.

Investigating the correlation between active-passive CWB and perceived organizational justice, as well as examining the moderating role of moral identity and perceived organizational support in this context, holds paramount importance. By the classification of active-passive counterproductive work behavior in research, we can effectively identify risk factors associated with counterproductive work behavior and mitigate negative outcomes. Furthermore, by categorizing counterproductive work behavior into active and passive forms, which inflict substantial harm on individuals and organizations, future studies can be enriched and facilitate comparisons of results.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This section comprises theoretical explanations of the fundamental concepts underlying the subject of the research, as well as research conducted both domestically and internationally.

2.1. What is CWB?

In the literature, unproductive work actions —such as unkindness—are investigated under rather diverse headings (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), deviance (Hollinger, 1986; Robinson & Bennet, 1995), antisocial conduct (Kalyva, 2011; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), vengeance (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), delinquent (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), abusing (Keashly et al., 1994), and organizational aggression (Spector 1975; Baron & Neuman, 1996). For the first time in history, Spector and Fox (1999) used the "counterproductive" term to express organizational harmful behavior. Since then, scholars have attempted to describe this behavior and the term CWB has been used extensively in the academic field. Workplace activities that intentionally and consistently cause harm to the company and its members are referred to as unproductive workplace actions (Le Roy et al., 2012). Sackett and DeVore (2009) described counterproductive work behavior as an organizational member behaving in a way that goes against the company's genuine interests. Similar to the definitions above, Spector and Fox (2005) defined counterproductive work behaviors as conscious actions that harm or are done with this intention to the company or other individuals inside the company (colleagues, managers, customers). Besides this, unproductive work actions are characterized as actions that cause a decrease in organizational efficiency by having a direct impact on the goals and tasks of the company, negatively affecting all its personnel and procedures (Mann et al., 2012; Klotz & Buckley, 2013). What is generally understood from the definitions is that counterproductive work behaviors harm the organization by reducing the productivity of employees or affecting their duties and characteristics (Le Roy et al., 2012). Examples of counterproductive work behavior include; intentional actions such as aggression, theft, etc., and passive actions such as consciously not complying with the rules and

principles, not doing the job properly, and unexcused absence (Penney & Spector, 2005; Sacket & DeVore, 2009).

Three fundamental characteristics must be present for a behavior to be classified as unproductive in accordance with Marcus and Schuler's (2004) criteria. These are:

1. Voluntary Action: The behavior must be performed at the individual's own will.
2. Potential for Harm: Even if the behavior doesn't lead to undesirable outcomes, it should possess the capacity to damage the company or other individuals.
3. Legal Violation: Such behavior should violate the laws or regulations.

Besides this, Goode (2008) argued that four conditions need to be met for a negative behavior to be considered counterproductive. These conditions are stated as follows:

1. A task or rule must be violated in the presence of an employee.
2. The relevant employee should react to or assess this violation.
3. This response is generally negative.
4. A situation related to deviant behavior must emerge (as cited in Ayazlar & Güzel, 2013).

Additionally, there is a common point emphasized in these behaviors, and that is that the behaviors are intentional. Therefore, Spector and Fox (2005) report that among the most crucial characteristics of unproductive work conduct is that it is done consciously to cause harm. Another recurring theme is that, even though CWB may not have directly hurt the establishment or its constituents, these actions still run the danger of doing so. Lastly, CWB can be categorized as unproductive work actions aimed at the company and unproductive work actions aimed at the staff (Fox et al., 2001).

2.1.1. CWB Types

It can be observed that researchers in the literature have divided counterproductive work behavior into distinct yet non-contradictory subcategories. While some researchers address counterproductive work behavior individually, others examine it categorically (Kanten & Kanten, 2016). For example, Gruys (2000) proposed that there are 66 distinct counterproductive work behaviors, which he organized into 11 categories. These include theft and related activities, damage to property, improper use

of knowledge, improper use of time and assets, non-compliance with workplace health and safety regulations, low attendance (absenteeism), poor quality work, use of alcoholic or illicit substances, not appropriate either verbally or physically behavior, and improper use of knowledge.

Keashly et al. (1994) define workplace misbehavior (behavior without physical contact, verbal or use of words) as counterproductive work behavior. These types of behavior include: criticizing individuals (on matters not related to work), showing anger by shouting, swearing-name-calling, gossiping-slandering, attempting to inappropriately assert authority, discrimination-acting unfairly, etc. (Keashly et al., 1994). Moretti (1986) lists the kind of undesirable, unproductive actions that result in significant financial harm in organizations as follows: theft, sabotage, damage, waste, alcohol or drug use. Pearson and colleagues (2005) categorized counterproductive work behaviors under specific headings. Under deviant behavior, aggressive and uncivil, norm-violating behaviors are included. The "physical violence" category includes behaviors characterized by aggression and violence. Moderate to high levels of violence, whether physical or non-physical, consistently exhibited aggressive behaviors, are defined as harassment. Acts of non-physical yet persistent aggressive behavior falling between moderate and low levels of violence are referred to as bullying.

On the other hand, behaviors that are not done unconsciously or to cause direct harm are called discourteous behavior and the severity of these behaviors is low (Pearson et al., 2005). Neuman and Baron (1998) have discussed that counterproductive work behaviors can manifest as revenge, rudeness, psychological harassment, deviant behavior, misuse, deviation from productivity, cynicism, psychological intimidation, workplace violence, and organizational aggression. Table 2.1, for the most part, provides a summary of counterproductive work behaviors that are commonly utilized in the literature.

Table 2.1. Types of Counterproductive Work Behavior

CWB Types	Examples
To harm others	Abuse, Physical and Emotional Abuse, Threatening, Bad Criticism, Insulting, Belittling, Ignoring, Preventing Individual from Working, Aggressive Behaviors, Gossip, Discrimination, Social Pressure, Psychological Violence, Racism, Retaliation, Sexual Harassment, etc.
To swaddle	Sabotaging, Damaging Property, Destroying Machinery and Goods, Stopping/Slowing Production, etc.
Production deviance	Pretending to Do, Misusing Information, Time, and Resources, Poor Work Quality, Waste, etc.
Retreat	Isolation, Absenteeism, Being Late for Work, Leaving Promptly, and Having More Time off Than Necessary
Stealing	Theft, Corruption, Bribery, etc.
Others	Non-compliance with Occupational Health and Safety Rules, Alcohol/Drug Use, Distrust, etc.

Sources: Concepts in the table were compiled from Hollinger and Clark (1982), Robinson and Bennett (1995), Baron and Neuman (1996), Giacalone and Greenberg (1997), Gruys (2000), Kaukianien et al. (2001), Keashly (2001), Bies and Tripp (2005), Kelloway (2010), Pearson et al. (2005).

2.1.2. Dimensions of CWB

Generally, counterproductive work behaviors are divided into different dimensions. Hollinger and Clark (1983) first studied counterproductive work behaviors, which were divided into two headings: property deviance (ownership) and production deviance (Akkaya, 2019; Gültac & Erigüc, 2019; Ocel, 2010). Behaviors such as theft, bribery, misuse, and destruction of organizational property are at the dimension of property deviance; behaviors such as poor performance, absenteeism, violation of work rules, carelessness, using substances or drinking at work, etc. are included in the manufacturing deviation dimension (Hollinger & Clark, 1983; Hollinger, 1986).

Bennett and Robinson (1995), inspired by Hollinger and Clark's classification, created a typology of deviant behaviors within the organization (4p's typology). Counterproductive work behavior was examined from two-dimensional *"individual (interpersonal)"* and *"organizational"* (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Individual

(interpersonal) and organizational counterproductive work behaviors each consist of two separate subheadings. To the categories of property and production deviation, two more subgroups have been added: *political deviation* and *personal aggressiveness.* Figure 2.1. displays the typology of deviant behaviors within the organization (4p's typology).

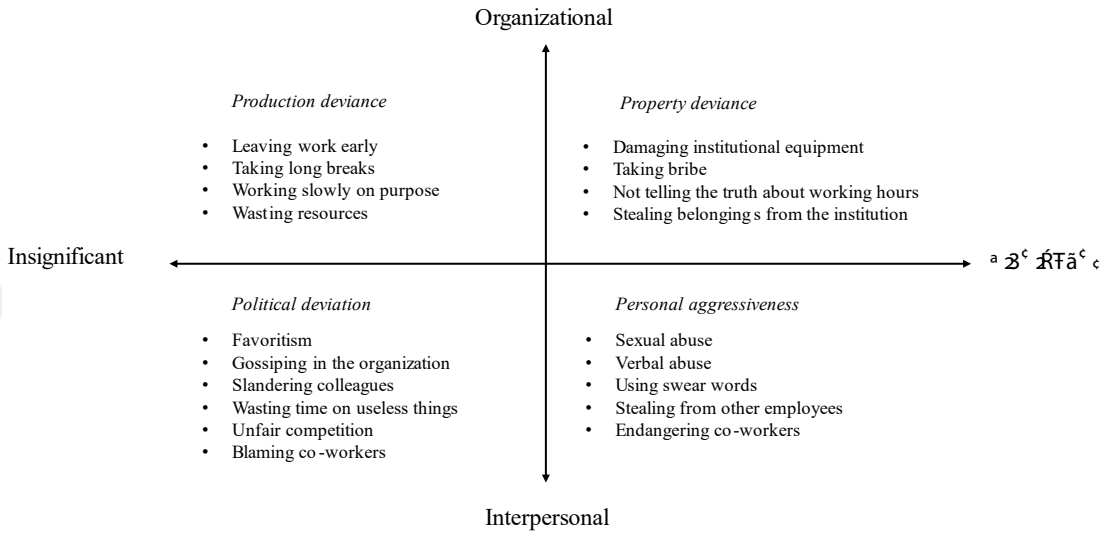

Figure 2.1. Typology of Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Source: Robinson & Bennett (1995)

Figure 2.1. as can be seen, counterproductive work behaviors have a multifaceted axis with organization-individual (interpersonal) and significant-insignificant dimensions. Deviant behaviors that are against the institution and are insignificant are behaviors that production deviance. Behaviors like quitting job promptly, having extended breaks, doing work slowly on purpose, wasting resources, etc. are examples of manufacturing deviation. Against the institution, significant behavior is defined as property deviance. Some of the behaviors that property deviance are taking bribes and stealing belongings from the institution. The political deviation dimension is on the interpersonal and insignificant axis, it includes behaviors such as favouritism, wasting time on useless things, blaming co-workers, etc. On the other hand, personal aggressiveness is on the interpersonal and significant axis and comprises thieving from other workers, using profanity, sex abuse, hurtful remarks, and putting coworkers in danger (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The 4p typology is the foundation for numerous researches, including those on tyranning, virtual laziness, workplace fierceness , and

CWB (Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Fox et al., 2001; Kelloway et al., 2006; LaVan & Martin, 2008).

Determining the behavior aim is another way to expose the dimensions of CWB. Organizations are targeted by production and property deviance, leading to the perception that CWBO is aimed at the organization (Fox & Spector, 2005). In contrast, it is possible to see CWBI as the result of personal aggressiveness and political deviance, both of which target specific members of the corporation (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fox et al., 2001). For instance, putting little effort into work and knowingly wasting company material falls into the CWBO dimension while making fun of co-workers and swearing at co-workers falls into the CWBI dimension. Despite a moderate correlation, these two dimensions are indicative of distinct aspects within CWB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Gruys (2000) revealed that there are 87 different CWBs and grouped them under 11 categories in her study titled "The Organizational Dimensions of Disruptive Worker Activity". The 11 fundamental categories consist of stealing and associated activities, damaging assets, handling knowledge improperly, wasting precious time and assets, acting in a way that is unacceptable for the safety of the workplace, being absent, producing subpar work (slow, sloppy work), abusing substances or drinking, acting inappropriately verbally or physically, and engaging in inappropriate behavior. In a subsequent study, Fox et al. (2001) compiled a thorough inventory of 64 CWB behaviors by consolidating multiple sources. Ultimately, they categorized CWB into five distinct groups. The initial group was labelled as abuse, encompassing aggressive and destructive actions toward fellow individuals. Examples of behaviors in this group include threatening, ignoring, humiliating, or engaging in psychological or physical violence against a colleague (Yavuzsan, 2020). The second category referred to product deviation, which is the act of deliberately doing a job wrong, doing it slowly, and violating rules. Following this, there were categories for sabotage and theft. Theft (stealing), defined as a social violation or ethical violation, is the seizure of goods and money belonging to other employees or the organization (Dogruöz and Özdemir, 2018). Sabotage is deliberately causing harm to the organization. Deliberately damaging organization-owned property causes high financial losses to companies. It may occur in cases of powerlessness and a low perceived justice. Avoidance of work, being late for work, or absenteeism are included in the last category. Spector and

colleagues (2006) describe this category as withdrawal and include behaviors such as not actively participating in company actions.

Also, it is possible to classify unproductive work actions by degree of severity. Some counterproductive work behaviors are more severe than others. For instance, when it comes to punishment, verbal aggressiveness is considered less severe than physical aggressiveness (Hollinger & Clark, 1983). The last classification method separates counterproductive work behaviors into active and passive (Conlon et al., 2005).

2.1.2.1. Active- Passive CWB

Spector and colleagues (2006), the stress emotion model's (S-E model) creators, classified counterproductive work behavior into two categories by their S-E model: active and passive, in addition to the well-known organizational and interpersonal classification (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Action-oriented behaviors in which the employee violates business rules and harms the legitimate interests of the company are active behaviors (Evans et al., 2023). Besides this, active behaviors are directly and target oriented. Examples of these behaviors include abuse and sabotage. Often hostility and the need to respond to company mistreatment motivate active counterproductive work behavior (Baka, 2018). Inaction is the foundation of passive, counterproductive work behaviors. By disobeying the regulations, the employee causes damage to the company. Passive behavior, in contrast to active behavior, can express not only the need for revenge but also the need to save and keep resources in stressful situations (Krisher et al., 2010). The passive actions could represent an attempt to reduce tense circumstances and prevent tension in the future. This supposition aligns well with the Resource Conservation Theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which is predicated on the idea that during extended periods of stress, people tend to protect their resources, including time, energy, and social capital. Therefore, among the ways employees save resources at work are by cutting back on working hours, being absent, or arriving late to work regularly (Baka, 2019). Directness, intensity, and risk factors are the fundamental differences between passive and active CWB actions (Cuddy et al., 2007). The difference among the active-passive of behavior has been of interest to several subfields of psychology, including psychological sociology (Ayduk et al., 2001; Cuddy et al., 2007) and psychology of children (Renken et al., 1989). In addition, the S-E model (Spector & Fox, 2005) states that individuals take part in counterproductive work behavior to "feel good" about their job (Shoss et al., 2016),

avoid/minimize stress (Fox & Spector, 2006), or exact revenge on coworkers or the organization (Jones, 2009).

The five negative behaviors that the S-E model categorizes as unproductive work behavior within the organization are misappropriation, undermine, stealing, production declination, and retreat (Spector & Fox, 2005). Undermine and abuse are common examples of active CWB driven by a desire for revenge. Due to the need to protect one's assets, retreat is the most common type of passive CWB (Spector et al., 2006).

2.1.3. Antecedents of CWB

If employers are aware of the root causes of their workers' counterproductive work actions, they may be able to prevent such conduct from occurring. Therefore, numerous scholars have concentrated their efforts on elucidating the precursors to Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) (Ambrose et al., 2002; Colbert et al., 2004; Henle, 2005; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Martinko et al., 2002). Upon scrutinizing the existing literature, it becomes evident that a multitude of factors contribute to the propensity of employees to engage in counterproductive behaviors. One of the most well-known antecedent classifications accepted in the literature belongs to Spector and Fox (2002). According to researchers, there are two types of antecedents that cause counterproductive work behavior: *personal antecedents* and *environmental antecedents*. Personal antecedents encompass internal variables, including personality traits and attitudes, whereas environmental antecedents comprise such as organizational culture and job characteristics. Environmental factors are significant indicators of CWB, according to some investigations (Penney & Spector, 2005; Fox et al., 2001). Essential indicators of such actions have additionally been shown to be individual factors (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010). The Stressor-Emotion Concept and the Conservation of Resources Framework have been used extensively in scholarly works to help understand the factors that result in CWB.

The *Stress-Emotion Model* (Spector, 1998) explores the dynamics of company actions and the relationship between work-related stress and company actions. Furthermore, this framework highlights how important feelings are in the relationship among stress and organizational behavior. It posits that counterproductive work behaviors are essentially a response to occupational stress (see Figure 2.2). Stress, identified as an

environmental precursor, acts as a trigger for negative emotions (Spector, 1998). As an instance, the literature review identifies interpersonal disagreement, constitutional restrictions, position differences and position ambiguity as workplace stresses (Kahn et al., 1964). In light of this paradigm, people observe and evaluate contextual conditions; there is a relationship between disappointment and contextual conditions (Lazarus, 1991). When individuals assess the contextual circumstances, they determine whether a given situation qualifies as a stressor. If, during this evaluation, the situation is acknowledged as a stressor, it elicits negative emotions, thereby serving as a trigger for alterations in an individual's psychological state and behavior (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997; Spector, 1998). For instance, such changes might manifest as a reduction in job satisfaction (psychological), alterations in physiological states such as headaches or changes in blood pressure (physical), actions like bullying a colleague or resigning from the position (behavioral). In addition, these changes are likely to create strain in the individual (strain is the outcome of stress) and are associated with employee well-being (Spector & Goh, 2001). According to this model, both dimensions of counterproductive work behavior (CWBO and CWBI) are behavioral strains. Emotions have a significant role in the S-E Model as reactions to stressful conditions (Lazarus, 1991; Lovallo, 2010). They act as a mediating element in the connection among tension and stressful situations at work. For instance, those who feel good about themselves are more unlikely to participate in unproductive work actions compared to others who experience negative emotional states under the same environmental conditions.

The perception of control is a significant predictor of counterproductive work behavior (Allen & Greenberger, 1980; Storms and Spector, 1987). For instance, if an employee has a lower perception of control over a situation, he/she experiences at work, his/her participation in CWB is higher, compared to another employee in the same situation but with a higher perception of control.

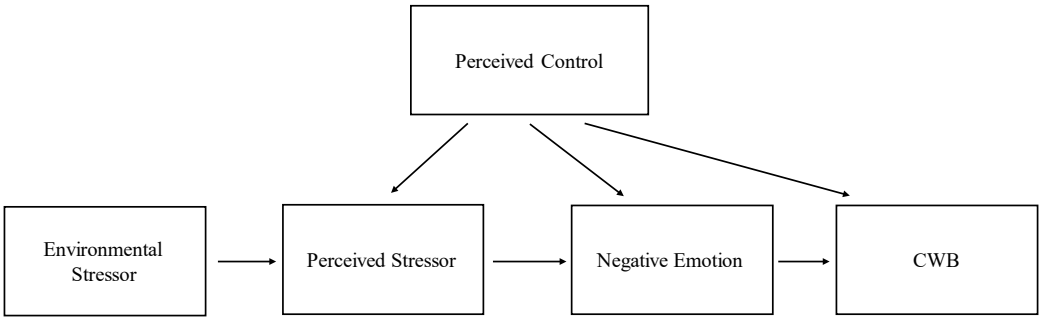

Figure 2.2. The Stressor- Emotion Model. From a Control Theory of the Job Stress Process

Source: Spector, P. E. (1998). In C. L. Cooper (Ed.), Theories of organizational stress (pp. 153-169). Manchester, UK: Oxford University Press.

The conceptual framework of Resource Conservation is a further significant theory concerning deviant actions. COR recognizes an association between CWB and occupational tension, which is consistent with the tension and feeling approach. However, the underlying mechanism posited by COR Theory diverges from that suggested by the Stress-Emotion Model. Hobfoll (2001) contends that the main cause of this process is the loss of resources, this hypothesis has been offered as a comprehensive explanation of stress. According to the COR theory, people have a desire to safeguard possessions or minimize their expenses as soon as are faced with environmental dangers (Hobfoll, 1989). In essence, as delineated by Hobfoll (2001), the fundamental tenet of the theory is as follows: to acquire resources, safeguard resources, and enhance resources. According to the paradigm, protecting assets is necessary to achieve success and enjoyment. Assets are described as things, characteristics, situations, and types of energies which are appreciated by persons (Hobfoll, 1989). Self-worth, learned resourcefulness, financial standing, and work situation are examples of resources that individuals possess (Parry, 1986; Rosenbaum & Smira, 1986; Rosenberg, 1965; Worden & Sobel, 1978). Individuals aim to create surpluses of resources to mitigate the risk of future resource depletion under stressful circumstances. The presence of resource abundance or the prevention of resource depletion can significantly influence the behavior of individuals. As a result, individuals might turn to unproductive methods as a response to these circumstances. Numerous empirical investigations have demonstrated that resource loss in the workplace can lead to increased strain among individuals. Thus, there is recommended

that staff members engage with all components of unproductive behavior as a way to protect their resources and themselves from potential dangers (Coleman et al., 2008).

Numerous classifications for the factors are revealed by an examination of the available research that influence CWB. Marcus and Schuler (2004) term the factors leading to CWB as the "four-dimensional determinants model". In this classification, both individual and situational factors are analysed with respect to control and motivation. Based on this model, the precursors to counterproductive work behavior are categorized into four distinct classifications: dispositional factors, internal control (pertaining to the individual), triggers, and opportunities (relating to situational aspects). While motivation propels individuals towards engaging in counterproductive work behavior, control acts as a deterrent against such behavior by facilitating the internalization of social norms and encouraging consideration of the actions' repercussions (Marcus & Schuler, 2004). You can see the model in Figure 2.3.

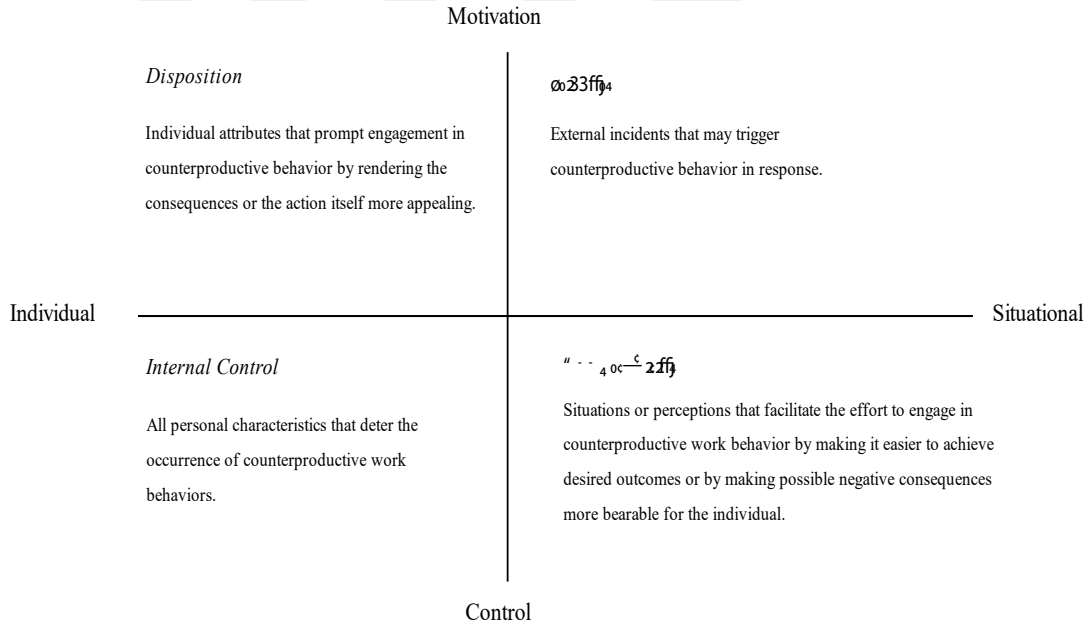

Figure 2.3. Determinants of Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Source: Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: A general perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4), 647-660.

Hussain and colleagues (2014) note that experiences of humiliation, insult, invasion of personal space, reprimand, unsuitable facial expressions, and similar forms of hostile verbal or nonverbal behavior can prompt employees to partake in counterproductive

work behaviors, driven by the negative emotions these actions elicit. Organizational justice, classified as An further predecessor of unproductive work actions (Hussain et al., 2014). A study has revealed that the connection between counterproductive work behaviors and burnout is stronger by the presence of organizational justice (Wu et al., 2016). Michel and colleagues (2016) stated that unethical organizational environments and norms cause CWB by triggering the feeling of retaliation.

Martinko et al. (2002) proposed that individual and situational factors, through cognitive processing, result in emotions like guilt/shame or anger/discomfort, which in turn prompt engagement in unproductive actions. The framework has been created using causal thinking theory as a foundation. You can see the model in Figure 2.4.

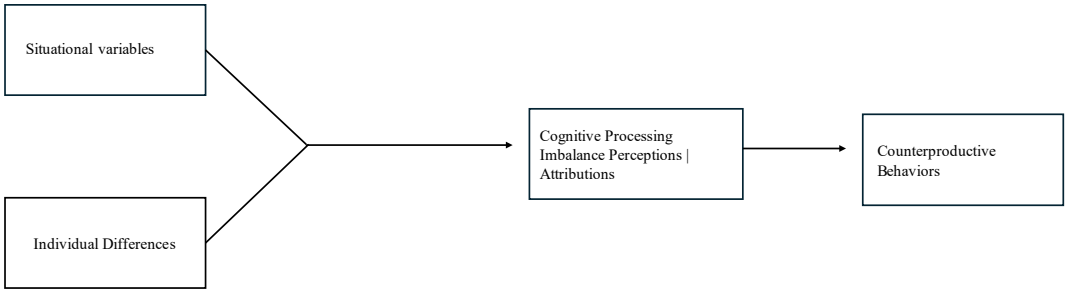

Figure 2.4. The Paradigm of Counterproductive Behavior

Source: Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(4), 547–555.

According to Robinson and Greenberg (1998), one of the main components of the antecedents of CWB is individual variables. Personal factors include personality, demographic characteristics and tendencies that a person is prone to. It was found that personal traits characteristics including compatibility, feeling balance, and conscientiousness lower unproductive job actions involvement (Cullen and Sackett, 2003). On the other hand, it has been revealed that people with narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy personality traits have a greater inclined to participate in CWB behavior (Palmer et al., 2017). In addition, Secer and Secer (2007) indicated that emotions categorized under personal tendencies, including anxiety, hostility, anger, and similar feelings the causes of CWB.

The importance of interpersonal factors has been revealed by many studies in the field. If the socio-cultural characteristics of an employee are not similar to other employees

in the organization, interpersonal conflict will occur over time, which may cause CWB (Liao et al., 2004). Another study revealed that job satisfaction, feelings of hostility, and perceptions of interpersonal injustice are among the factors that influence CWB (Judge et al., 2006). While interpersonal factors hold significance, organizational factors also emerge as a crucial element influencing outcomes (Fox et al., 2001). The constancy of people's personality structures and characteristics can help predict how they will react to various situations. For example, an individual with a highly competitive personality, regardless of the work environment or the challenges faced, will continue to exhibit behaviors that reflect their competitive nature. However, for individuals without a dominant negative personality trait, generalizing about how they will respond to situations becomes more difficult. Predicting how these individuals will react to the challenges they face is more complex. Even so, individuals who are generally positive, adaptable, and responsible may still exhibit harmful behaviors they would not normally condone, especially when under stress or in an effort to protect their resources (such as energy, time, motivation).

2.1.4. Outcomes of CWB

The outcomes of CWB have garnered significant interest in scholarly research. Investigations have revealed that CWB detrimentally affects both employees and organizations, in terms of both tangible and intangible aspects. Research has found that 74.8% of participants expressed a strong intention to resign, and 66% reported suffering from headaches, abdominal pain, and chest pain over the past five years (Fox & Stallworth, 2004).In organizations where counterproductive work behavior is prevalent, employees suffer from diminished self-esteem and reduced self-efficacy (Duffy et al., 2006; Low et al., 2007), heightened feelings of anger (Aquino et al., 2004), increased instances of depression and elevated anxiety along with significant stress levels (Berry et al., 2012). Moreover, Sandgren and Torpman (2018) observed that in environments where counterproductive work behaviors are manifested, there is a notable decline in employee performance, a reduction in communication and information sharing among workgroups, and a deterioration in the overall well-being of employees within the workplace. Also, the adverse outcomes of CWB include heightened stress levels, a notable decline in job satisfaction, and a heightened propensity towards resignation (Berry et al., 2012).

2.2. Definition of Perceived Organizational Justice

Recently, the notion of organizational justice has garnered significant attention from researchers within the fields of personnel resources supervisors, business conduct, and the psychology of organizations (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). While the genesis of the justice concept within organizations is based on the work that Adams in the sixties, comprehensive explorations of the concept did not emerge until the 90s (Charash & Spector, 2001).

As the interaction between the employee and the company intensified, the importance of equitable utilization of organizational resources and the distribution of gains came to the forefront, leading to the emergence of the idea of fairness within institutions (Isbaşı, 2001). The idea of fairness within the institution, was first introduced by Greenberg in 1987 (Beugré, 1998), broadly reflects the fairness of managers in their decision-making and practices (Cemaloglu, 2016). Greenberg (1990b) characterized institutions fairness as the opinions of workers about the equity of procedures and decisions made within the organization, and the influence of these perceptions on the employees. Atalay (2010) defined organizational justice as the perception of employees that the procedures used in the distribution of gains are fair. According to a different understanding, organizational justice refers to the equity of choices made by managers on the distribution of advantages like salaries and advancements inside the company (Dailey & Kirk, 1992).

Iscan and Naktiyok (2004) assert that organizational justice encompasses the promotion and sustenance of equitable and ethical practices and dealings within an organization. Isık and colleagues (2012) note that employees anticipate the uniform application of company policies to all personnel, equitable remuneration for comparable work, and equal access to social benefits for every member of the workforce. Yet, the attention of employees extends beyond merely the outcomes and their comparisons with colleagues, to include the organizational regulations, how these regulations are enforced, and the interactions among individuals (Isık et al., 2012).

The concept of corporate fairness clarifies the meaning that equity inside an organization. It embodies the employees' perceptions of fairness at their workplaces and how these perceptions influence various outcomes for the organizations. Iscan and

Sayın (2010) identified the belief of workers in a company regarding justice as a critical determinant for job satisfaction and the organization's efficient operation.

The literature frequently couples the notion of organizational justice with the concept of perception. Greenberg (1990b) articulates that organizational justice pertains to the perception of fairness within organizations. Greenberg (1990b) emphasizes that the essence of this concept is rooted in perception, highlighting that it concerns not the actual equality of the attention that staff members receive from the organization, but rather how fair employees perceive the organization to be towards them. In essence, o fairness in the workplace is primarily focused on the views of the workers of the fairness process rather than the actual fairness of practices within the organization. This means that under identical circumstances, one employee might perceive the organization as fair, while another might not. This can be attributed to the significant impact that perception has on behavior. Ozdevecioglu (2004) proposed that perceptions are interpreted by employees, evolve into beliefs over time, and subsequently influence behaviors. Karriker and Williams (2009) have noted that within the organizational process, employees' perceptions of events, practices, decisions made, and treatments meted out to them lead to self-assessment. This evaluation process, in turn, culminates in the formation of either a positive or negative attitude towards the organization. When employees perceive organizational justice positively, their likelihood of participating in actions that support the organization tends to rise. On the flip side, negative perceptions may lead to an increased likelihood of engaging in actions that could harm the organization.

The basis of fairness in organizations idea is rooted in "Relative Deprivation" by Stouffer, "Distributive Justice" by Homans, and "Equity Theory" by Adams (Yavuz, 2010). In reviewing the literature on organizational justice, it becomes apparent that this concept is primarily associated with Adams' Equity Theory. Adams, in his research for a company in 1960, concentrated on identifying potential sources of perceived inequality among employees, with a particular focus on salary and external factors. He highlighted that if an individual perceives a discrepancy between their own input-output ratio and that of a colleague performing a similar role, they experience a sense of injustice, underscoring that such perceptions are subjective. Adams demonstrated that employees assess their own rewards in comparison to those received by their peers. Should an employee sense an imbalance of justice, they are likely to

decrease their performance as a means to rectify this perceived injustice (Sabuncuoglu & Tüz, 2008; Eren, 2008).

2.2.1. Dimensions of Organizational Justice

In the literature, the three aspects that constitute fairness in organizations are fairness in distribution, fairness in procedure, and interactional fairness (Cropanzano & Stein, 2009). Based on the concepts of the theory of social trade, distribution fairness addresses the fair distribution of resources and rewards. Procedural justice, introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975), emphasizes the significant of employee participation in procedural processes, including rights to voice opinions and engage in decision-making. The idea of fairness through interaction was created by Bies and Moag (1986), includes facets like rationality, integrity, respect, and courtesy, and it addresses how justice is perceived in the interactions and expectations between individuals (Arslantürk and Sahan, 2012).

2.2.1.1. Distributive Justice

Distributive justice argues that people who are alike should be treated equally and those who are alike should receive disparate treatment based on morality and objectively defined traits. From another perspective, it concerns the perception of fairness in outcomes or rewards, including tasks, commodities, services, opportunities, sanctions/incentives, positions, rankings, salaries, advancements, etc. (Ozmen et al., 2007). The fundamental principle of distribution of fairness refers to people's perception that they are receiving a fair portion of the resources distributed (Ozdevecioglu, 2003). Demirel and Seckin (2011) addressed the outcomes of organizational decisions, noting that distributive justice focuses on how the staff views the company's equality and the fairness of receiving the anticipated outcome in exchange for the extra values they contribute to the company. Distributive justice deals with the distribution of advantages or rewards that some employees get but others do not. It ties back to the reality that the dispersal of outcomes can vary among employees in organizations where equal treatment is not provided to all. Employees are primarily concerned with obtaining their equitable portion. While it might seem just for the top performer to get a promotion, it might not be seen as equitable, for instance, if getting a higher position is the result of political bargaining with company leaders (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Theories offering a conceptual framework for distributive justice encompass Adams' Equity Theory and Leventhal's Justice Judgment Theory (Poyraz et al., 2009). Equity Theory, introduced by Adams in 1965, has significantly shaped the understanding of institutional fairness, particularly impacting the dimension of distribution of fairness to a great extent. In line with the Concept of Equity (Adams, 1965) equality is associated with the fairness of the way earnings are distributed in a give-and-take relationship that involves at least two parties. Distributive justice represents the optimal level of reward an employee ought to receive for the contributions made to the organization through their personal efforts. Investigations have revealed that employees not fully rewarded for their labor demonstrate less dedication to the organization than those who receive complete compensation for their efforts (Dogan, 2002). Kocel (2011) states that an individual's career achievements and satisfaction at work correlate with the sense of equality or inequality they perceive within the organization. Equity theory posits that an individual evaluates his or her own contributions and rewards against those of others. If these comparisons reveal an imbalance, the employee concludes that an inequity exists (Ozalp and Kırel, 2010). Adams formulated the comparisons of individuals as follows (Eren, 2008).

$$\frac{\text{Awards given to the person X}}{\text{Inputs submitted by the person X}} = \frac{\text{Awards given to the person Y}}{\text{Inputs submitted by the person Y}}$$

Figure 2.5. Adams' Formula of the Comparisons of Individuals (Eren, 2008).

Eren (2008) notes that an individual, perceiving the balance to be tipped against them, seeks methods to augment their own rewards to alleviate the discomfort of dissatisfaction. In situations where increased effort is not feasible, they decrease the contributions they make to the organization. Karabay (2004) mentioned that the efficiency of the party facing the imbalance will diminish. Employees sensing inequity employ six distinct strategies to tilt the situation in their favor, as outlined below (Adams, 1963).

1. Trying to modify their contributions or the degree of their involvement,

2. Taking actions to alter the rewards, by cognitively misrepresenting the efforts and rewards,

3. Altering their perceptions regarding the rewards,

4. Interfering with the rewards and contributions achieved by others,

5. Moving away from the environment or the physical setting,

6. Shifting the benchmark, or the reference individual or group, for making comparisons.

Leventhal (1976) presented the Fairness Judging Framework, an essential theory of equitable distribution of wealth. This model delineates a connection between the incomes to be reaped through integrating various distribution mechanisms. Leventhal (1976) posited that a manager or organization aiming to distribute rewards in line with the equity (proportional to contribution) principle seeks to enhance its long-term effectiveness. This inclination towards equitable distribution is rooted in the anticipation that aligning rewards with contributions will foster elevated motivation and performance.

In his examination of justice perceptions, Deutsch (1985) concentrated on how resources were distributed within organizations. Deutsch identified seven elements that influence employees' views on distributive justice, listed as follows: distribution outcome, authority in distribution, distribution timing, fundamental value of the distribution, establishment of distribution principles and rules, procedures for distribution, and the method of decision-making.

Leventhal's and Adams' theories, while concentrating on obtainments, fell short in elucidating the decision-making processes leading to those obtainments. The manner in which distribution decisions are executed holds as much significance as the nature of the distribution itself from a justice standpoint. It is here that the notion of procedural justice becomes crucial (Greenberg et al., 1997; Folger et al., 1986).

2.2.1.2. Procedural Justice

While the concept of institutional fairness originally centered on distributive justice, since the 1980s, its emphasis has transitioned towards procedural justice (Keskin et al., 2008). Fairness in procedures pertains to the impartiality of the procedures, or the methods employed in decision-making (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Konovsky (2000) revealed that procedural justice concerns how rewards are allocated. Dilek (2004) articulated that procedural justice involves the methods and criteria utilized to decide the benefits workers get for their contributions, the operation of the decision-making mechanism in the allocation of rewards, and employees' perceptions of the fairness of

these procedures. Colquitt and Chertkoff (2002) defined fairness of process as the uniform application of organizational processes across all employees, encompassing equitable salary distribution, involvement in taking choices, and the spreading of knowledge. Moorman (1991) proposed that the perception of fairness among employees regarding the procedures used in outcome evaluations is linked to procedural justice. Gains are not merely fortuitous; they result from specific processes or procedures. Employees often ponder questions related to the evaluation of their performance, the making of promotion decisions, salary increments, or the criteria for personnel selection. They scrutinize the fairness of these procedures that impact them (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Contrary to the outcome-focused nature of distributive justice, procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of the decision-making process. Essentially, it deals with how equitable the methods, processes, and policies are perceived to be in deciding matters like salary, advancements, economic prospects, employment conditions, and the assessment of work performance (Atalay, 2010).

In organizations, while fairness in procedure is concerned with responses to the processes used to determine these pay decisions, distribution fairness is primarily concerned with responses to decisions about employees' compensation. If the decision-making procedures are not viewed as fair, it impacts the perception of whether the outcomes are fair (Folger, 1987). When employees believe that the method used to arrive at decisions is justice, their likelihood of viewing the outcomes as fair, regardless of whether those outcomes are unfavourable. Employees tend to see processes where they have right to participate as more equitable than those where they lack involvement, even when the outcomes are not in their favor (Ozmen et al., 2007). The theory positing that organizational decisions hinge on principles like trust, ethics, and morality suggests that employees view transactions as fair when they believe they have a say in the procedures. This phenomenon is known as the justice procedure impact or the effect of being able to speak (Demirel & Seckin, 2011).

In their 1975 research comparing different legal systems, Thibaut and Walker demonstrated that employees resistant to organizational decision-making processes are prepared to relinquish control over decision-making as long as they are allowed to participate in the process control stage. Thibaut and Walker (1975) termed this phenomenon the Self-Interest Model. Essentially, individuals try to have control over

decisions in the process because they are interested in the gains they will achieve. In summary, the approach emphasizes how crucial each person's control over the process as a means to secure desired outcomes. Shortly thereafter, Leventhal introduced six criteria with the Procedure Preference Model, underscoring that procedural justice involves more than simply having a voice in the process (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Icerli, 2010). These are: rule of consistency, rule of avoiding prejudice, rule of correctness, rule of rectifiability, rule of being able to legation, rule of ethical adherence. The rule of consistency dictates that distribution decision-making processes remain uniform and independent of individual factors or timing variations. The rule of avoiding prejudice mandates that managers refrain from personal biases during distribution decisions, ensuring objectivity and impartiality. The rule of correctness requires that distribution criteria rely on precise and reliable information. The rule of rectifiability ensures that decisions can be rectified in response to objections arising from previous decisions. The ule of being able to legation entails the opportunity for individuals involved in the distribution phase to express their views through representatives. Finally, the rule of ethical adherence stipulates that procedures adhere to ethical values.

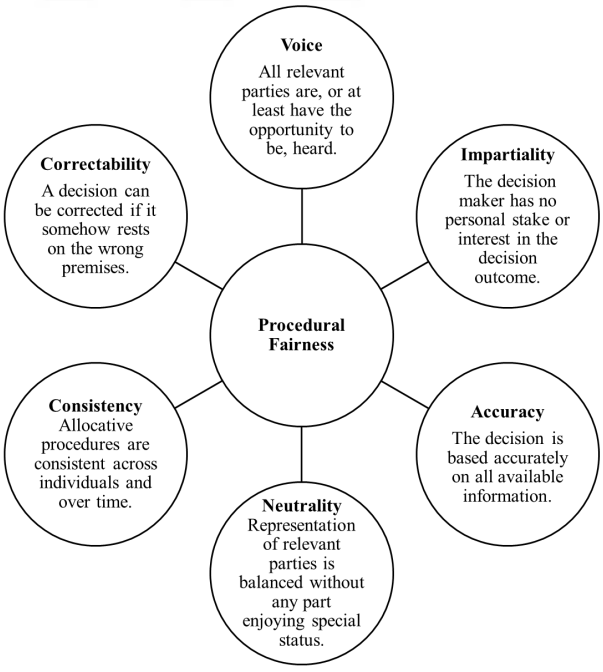

Figure 2.6. Procedural Fairness Criteria.

Note. The specified standards are based on research conducted by Blader and Tyler (2003), Colquitt (2001), Tyler (1990), and Leventhal (1980).

2.2.1.3. Interactional Justice

The idea of interactional fairness, a key component of perceived fairness within organizations, was initially introduced by Bies and Moag in 1986 (as cited in Irak, 2004). Some scholars consider fairness that interacts to be a separate concept from process fairness, some perceive that to be extent of process fairness. Those who regard it as a subset of procedural justice contend that procedural justice comprises two facets: structural (formal) and social (interactional) aspects (Cropanzano & Folger, 2001).

How employees perceive fairness is influenced by their treatment throughout the distribution process as much as the process justice employed, and the quantity and attribute of their rewards at the conclusion of the process (Bies, 2001). Within organizations, employees anticipate equitable treatment from management. However, when they observe a lack of respect in communication with higher-ups, a sense of injustice begins to emerge. Beugré (2002) suggests that interactional fairness involves displaying behaviors characterized by courtesy, respect, and honesty in internal communication of an organization. Colquitt and colleagues (2001) argue that interactional justice pertains to the caliber of emotional and social backing an individual garners from their interactions with others.

Bies (2001) surveyed applicants to ascertain their preferences regarding managerial treatment during the job application procedures. Drawing from these responses, Bies and Moag (1986) established fundamental principles influencing the perception of fairness in interpersonal communication. The fundamental tenets of interactional justice encompass accuracy, transparency, suitability, and esteem. The principle of accuracy dictates that managers must conduct themselves with honesty, sincerity, and transparency when executing decisions, refraining from any form of deception towards their employees. Transparency principle involves openly communicating to employees the repercussions of decisions made and furnishing them with the requisite amount of information. Within the principle of suitability towards employees, managers should refrain from posing inappropriate questions and exhibiting prejudice. Politeness, respectfulness, and the avoidance of rudeness by managers towards employees are encapsulated within the principle of esteem (Colquitt et al., 2005). Colquitt and colleagues (2005) additionally proposed six suggestions aimed at assisting supervisors in enhancing employees' perception of organizational justice in a positive manner. The suggested measures include actively seeking and considering employees' opinions,

steering clear of biases, maintaining consistency in rule application, providing timely and necessary feedback, informing pertinent individuals of decision outcomes, and treating employees with courtesy and respect.

According to Greenberg (1993), the two components of interactional fairness are the justice of information and interpersonal equity. While justice based on information is making sure that workers are apprised of the true nature of the organization's resource allocation, interpersonal equality deals with how decision-makers handle their subordinates. Moreover, Greenberg (1990b) posited that the perception of procedural justice is socially determined based on information. Providing explanations for decisions taken to employees positively influences their perception of justice (Isbası, 2001).

People place significance on their relationships because these connections shape and define their identities and values. When the other party behaves fairly, it signifies respect and sincerity toward the individual, satisfying their sense of self-worth and identity. Interactional justice, cultivated through such interactions within organizations, is gaining greater importance (Yılmaz, 2004). As evident, employees are concerned with both the equitable processes in resource distribution within the organization and the conduct of managers along with the quality of communication.

While interactional justice is closely tied to communication quality, it predominantly entails the proper and respectful treatment of workers by those responsible for resource allocation within the organization. To positively influence employees' perceptions of organizational justice, it's crucial to solicit their opinions, provide constructive feedback, and interact with courtesy. Such fair communication practices can bolster employees' perceptions of organizational justice.

2.2.2. Relationship between Perceived Organizational Justice and CWB

Employees may act negatively toward the company and its employees as a result of their beliefs that the distribution method, the company's resource allocation, and the connections that have been built are unjust. Kwak (2006) unveiled that employees who perceive injustice within the institution strive to alleviate the unhappiness they feel by resorting to disruptive behavior. This is linked to their endeavor to rectify inequality and restore equilibrium. During this process, the connection between organizational injustice and counterproductive work behavior starts to surface (Karaeminogulları,

2006). Beugré (2005) mentioned that employees display aggressive behavior in response to perceived injustice; however, these behaviors evolve gradually over time rather than occurring instantly. Beugré (2005) elucidated the developmental phases of aggressive behavior stemming from perceived injustice by encapsulating them within a cognitive model. Through this model, individuals inquire "what," "who," and "how" to determine the target of their behavior. The "what" question addresses the nature and extent of the perceived injustice, the "who" question identifies the perpetrator of the injustice and who should be held accountable, and the "how" question outlines the method of retaliation, namely, the type of aggressive behavior to be employed. The model has three stages: the evaluation stage, the attribution of responsibility stage, and the decision-making stage. In his subsequent research, Beugré (2005) extended his three-stage cognitive model and contended that aggressive behaviors could stem not only from perceived injustice but also from factors including negative affect, social motives, dysphoric (pessimistic) thoughts, perceived repertoire of injustice, and the fallacy of attributing enemies.

Workers who believe there is less organizational fairness might be more likely to act in an counterproductive work behavior, as was previously mentioned. One of the primary underlying factors is their desire to offset the turmoil caused by feelings of injustice. Beliefs regarding unfair treatment by the organization and superiors can result in negative behaviors such as job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and reluctance to assume responsibility (Karaeminogulları, 2006). Research in this domain has extensively examined the correlation between perceived institutional fairness and counterproductive job behaviors.

Even though a great deal of research in this area has shown that justice in the workplace and unproductive work actions are related (Demir, 2011; Bahri et al., 2013), most of them have identified a strong inverse connection between the impression of company fairness and unproductive work actions (Al-A'wasa, 2018; Le Roy et al., 2012; Ozdevecioglu, 2003). LeRoy et al. (2012) investigated the correlation between employees' perceived interactional justice and unproductive job actions in their cross-national research encompassing Italy, France, and Turkey. They found that adverse feelings and lower levels of believed justice in interactions were important predictors of unproductive job actions. The research additionally examined at the relationship among actively counterproductive job actions, low viewed relational fairness, and

rage. It was proposed that fear mediates the association between passive, counterproductive job habits and lower observed fairness in information. In Ansari and colleagues's study (2013), it was discovered that employees' perception of low distributive justice significantly impacted CWB, with organizational constraints identified as a contributing factor that intensifies CWB behaviors. Oge et al. (2015) observed a strong relationship among the unproductive work actions sub-components and what is believed fairness in organizations dimensions in a study involving 198 public employees. Saleem and Gopinath (2015) identified a significant mediating effect of stress on the association between organizational justice and CWB. They further observed that each of the three fairness in the workplace aspects had an indirect impact on work stress, deviations in production, and withdrawal behaviors. In Al-A'wasa's (2018) study involving 269 employees, it was revealed that a moderately adverse connection was found among institutional justice sub-dimensions and CWB sub-dimensions. Moreover, the organizational justice sub-dimensions were found to exert a significant medium-level effect on CWB. Likewise, a study by O'Neill and colleagues (2011) suggests that When workers observe injustice, they typically respond by engaging in CWB.

As a matter of fact, while some research have established a strong correlation among the aspects of fairness in organizations and CWB, other studies have not. According to Devonish and Greenidge's (2010) study suggests that fairness of distribution (DJ), process fairness (PJ), and fairness of interactional (IJ) have a significant negative impact on CWB. However, Brimecombe (2012) found that DJ, PJ, and IJ were negatively related to CWB but insignificantly so.

In Ormeci's (2013) research, It has been found that when fairness in organizations is viewed more favorably, employees' commitment increases, and their propensity to engage in counterproductive work behavior decreases. Karaeminogulları (2006), despite the significant relationships observed between organizational justice sub-dimensions and counterproductive work behaviors, it was noted that these sub-dimensions alone are inadequate in explaining such behaviors. Consequently, the study suggested that certain variables, such as organizational prohibitions, sense of morality, and performance evaluation criteria, may negatively impact this relationship. Demir et al. (2018) uncovered that each sub-dimension of fairness of institutional (distribution, process, interactional) exhibited important relationships with the neglect,

stealing, and disengagement sub-aspects of the CWB, as well as with the overall CWB. However, The researchers observed no noteworthy correlation between the sabotage sub- aspect of CWB and the institutional fairness sub-aspects. Polatcı and Ozcalık (2015) investigated how CWB was affected by the emotionality and impression of fairness in the workplace. Their results showed that CWB had no significant link with distributive justice and positive emotionality, but was adversely connected with interactional and judicial processes and favorably linked to negative emotionality. Additionally, they observed that distributive justice, although it didn't directly influence CWB, strongly and negatively affected negative emotionality. Consequently, employees burdened with negative emotionality were inclined to exhibit CWB. Interactional views and procedures of fairness have a direct and detrimental impact on CWB.

2.3. Moral Identity

Moral identity does not entail a compulsory dedication to any particular group. Hence, in a conceptual sense, it is not defined by ethnic, religious, sexual, or political attributes; rather, it is attempted to be elucidated through the individual's moral qualities (Yılmaz & Yılmaz, 2015). The importance one places on moral principles, moral goals, and moral virtues is correlated with one's ethical character (Hardy, 2006). Ethical character is the self-conception built around a series of ethical actions (Aquino & Reed, 2003).

Blasi (1984, 1993, 2004) proposed that within the model of moral identity, there are three critical elements bridging moral judgment and action. The first component involves whether an individual perceives themselves as responsible for an event before engaging in moral behavior. For instance, noticing a house on fire, feeling accountable, and then reporting it to the fire department. Alternatively, encountering an injured puppy on the road in need of assistance is another scenario where one. Secondly, the responsibility felt during the act must be internalized as part of one's self-concept. For instance, upon encountering an injured dog in need of help on the road and feeling accountable, it matters whether this sense of responsibility is driven by an internal orientation or performed for the observation of others. Should not only feel responsible but also act upon that responsibility to be a good person. Thirdly, it is crucial to maintain intrinsic consistency in executing moral behaviors, ensuring that one's actions

are aligned with their true self. Morality transcends mere cognitive constructs such as schemas, reasoning, and mental representations. By incorporating internal intentions, the cognitive aspect of morality is enriched and deepened.

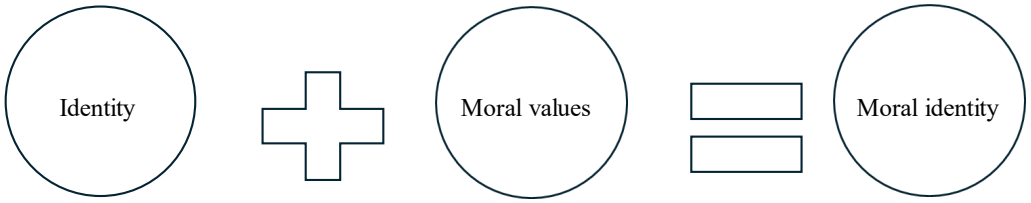

Figure 2.7. Formulation of Blasi's Moral Identity Theory

In Blasi's (1984) model, an individual's moral values are considered central to their personality, occupying a pivotal position. Blasi (1984) argues that the role of ethical identity in crucial and motivating function in the manifestation of moral ethical action. Variations in moral behaviors are not attributed to differences in moral reasoning, but rather to the diversification of moral desires (Hardy & Carlo, 2005).

According to an alternative description, moral identity constitutes a psychological structure that integrates universal values and moral standards, facilitating a more harmonious alignment among ethical principles and actions (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Hardy & Carlo, 2005). Aquino and colleagues (2009) describe it as the cognitive schemas through which individuals perceive their moral traits. The significance of moral identity becomes evident here, as the most dominant among these cognitive schemas influences individuals' emotions, thoughts, and actions (Aquino et al., 2007).

Self-discipline, intrinsic motivation, and cognitive frameworks that direct a person towards ethical behavior constitute the sub-components of moral identity. Within this framework, composed of such sub-dimensions, the individual conducts themselves in a moral manner. Ersoy (2018) characterizes moral identity as the cognitive and psychological construct that influences an individual to engage in actions deemed good or bad. What is crucial in discussing moral identity is whether moral or non-moral values occupy a more central position in an individual's personality (Shao et al., 2008, as cited in Coskun, 2017).

According to Aquino and Reed (2002), ethical character could lay the groundwork for social identity, emphasizing that a person's beliefs, culture, attitudes, and behaviors play a significant role in shaping moral identity. Likewise, Hardy (2006) suggests that

individuals whose moral identities are anchored in trust and truthfulness possess more robust moral identities. Consequently, when characteristics such as trust, honesty, and truthfulness form part of their identities, individuals encounter greater responsibilities. Hardy (2006) further indicated that the formation of people's moral identity is in harmony with their goals, ambitions, and desires. As a result, people exhibit actions consistent with their ethical identities.

2.3.1. Dimensions of Moral Identity

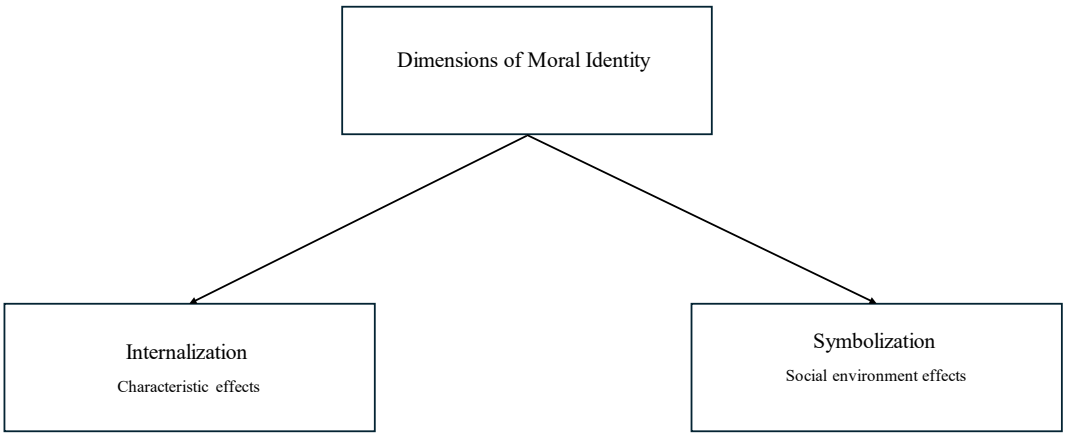

Figure 2.8. Dimensions of Moral Identity (Aquino & Reed, 2002).

Internalization and symbolization are two essential components of ethical self-image (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Internalization refers to the process whereby behaviors that reflect ethical characteristics become firmly ingrained in a person's personality. The moral frameworks that an individual constructs in their mind through this process of internalization are firmly embraced as a part of their moral identity. The internalization dimension is related to how a person defines his/her self. Symbolization relates to behaviors that project an individual's personality and moral traits to their surroundings. Through symbolization, characteristics of moral identity are exhibited within society and manifested to others through actions (Shao et al., 2008). In short, whereas the symbolization dimension of moral identity is connected to how other people view the person, the internalizing aspect is tied to way a person views himself/herself (Yılmaz & Yılmaz, 2015). Additionally, these dimensions of moral identity act as the driving force for the moral actions an individual will engage in (Gleen et al., 2010). Within this framework, while the internalization of moral identity offers significant motivation for ethical behavior, it can also manifest independently of the level of

symbolization. Individuals with a deeply internalized moral identity behave in alignment with their absorbed moral objectives, principles, and values, even when they are not under observation. The symbolization of moral identity can likewise serve as a significant motivational factor for ethical conduct. Nonetheless, the extent to which moral identity is symbolized can be influenced by the degree of its internalization (Yılmaz & Yılmaz, 2015).

The dimension of symbolization is significantly influenced by the surrounding environment, whereas the dimension of internalization is less susceptible to environmental factors (Reed & Aquino, 2003). Winterich and colleagues (2013) propose that social reinforcement impacts both the parts of moral identity related to internalizing and symbolism. Their results indicate social reinforcement exerts its greatest influence when internalization is low and symbolization is high, and it has no impact when the level of internalization is high.

The sub-aspects of ethical character, internalizing and symbolism, manifest distinct traits. An individual may still participate in moral actions by elevating the level of symbolization to secure a position within social circles, even if their level of internalization is minimal. While projecting their moral identities, individuals frequently operate under the influence of their ethnic and political surroundings (Coskun, 2017). Consequently, when an individual partakes in moral or immoral conduct, the influence extends beyond their moral identity to include both personal and environmental factors.

2.3.3. Relationship between Moral Identity and CWB

Individuals possessing moral identity harbor schemas that are consistently present within them, prepared and active for processing social data with ease (Lapsley & Lasky, 2001). Therefore, ethical character acts as a system of self-control that compels people to act morally in order to maintain their consistency (Blasi, 2004). In other words, ethical character serves as the driving force behind ethical conduct (Winterich et al., 2013).

Several studies in the literature offer insights into the connection among ethical character and unethical behavior. Identity in morality and unethical action have adverse associations, both at personal (Greenbaum et al., 2013) and entity degrees (Mayer et al., 2012). Reynolds and Ceranic (2007) found an adverse association among

workers' ethical identities and unproductive work actions, like failing to report fellow workers breaking corporate policies and procedures or fabricating an illness to excuse oneself from work. Furthermore, ethical character has the potential to diminish unethical behaviors that benefit the company. Matherne and Litchfield (2012) found evidence that when a person's ethical character is relatively lower, those with higher degrees of affective organizational dedication are more likely to engage in immoral action that benefits the organization. Additionally, leaders characterized by a strong moral identity embrace ethical leadership practices, thereby reducing the likelihood of unethical behavior within their units and minimizing conflicts in unit relationships (Mayer et al., 2012). After engaging in immoral behavior, individuals experience moral disengagement, such as restructuring to escape distress and reduce harm to their moral self-concept (Detert et al., 2008). Ethical retreat serves as the driving force of unethical organizational behavior. Ethical retreat is not a common way for people with strong ethical identities to rationalize their immoral actions (Moore et al., 2012). Studies indicate a robust correlation between moral disengagement and unethical behavior within organizations (Moore, 2012; Zhao, 2022; Wang, 2017).

According to Ilies et al. (2013), people often feel more morally guilty when they become aware of their unproductive work behavior and are told that this type of behavior is not acceptable. Skarlicki et al. (2008), sales agents with strong ethical identities respond to relational unfairness by sabotaging consumers less frequently than representatives who have weak ethical identification. Employees characterized by high moral identity refrain from engaging in counterproductive work behavior as a means of retaliating against supervisors for their mistreatment of customers (Greenbaum et al., 2013). Wu and colleagues (2016) conducted a study involving 210 public servants in China. Their research showed that ethical identification moderated the association among unproductive work actions and job burnout, suggesting that those with lower ethical identities are at greater risk to participate in unproductive job actions.

2.4. Perceived Organizational Support

Organizational backing holds significance within organizational research, as it elucidates the correlation between employee conduct and their attitudes and actions towards the organization (Zagenczyk, 2006). Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) are

the theorists credited with pioneering the notion of view institutional assistance in literature. According to Eisenberger et al. (1986)'s Organizational Support Theory, employee views on their workplace are shaped by the extent to which they feel that the company appreciates their work and is concerned about their welfare. The argument suggests that workers are able to recognize the beneficial effects of the organization's practices and policies. In other words, workers evaluate the actions of the organization's principal actors toward them and deduce the true motives for these actions. Employees are likely to demonstrate high levels of performance and dedication to the company in reaction to realizing the benefits of organizational activities (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The theory also suggests that workers who feel strongly supported by the organization are more likely to act in ways that advance the interests of the company (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

POS is characterized by workers' overall beliefs that their involvement to the organization is valued, their social and emotional needs are fulfilled, and their well-being is regarded with importance by the company (Eisenberger et al., 1986). According to Jain et al. (2013), POS can also be described as "...the the company's acceptance of a worker's socio-emotional requires, attempts, dedication, and loyalties". Supportive organizations take pride in their employees, ensure fair compensation, and consider their needs attentively (Jain et al., 2013). According to Ozdevecioglu (2003), POS is about employees feel supported by their organizations in all circumstances and a feeling sense of security within the institution. According to Iplik et al. (2014), POS is characterized by superiors demonstrating behaviors such as respect, praise, and approval, which are perceived as rewards and socio-emotional needs, in acknowledgment of the efforts of subordinates. According to Eisenberger and colleagues (2001), both material resources (such as salaries, bonuses, and amenities) and non-monetary sources (like acceptance, confidence, and assistance) play a role in shaping employees' perception of organizational support.

Levinson (1965) posits that individuals within an organization tend to anthropomorphize their workplace, leading to a stronger bond and sense of affinity when employee is rewarded or appreciated for their endeavors. Silbert (2005) suggested that employees establish a psychological connection with the organizations they are part of, leading to mutual expectations and the development of the reciprocity principle in fulfilling their needs. Essentially, employees assert that when they sense

institutional assistance, they are greater inclined to embrace the company and align their actions with its goals. POS provides employees with the guarantee that the corporation will acknowledge and honor their contributions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS boosts employees' confidence in the organization's commitment to fulfilling its obligations. George et al. (1993) define POS as the assurance that employees will receive the necessary support from organization to manage stress while being effective in their work, while Shaffera et al. (2001) describes POS as the confidence employees hold in the organization's continued loyalty towards them, alongside the benefits they acquire due to their allegiance to the organization, facilitating their retention within the company.

The idea of social exchange (Blau, 1964) states that workers endeavor to reciprocate the support they receive by exerting greater effort and dedication in their work (Turunc & Celik, 2010). This employee-employer relationship entails numerous obligations stemming from the exchange of both tangible and emotional assets. There is feeling and motivation hardship when a manager does not fulfill these responsibilities (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). When employees feel undervalued and perceive that their socio-emotional needs are neglected, their perception of organizational support diminishes, weakening the obligations they uphold in line with the reciprocity principle. Consequently, in such circumstances, employees may further weaken their connections by absenteeism and may exhibit behaviors such as seeking alternative employment or considering retirement (Eisenberger et al., 1997).

POS is based on theories such as the theory of Institutional Assistance (Eisenberger et al., 1986), the theory of Reciprocal (Gouldner, 1960), and the theory of Social Interchange (Blau, 1964).

2.4.1. Perceived Organizational Support and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Hobfoll (1989) asserted that individuals can obtain resources from the environment that serve their personal goals. Employees perceive various forms of material and moral support in the workplace as resources that contribute to their objectives. According to Armeli et al. (1998), employees' social-emotional may therefore be met by viewed the organization as supportive.

Employees may feel motivated to take positive actions within the organization to maintain the resources they receive as support and possibly even enhance them further (Riggle et al., 2009; Rofcanin et al., 2018). Workplace resources play a significant role in attaining business objectives and mitigating physiological and psychological costs. Workplace resources have a part in aiding the accomplishment of job objectives and minimizing physiological and psychological expenses (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). Eisenberger and colleagues (1997) proposed that there is a positive correlation between worker assessments of high levels of company backing and increased diligence, innovation, and good behaviors. When workers feel they are receiving less assistance from the company, they may put in fewer energies at work because they believe there won't be enough resources available to them or other options (Hobfoll, 2002). To protect their remaining assets, like tolerance and power, employees may also turn to acting negatively (Hochwarter et al., 2007).

The behavior of employees can be understood through three mechanisms that are influenced by the perceived support from the company (Baran et al., 2012). Initially, the principle of reciprocity serves as the foundation. When an organization offers significant support to its employees, there is a sense of obligation for the workers to exhibit good attitudes and actions in return toward the organization. In contrast, when perceived institutional support is low, there is a tendency to react with unfavorable attitudes and actions. Furthermore, the perception of support from the organization encourages dedication to the company and satisfies interpersonal emotional requirements (such acceptance, self-worth, and belonging), which help in the development of social identity. Furthermore, addressing socio-emotional needs alleviates stress and enhances employees' well-being. Although previous studies primarily focus on the positive results of the organization's backing that is viewed (e.g., AlKerdawy, 2014; Karavardar, 2014; Kurtessis et al., 2017), it is connected to unfavorable attitudes and actions as well. For example, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) highlighted a negative correlation between POS, and stress, disengagement, desire to depart, and employee breaking from job in their meta-analysis. In a similar vein, Shusha (2013) discovered that POS has a detrimental effect on withdrawal as well as intentions. There is limited study on the association among POS and unproductive work actions, however, the evidence points to a negative correlation between both factors (Jacobs et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2004; Liu & Ding, 2012).

Joy and Balu (2016), in their study involving employees in the software industry, discovered a notable adverse association among POS and CWB. Specifically, they observed a strong negative correlation among POS and the extents of production deviation and property deviation within CWB. However, they noted that POS didn't seem to have a negative effect on the dimensions of political deviance and personal aggression within CWB. Abas and colleagues (2015) conducted a study involving 660 public officials employed in Malaysian ministries and they found that POS exerted a substantial adverse effect on both CWBO and CWBI.

CHAPTER 3: FEATURES OF THE RESEARCH

The literature review indicates a correlation between CWB and perceived organizational justice. However, it appears that not every individual who perceives organizational injustice exhibits counterproductive work behavior. In this context, moral identity and perceived organizational support may play a moderating role in this relationship. While existing studies have examined the relationships among CWB, perceived organizational justice, moral identity, and perceived organizational support, a significant gap remains in the exploration of both active and passive forms of counterproductive work behavior within this framework. This aspect has not been adequately addressed in either national or international research contexts. Additionally, there is a notable absence of Turkish adaptation studies for the active-passive CWB scale in the current literature. Therefore, it is essential to differentiate between active and passive forms of counterproductive work behavior and investigate their relationships with other relevant variables. Such an approach would provide valuable contributions to the field. Analyzing the relationship between active and passive CWB and perceived organizational justice, along with examining the moderating effects of moral identity and perceived organizational support, is of critical importance. By categorizing counterproductive work behavior into active and passive types, we can more effectively identify risk factors and mitigate potential negative outcomes. This classification will enhance future research and facilitate comparative analyses of findings, ultimately improving our understanding of the impact of counterproductive work behavior on individuals and organizations. In this context, this section offers a detailed of the research's purpose, significance, and hypotheses.

3.1. The Purpose of The Research

The primary aim of the research is to examine the association among counterproductive work behaviors and perceived organizational justice, while also determining the moderating roles of moral identity and POS in this association. Additionally, another purpose is to adapt the scale of counterproductive work

behaviors into Turkish and contribute these adaptations to the existing publications available in the area.

3.2. The Significance of The Research

No research has been found in the literature that addresses the association among CWB and perceived organizational justice, additionally the moderating effects of moral identity and POS in this relationship. Therefore, the results obtained from this research are anticipated to make a substantial contribution to the publications in the field and shed light on future research endeavors.

3.3. Hypotheses

H1a: There is a negative relationship between perceived distributive justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization.

H1b: There is a negative relationship between perceived distributive justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization.

H2a: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H2b: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H3a: There is negative relationship between perceived procedural justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization.

H3b: There is negative relationship between perceived procedural justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization.

H4a: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H4b: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H5a: There is negative relationship between perceived interactional justice and active counterproductive work behavior individual.

H5b: There is negative relationship between perceived interactional justice and passive counterproductive work behavior individual.

H6a: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and active counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on active counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.

H6b: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and passive counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on passive counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.

You can see the model of study in figure 3.1.

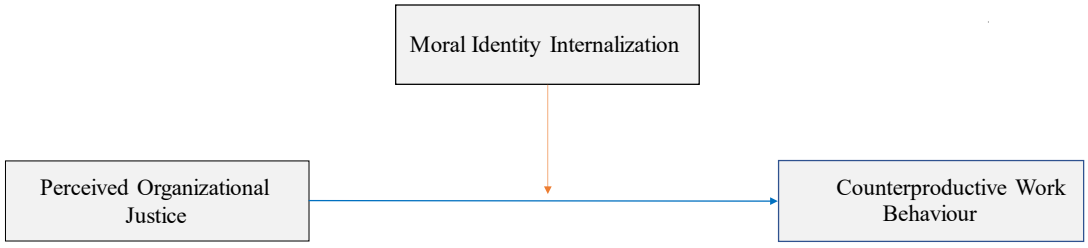

Figure 3.1. Conceptual Diagram of a Simple Moderation in which the Effect of Perceived Organizational Justice on the Counterproductive Work Behavior is Influenced or Dependent on a Moral Identity Internalization

H7a: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organizational support increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H7b: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as

perceived organizational support increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H8a: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organisational support increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H8b: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organisational support increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.

H9a: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and active counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on active counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.

H9b: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and passive counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on passive counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.

You can see the second model of study in figure 3.2.

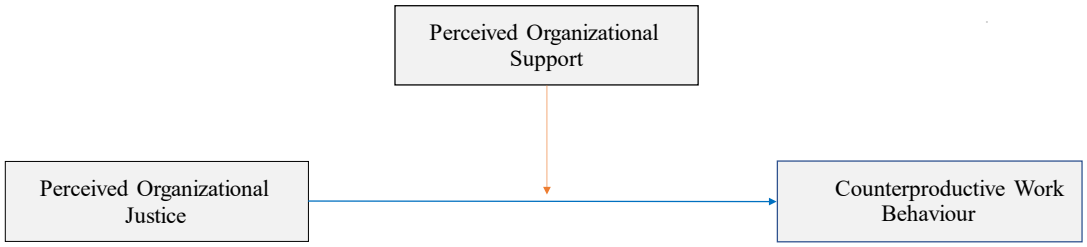

Figure 3.2. Conceptual Diagram of a Simple Moderation in which the Effect of Perceived Organizational Justice on the Counterproductive Work Behavior is Influenced or Dependent on a Perceived Organizational Support

CHAPTER 4: METHOD

In this chapter of the study, information regarding the research model, population and sample, tools for gathering and analyzing data are offered.

4.1. Research Model

The study was carried out utilizing a quantitative approach, and a correlational survey model, one of the general survey models, was employed. Studies aiming to determine the change between two or more variables, as well as the degree and direction of this change, use the correlational survey model (Karasar, 2011).

4.2. Population and Sample

The population of the research consists of adults working full-time in Turkey, while the sample comprises 402 adults working full-time in Turkey. The sample of the research consist of employees working full-time between the ages of 22-64. For the study, we estimated a small effect (d) of .2, which required a total sample size of at least 395 to attain 95% power of detecting any effect with using Gpower 3.1. Considering possible data losses, reached 412 people. Outliers were removed, and data from 402 people were included in the analysis. Data of 402 (F: 205 M:197) people were included in the analysis. The participants' average age was 32.82 years (SD: 9.35), their average tenure in their current position was 5.09 years (SD: 6.41), and their total average tenure was 9.31 years (SD: 9.26).

4.3. Measures

The data for the research were gathered via the Socio-Demographic Question Form, the Counterproductive Work Behavior, Perceived Organizational Justice Scale, the Moral Identity Scale and the Perceived Organizational Support.

4.3.1. Socio-demographic Questionnaire

The socio-demographic question form prepared by the researchers includes personal information about the participants such as age, gender, marital status, educational

level, duration of employment at the current institution, position at the organization, sector, work experience, and teamwork status.

4.3.2. Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale

In this investigation, the CWB scale created by Evans et al. (2023) was used. Active CWBI, passive CWBI, active CWBO, and passive CWBO are its four aspects. It is a 5-point Likert style measure (1=not at all consistent, 2=slightly consistent, 3=moderately consistent, 4=mostly consistent, 5=completely consistent). According to EFA results, factor loadings of the retained items ranged from .43 to .90. The scale consists of 19 items and is a 7-point Likert type.

Turkish adaptation was carried out in this study. The Turkish version of the scale consists of 17 items. The Cronbach's Alpha values for the subdimensions were found as follows: the active CWBO sub-dimension with 6 items has a value of was found 0.81, the passive CWBI sub-dimension with 4 items has a value of was found 0.75, the active CWBI sub-dimension with 4 items has a value of was found 0.76, and the passive CWBO sub-dimension with 3 items has a value of was found 0.73.

4.3.3. Perceived Organizational Justice Scale

Colquitt (2001) created the scale, it contains 20 items and consists of five sub-dimensions: seven items are transformational, four items are procedural, four items are interpersonal, and five items are created to measure the informational justice dimension. It is a 5-point Likert style measure (1=Does not reflect at all, 5=Completely reflects). Four separate scores are obtained from the scale and these scores belong to each sub-dimension.

Karabay (2004) adapted the scale into Turkish and determined that it has a three sub-dimensional structure. Unlike the original, interpersonal, and informational justice were seen as a single dimension in the Turkish version and measured interactional justice. Karabay (2004) reported that the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the procedural fairness aspects consisting of 7 items was .89, distributive justice dimension consisting of four items was .89, and the interactional justice dimension consisting of 9 items was .95.

For this study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the perceived organizational justice sub- aspects were found as follows; procedural justice .93, distributive .91 and interactional justice .96.

4.3.4. Moral Identity Scale

In the study, the Moral Identity Scale was created by Aquino and Reed (2002) and adapted into Turkish by Yılmaz and Yılmaz (2015) were used to measure moral identity. As a consequence of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis applied in Yılmaz and Yılmaz's (2015) scale adaptation, the scale's initial configuration was preserved. Two sub-factors of the scale are internalization and symbolization. There are 5 statements in each factor and the scale is a 7-point Likert type (1 = I strongly disagree, 7 = I strongly agree). As a consequence of the adaptation research, it was established that the Turkish version of the scale had both construct and congruent validity. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient of internalization and symbolization was .77, .76, respectively (Yılmaz & Yılmaz, 2015).

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient in this research for the symbolization sub-dimension of moral identity was found to be .91. The item-total correlation coefficients for two items (items 4 and 7) in the moral identity internalization subscale were less than 0.30, leading to their removal. Following the removal of these two items, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the moral identity internalization subscale was found to be .82.

4.3.5. Perceived Organizational Support Scale

The scale consisting of thirty-six items was created by Eisenberger et al. (1986). It is a 5-point Likert style measure (1 = I strongly disagree, 5 = I strongly agree). High scores indicate a high perception of organizational support. Scale items were placed into a single factor as a consequence of factor analysis, explaining 48.3 of the total variances. The scale's Cronbach Alpha coefficient was discovered to be following the reliability analysis .97 (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Stassen and Ursel (2009) created the scale's abbreviated form. Turunc and Celik (2010) transformed it into Turkish. The scale consists of 10 statements in total and the 6th and 9th statements in the scale are reverse scored. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the measure was found to be .88 by Turunc and Celik (2010).

For this study, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for measure was found to be .93 after removing items 6 and 9. These items were removed because their item-total correlation values were less than .30.

4.4. Procedure

For the validity and reliability studies of the CWB measure, the measure was first translated into Turkish by proposing multiple equivalent statements for each item. These translations were then evaluated by a panel of four judges, all of whom have PhD in Psychology by selecting the expressions on which most of the judges agreed, the Turkish version of the scale was prepared.

The sample of the research consists of adults who are working full-time job. Participants were reached using a convenience sampling method, and participants in research was entirely voluntary. Attendees were accessed online via a link to a Google Form containing the survey, or through the paper-and-pencil method. In addition, changing the order of the scales three different variations of the online survey were created. Initially, participants were given an informed consent form. Subsequently, the voluntary participants were requested to respond to an inquiry that contained the Socio-Demographic Question Form, the Counterproductive Work Behavior, the Perceived Organizational Justice, the Moral Identity, and the Perceived Organizational Support. Finally, attendees were made aware of the goal of the study. The entire process took approximately the attendees have 15 minutes to finish.

Before proceeding with the analyses, the data were tested to ensure they met the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of sample group variances. Including univariate (participants who fell outside the +-3.29 z score) and multivariate outliers, missing data, and participants who did not fit the sample criteria 10 participants were identified. After excluding these participants, analyses were conducted with the data from the remaining 402 participants.

4.5. Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis of the CWB scale was conducted for the Turkish adaptation of the CWB scale, and the reliability of all scales was tested. The sample's demographic features were revealed by the application of descriptive statistical analysis. Additionally, to investigate the connections among all the variables,

correlation analysis was performed. Simple linear regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses. In addition, the proposed models were tested using Process Macro analysis (Model 1). SPSS 25 was used for all of the analyses.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

This section presents the findings from the statistical analyses applied to the data collected to achieve the research objectives are presented. First, the demographic features of sample will be provided. Following this, the results of the exploratory factor analysis of the active-passive CWB scale, the outcomes of the correlation analysis between variables, linear analysis of regression, and the analysis findings of the proposed model to elucidate the association among active-passive CWB, POJ, and POS is presented.

Table 5.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variable		N	Percent
Age	22-29	21	52.5
	30-39	90	22.4
	40-49	78	19.4
	50-64	23	5.7
Gender	Female	205	51
	Male	197	49
Education Level	Literate	2	0.5
	Primary school	2	0.5
	Middle school	9	2.2
	High school	61	15.1
	Associate degree	59	14.6
	Bachelor degree	203	50.6
	Master or PhD	66	16.4
Marital Status	Married	169	41.9
	Single	234	58.1
Tenure in current position	<1 year	61	14.9
	1-5 year	221	55
	6-10	56	14
	11-20	52	12.7
	>20	12	3.4
Total tenure	<1 year	19	14.6
	1-5 year	189	46.9
	6-10	56	13.8
	11-20	81	20.1
	>20	57	4.6
Sector	Private sector	228	56.7
	Partially privatized, Partially public institution	24	6
	State agency	150	37.3
Working with group	Yes	360	89.5
	No	42	10.5

5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis Result for CWB Scale

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to reveal the factor structure of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale. For this, oblique rotation (Direct Oblimin) was used. The reason for using the direct oblimin method is that the factors are considered dependent (related). First, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sample adequacy value was found .85 and the sample size showed that it was sufficient for PCA. This value is considered sufficient by Field (2009) when it is over .50 and is classified in the "excellent" category between 0.80-0.90. In addition, as a result of the Barlett Test was found as x^2 (402) =3289.83 p <.001, this finding means that there are significant intercorrelations between items.

Table 5.2. KMO and Barlett's Test for 19 Item

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser -Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.85
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx Chi-Square	3289.83
	df	171
	sig.	.000

As a result of PCA, it was determined that the scale consisting of 19 items. Four components had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and these 4 factors explained 59.05% of the total variance. It is understood from the breaks in the scree plot that the scale has four factors. In addition, the first of the sub-dimensions explains 32,98 % of the variance and the second is 10,43 %, the third explains 9,02 % and the fourth is explains 6,62%.

Table 5.3. Sample: Means, Standard Deviations, Participation Rates, and Factor Loadings for CWB Items

Items	M	SD	ACWBO	PCWBI	ACWBI	PCWBO
1.İşyerinde biriyle dalga geçtiğim olur.	1.75	.94			.743	
2.İşyerinde birine kırıcı bir şey söylediğim olur.	1.53	.73			.873	
3.İşyerindeki birine küfrettiğim olur.	1.22	.56			.540	
4.İşyerindeki birine karşı kaba davrandığım olur.	1.45	.70			.833	
5. Birisi bana bir şey dediğinde cevap vermediğim olur.	1.90	.91		.521		
6.İşyerinde birinin ihtiyacı olduğunda destek vermediğim olur.	1.63	.94		.762		
7.Bir iş arkadaşıma işi için ihtiyaç duyduğu bilgiyi vermediğim olur.	1.29	.70		.824		
8.İşyerimde işe yeni başlayan birine destek vermediğim olur.	1.25	.70		.873		
9. İş masraflarımda harcadığım paradan daha fazlasını geri almak için bir makbuzda değişiklik yaptığım olur.	1.08	.37	.698			
10.Yetkili olmayan birisiyle şirketin gizli bilgilerini paylaştığım olur.	1.12	.46	.813			
11.Çalışma ortamımı kirlettiğim olur.	1.35	.68	.534			.534
12.Şirketimin malzemesini/malzemelerini bilerek boşa harcadığım olur.	1.14	.45	.636			
13.İşimi kasıtlı olarak yanlış yaptığım olur.	1.09	.41	.713			
14.Şirketime ait ait para, mal veya malzemeleri izinsiz alıp kendi özel işlerimde kullandığım olur.	1.11	.45	.557		.531	.443
15.İşlerin bitirilmesi gerektiğinde yavaş hareket ettiğim olur.	1.31	.66	.726			
16.Çalışmadığım halde çalışıyor gibi görünmek için işimi gereğinden fazla uzattığım olur.	1.33	.71	.664			
17.İşyerimde zamanımın çoğunu çalışmaktan çok hayal kurarak geçirdiğim olur.	1.33	.68	.516		.476	.686
18.İşimi yapmak için çaba göstermediğim olur.	1.33	.75		.532		.689
19.İşyerinde günümü sıkı bir şekilde çalışarak geçirmediğim olur.	1.69	.91				.801

Note. Principal component analysis (PCA) with Oblique Rotation. N = 402. Responses ranged from 1 = never 2 = rarely 3 = sometimes 4 = generally 5 = always. b Italicized numbers indicate dominant factor loadings. ACWBO= active counter productive work behavior organization, PCWBI= passive counterproductive work behavior interpersonal, ACWBI= active counterproductive work behavior interpersonal, PCWBO = passive counterproductive work behavior organization.

When we look at the Rotated Component Matrix table, we see that some items are found in more than one factors at the same time. The difference between the component values of the factors in which items 11 and 14 are included is less than 0.10, therefore these items removed from the scale.

The 17 components with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) were subjected to a principal component analysis (PCA). The four components that met Kaiser's criteria of 1 had eigenvalues that explained 61.331 % of the variation. In addition, the first of the sub-dimensions explains 32,845 % of the variance, the second is 11,081 %, the third explains 10,04 % and fourth explains 7,365%. The scree plot graph shows quite clearly that there are four factors of scale. The first sub-aspect is made up of of 6 items (9,10,12,13,15,16), the second sub-aspect is made up of 4 items (5,6,7,8), the third sub-aspect is made up of 4 items (1,2,3,4) and fourth sub-aspect is made up of 3 items (17,18,19). Factor loads were determined as the lowest .42. Since factor loadings of .40 and above are considered ideal (Field, 2009), it can be said that the items make significant contributions to the factors. Although the items generally align with the factors in the initial measure, items 15 and 16, based on our analyses, are placed in the active CWBO factor instead of the passive CWBO factor. The names of the factors in order are as follows: active CWBO (9,10,12,13,15,16), passive CWBI (5,6,7,8), active CWBI (1,2,3,4), and passive CWBO (17,18,19).

The value of Cronbach's Alpha for the first sub-aspect (active CWBO) was found to be 0.81, with a mean of 7.07 (SD = 2.54). The second sub-dimension (passive CWBI) had a value of Cronbach's Alpha of 0.75 and a mean of 6.06 (SD = 2.46). For the third sub-dimension (active CWBI), the value of Cronbach's Alpha was 0.76 and the mean was 5.95 (SD = 2.27). Lastly, the fourth sub-dimension (passive CWBO) had a value of Cronbach's Alpha 0.73 and a mean of 3.36 (SD = 1.89).

Table 5.4. Factor Loads and Item - Total Correlations

Items	Factor Load	Item – Total Correlations
1.İşyerinde biriyle dalga geçtiğim olur.	.776	.567
2.İşyerinde birine kırıcı bir şey söylediğim olur.	.886	.704
3.İşyerindeki birine küfrettiğim olur.	.551	.387
4.İşyerindeki birine karşı kaba davrandığım olur.	.830	.646
5.Birisi bana bir şey dediğinde cevap vermediğim olur.	.422	.394
6.İşyerinde birinin ihtiyacı olduğunda destek vermediğim olur.	.721	.626
7.Bir iş arkadaşıma işi için ihtiyaç duyduğu bilgiyi vermediğim olur.	.841	.56
8.İşyerimde işe yeni başlayan birine destek vermediğim olur.	.911	.646
9. İş masraflarımda harcadığım paradan daha fazlasını geri almak için bir makbuzda değişiklik yaptığım olur.	.737	.479
10.Yetkili olmayan birisiyle şirketin gizli bilgilerini paylaştığım olur.	.836	.615
12.Şirketimin malzemesini/malzemelerini bilerek boşa harcadığım olur.	.510	.561
13.İşimi kasıtlı olarak yanlış yaptığım olur.	.680	.587
15.İşlerin bitirilmesi gerektiğinde yavaş hareket ettiğim olur.	.626	.637
16.Çalışmadığım halde çalışıyor gibi görünmek için işimi gereğinden fazla uzattığım olur.	.549	.636
17.İşyerimde zamanımın çoğunu çalışmaktan çok hayal kurarak geçirdiğim olur.	.573	.538
18.İşimi yapmak için çaba göstermediğim olur.	.607	.539
19.İşyerinde günümü sıkı bir şekilde çalışarak geçirmediğim olur.	.801	.617

*Note.*The translated versions of the items into Turkish are presented in the table.

5.2 Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach Alpha Scores and Correlations Between the Scales of The Research

The mean and standard deviations of the scores obtained from the measuring instruments employed in the study, the Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficients of the measures and the correlations among the scores obtained from the measures are given in the table below. Upon examining the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of the scales, it is observed that the values range between .73 and .96.

When examining the correlations of demographic variables, it was found that age is significantly related to gender, marital status, educational status, tenure in current position, total tenure, sector and passive CWBI; gender is significantly related to tenure in current position, total tenure, active CWBI and moral identity symbolization ; marital status is significantly related to educational status, tenure in current position, total tenure, sector and passive CWBI; educational status is significantly related to total tenure, sector, working with group and moral identity internalization; tenure in current position is significantly related to total tenure, sector, passive CWBI, POS, perceived fairness of procedural, and perceived fairness of interactional ; total tenure is significantly related to sector and passive CWBI; sector is significantly related to passive CWBI, organizational support, and perceived procedural justice; working with group is significantly related to active CWBI and moral identity internalization.

When looking at the correlations between scale scores, it is seen that all relationships, except for the association of passive CWBI with internalizing and symbolism of ethical identity are of statistical significance. The highest correlation among the scales of the study is observed among ethical identity internalizing and ethical identity symbolism (r = .67, p < .01). The lowest correlation among the study's scales is found between passive CWBO and moral identity internalization; active CWBO and moral identity symbolization (r = -.15, p < .01) (table 5.5).

Table 5.5. Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach Alpha Scores and Correlations between Scales of the Study

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Age	1.00																		
2. Gender	.178**	1.00																	
3. Marital Status	-.61**	-.08	1.00																
4. Education Status	-.23**	-.01	.28**	1.00															
5. Tenure in Current Position	.72**	.16**	-.46**	-.08	1.00														
6. Total Tenure	.88**	.23**	-.55**	-.27**	.71**	1.00													
7. Sector	.17**	-.04	-.14**	.12*	.25**	.12*	1.00												
8. Working with Group	.025	-.01	-.08	-.14*	.04	-.02	.09	1.00											
9. Passive CWBI	.21**	.08	-.21**	-.07	.17**	.19**	.13**	.02	1.00										
10. Active CWBI	.06	.15**	.01	.06	.09	.07	.08	-.13*	.29**	1.00									
11. Passive CWBO	.03	.08	.05	.07	.1	.00	-.01	-.05	.35**	.35**	1.00								
12. Active CWBO	.04	-.02	-.01	-.05	.03	-.01	-.03	-.07	.40**	.38**	.58**	1.00							
13. Perceived Organizational Support	-.05	.02	.05	-.01	-.11*	.02	-.14**	-.022	-.19**	-.2**	-.25**	-.32**	1.00						
14. Moral Identity Internalization	.03	-.09	.1	.11*	-.01	.04	.04	-.13*	-.04	-.24**	-.15**	-.17**	.34**	1.00					
15. Moral Identity Symbolization	-.00	-.10*	.00	-.04	-.04	.055	-.02	-.08	.008	-.22**	-.2**	-.15**	.36**	.67**	1.00				
16. Perceived Interactional Justice	-.1	.03	.05	.09	-.11*	.02	-.03	.03	-.2**	-.25**	-.19**	-.33**	.65**	.42**	.37**	1.00			
17. Perceived Procedural Justice	-.1	.01	.04	.02	-.16**	-.05	-.14**	-.1	-.25**	-.19**	-.22**	-.26**	.55**	.38**	.41**	.55**	1.00		
18. Perceived Distributive Justice	.04	.02	-.02	-.1	-.03	.05	.06	.005	-.17**	-.17**	-.23**	-.16**	.55**	.30**	.28**	.53**	.51**	1.00	
Mean	32.82	1.49	1.58	5.6	5.09	9.31	1.81	1.10	6.1	5.95	4.36	7.07	27.44	17.17	23.83	32.36	21.46	12.52	
Standard Deviation (SS)	9.35	.50	.49	1.08	6.41	9.26	.95	.30	2.45	2.27	1.89	2.25	8.38	4.46	8.40	10.18	7.98	4.65	
Cronbach Alfa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.75	.76	.81	.73	.93	.82	.91	.96	.93	.91	

Note. N= 402 ,*p <.05 (two tailed). ** p <.01 (two tailed)

5.3. Simple Linear Regression Analyses

5.3.1. Regression Analysis Between Perceived Distributive Justice and Active CWBO

Perceived distributive justice significantly and negatively predicts active CWBO (*b* = -.08, *p* = .002). A decrease in perceived distributive justice increases active CWBO by .08 units. Additionally, the decrease in perceived distributive justice explains 2.5% of the increase in active CWBO (R^2 = .025). Thus, H1a was supported.

Table 5.6. Regression Analysis of the Prediction of Active CWBO by Perceived Distributive Justice

Variable		*b*	*SE*	95%CI		*t*	*p*
				LL	UL		
Constant		8.031	.32	7.403	8.660	25.134	001
Perceived Distributive Justice		-.08	.024	-.123	-.029	-3.194	.002
R^2	.025						

N: 402

5.3.2. Regression Analysis Between Perceived Distributive Justice and Passive CWBO

Perceived distributive justice significantly and negatively predicts passive CWBO (*b* = -.09, *p* = .001). A decrease in perceived distributive justice increases passive CWBO by .09 units. Additionally, the decrease in perceived distributive justice explains 5.1% of the increase in passive CWBO (R^2 = .051). Thus, H1b was supported.

Table 5.7. Regression Analysis of the Prediction of Passive CWBO by Perceived Distributive Justice

Variable		B	SE	95%CI		*t*	*p*
				LL	UL		
Constant		5.505	.265	4.984	6.026	20.771	.001
Perceived Distributive Justice		-.09	.02	-.131	-.053	-4.625	.001
R^2	.051						

N: 402

5.3.3. Regression Analysis Between Perceived Procedural Justice and Active CWBO

Perceived fairness of procedural significantly and negatively predicts active CWBO (b = -.07, p = .001). A decrease in perceived procedural justice increases active CWBO by .07 units. Additionally, the decrease in perceived procedural justice explains 6.9 % of the increase in active CWBO (R^2 = .069). Thus, H3a was supported.

Table 5.8. Regression Analysis of the Prediction of Active CWBO by Perceived Procedural Justice

Variable		*b*	*SE*	95%CI		*t*	*p*
				LL	UL		
Constant		8.671	.313	8.056	9.286	27.717	.001
Perceived Procedural Justice		-.07	.014	-.101	-.048	-5.443	.001
R^2	.069						

N: 402

5.3.4. Regression Analysis Between Perceived Procedural Justice and Passive CWBO

Perceived fairness of procedural significantly and negatively predicts passive CWBO (b = -.05, p = .001). A decrease in perceived procedural justice increases passive CWBO by .05 units. Additionally, the decrease in perceived procedural justice explains 4.7 % of the increase in passive CWBO (R^2 = .047). Thus, H3b was supported.

Table 5.9. Regression Analysis of the Prediction of Passive CWBO by Perceived Procedural Justice

Variable		*b*	*SE*	95%CI		*t*	*p*
				LL	UL		
Constant		5.461	.266	4.937	5.984	20.519	.001
Perceived Procedural Justice		-.05	.012	-.074	-.029	-4.427	.001
R^2	.047						

N: 402

5.3.5. Regression Analysis Between Perceived Interactional Justice and Active CWBI

Perceived interactional justice significantly and negatively predicts active CWBI (b = -.06, p = .001). A decrease in perceived interactional justice increases active CWBI by

.06 units. Additionally, the decrease in perceived interactional justice explains 6.2% of the increase in active CWBI (R^2 = .062). Thus, H5a was supported.

Table 5.10. Regression Analysis of the Prediction of Active CWBI by Perceived Interactional Justice

Variable		*b*	*SE*	95%CI		*t*	*p*
				LL	UL		
Constant		7.753	.368	7.031	8.476	21.096	.001
Perceived Interactional Justice		-.06	.011	-.077	-.034	-5.141	.001
R^2	.062						

N: 402

5.3.6. Regression Analysis Between Perceived Interactional Justice and Passive CWBI

Perceived interactional justice significantly and negatively predicts passive CWBI (*b* = -.05, *p* = .001). A decrease in perceived interactional justice increases passive CWBI by .05 units. Additionally, the decrease in perceived interactional justice explains 3.8% of the increase in passive CWBI (R^2 = .038). Thus, H5b was supported.

Table 5.11. Regression Analysis of the Prediction of Passive CWBI by Perceived Interactional Justice

Variable		*b*	*SE*	95%CI		*t*	*p*
				LL	UL		
Constant		7.591	.403	6.798	8.383	18.840	.001
Perceived Interactional Justice		-.05	.012	-.071	-.024	-3.969	.001
R^2	.038						

N: 402

5.4. Analysis Results of the Proposed Model

To test the hypotheses whether moral identity and POS moderate the association among POJ and CWB, Process Macro (Model 1) analyses were conducted.

5.4.1. Moderation Analysis for Moral Identity

Table 5.12, table 5.13, table 5.14, table 5.15, table 5.16 and table 5.17 show the outcomes of performing the moderation analysis hypotheses for H2a, H2b, H4a, H4b, H6a and H6b, specifically the moderation impact of internalizing ethical character.

5.4.1.1. Moderating role of moral identity internalization in the relationship between perceived distributive justice and active cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, *b* = -0.01, 95% CI [-.0158, 0.0056], *t*= -.9373, *p*>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived distributive justice and active CWBO is not moderated by moral identity internalization. H2a was not supported.

Table 5.12. Linear Model of Predictors of Active CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	7.11	.12	61.54	.0001
Distributive Justice (DJ)	-0.05	.03	-2.15	.0318
Moral Identity Internalization (MII)	-.08	.03	- 2.78	.0057
DJ X MI	-.01	.01	-.94	.3492

5.4.1.2. Moderating role of moral identity internalization in the relationship between perceived distributive justice and passive cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated a significant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is significantly, *b* = -.02, 95% CI [-.0242, -.0067, *t*= -3.46, *p*<.05, showing that the association among the perceived distribution fairness and passive CWBO is regulated by moral identity internalization.

Table 5.13. Linear Model of Predictors of Passive CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	4.45	.09	46.90	.0001
Distributive Justice (DJ)	-.07	.02	-3.54	.0004
Moral Identity Internalization (MII)	-.07	.02	-3.12	.0019
DJ X MI	-.02	.01	-3.46	.0006

When moral identity internalization low, there is a non-significant adverse association among POS and passive CWBO, *b*=-.004, 95% CI [-0.0635, 0.0550], *t*=-.1404, *p*=.8884. At the mean value of moral identity internalization, there is a significant adverse association among perceived distributive justice and passive CWBO, *b*=-.07, 95% CI [-0.1136, -0.325], *t*=-3.5447, *p*=0.0004. Perception distributive fairness is significantly inversely correlated with passive CWBO when moral character internalizing is high as well, *b*=-.1322, 95% CI [-.1819, -.0824], *t*=-5.2199, *p*=.0001. Moral identity internalization plays a moderator role among perception distributive

fairness and passive CWBO as moral identity internalization increases, the impact of perception distributive fairness on passive CWBO decreases. H2b was supported.

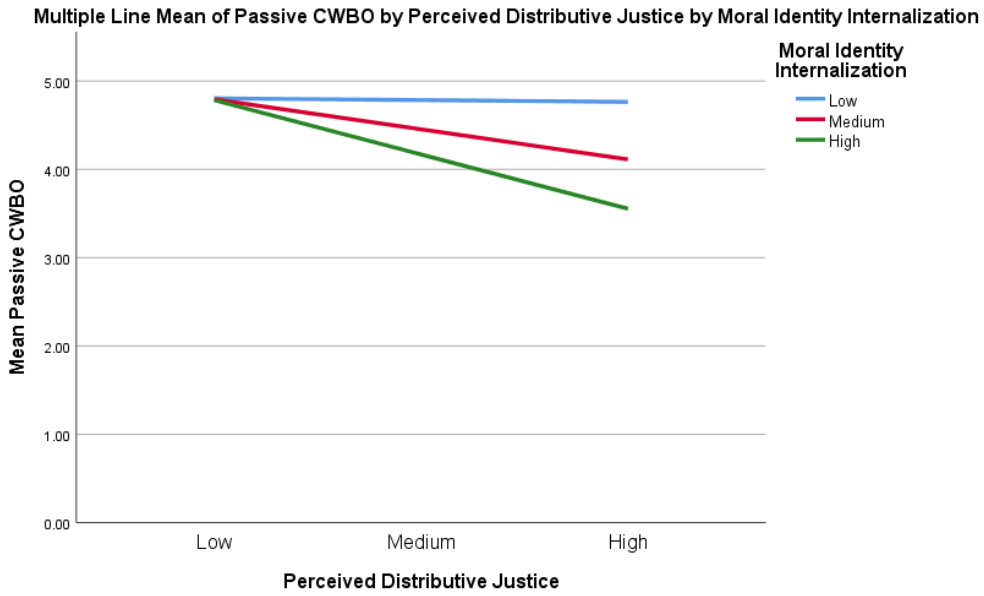

Figure 5.1. Moderating Role of Moral Identity in the Relationship between Perceived Distributive Justice and Passive CWBO

5.4.1.3. Moderating role of moral identity internalization in the relationship between perceived procedural justice and active cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = 0.00, 95% CI [-.0043, 0.0092], t= .7172, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived procedural justice and active CWBO is not moderated by moral identity internalization. H4a was not supported.

Table 5.14. Linear Model of Predictors of Active CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	7.04	.12	59.68	.0001
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-.07	.02	-4.48	.0000
Moral Identity Internalization (MII)	-.03	.03	-1.00	.3168
PJ X MI	-.00	.00	-.72	.4737

5.4.1.4. Moderating role of moral identity internalization in the relationship between perceived procedural justice and passive cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = -.01, 95% CI [-.0114, 0.0000], t= -1.9511, p>.05,

demonstrating that an association among the perceived procedural justice and passive CWBO is not moderated by moral identity internalization. H4b was not supported.

Table 5.15. Linear Model of Predictors of Passive CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	4.43	.10	44.33	.0001
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-.04	.01	-3.03	.0026
Moral Identity Internalization (MII)	-.06	.03	-2.28	.0233
PJ X MI	-.01	.00	-1.95	.0517

5.4.1.5. Moderating role of moral identity internalization in the relationship between perceived interactional justice and active cwbi

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = -.01, 95% CI [-.0097, -.0009, t= -2.3451, p<.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived interactional justice and active CWBI is moderated by moral identity internalization.

Table 5.16. Linear Model of Predictors of Active CWBI

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	6.05	.12	51.97	.0001
Interactional Justice (IJ)	-.04	.01	-3.37	.0008
Moral Identity Internalization (MII)	-.12	.03	-3.83	.0001
IJ X MI	-.01	.00	-2.35	.0195

When moral identity internalization is low, there is a non-significant adverse relationship among perception of interactional fairness and active CWBI, b=-.02, 95% CI [-0.047, 0.0148], t=-.1.0242, p=.3064. The average value of moral identity internalization, the association between is significantly unfavorable perceived interactional justice and active CWBI, b=.-.04, 95% CI [-0.0628, -0.0165], t=-3.3651, p=0.0008. When moral identity internalizing high, there is a significant inverse association among perception of interactional fairness and active CWBI, b=-.06, 95% CI [-.0881, -.0316], t=-4.1677, p=.0001. Moral identity internalization plays a moderator role among perception of interactional fairness and active CWBI as moral identity internalization increases, the impact of perception of interactions fairness on active CWBI decreases. H6a was supported.

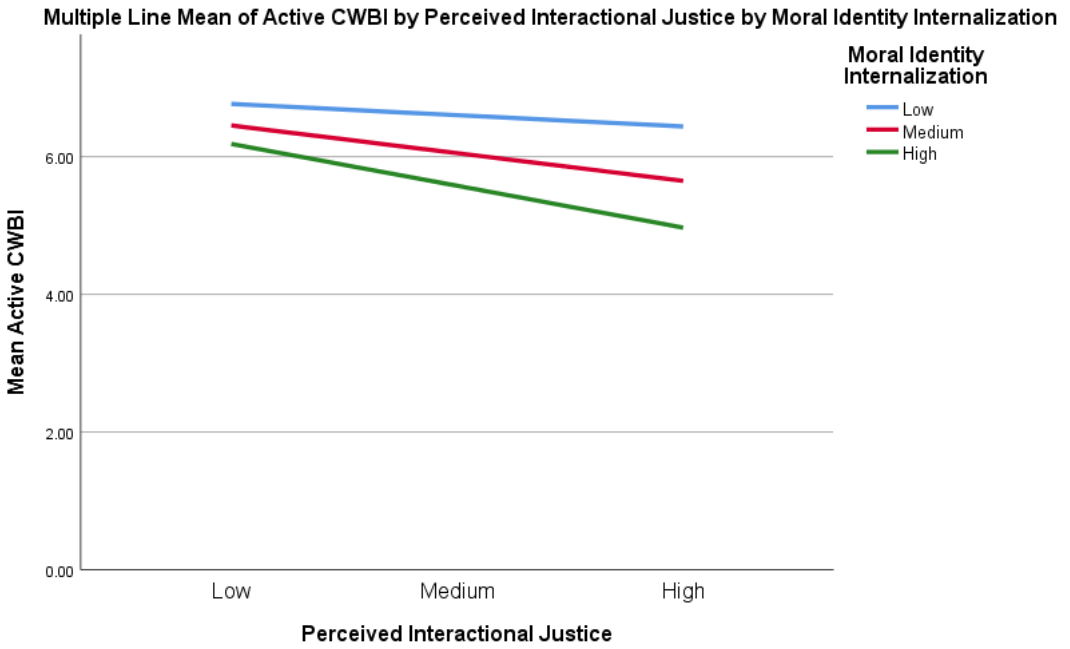

Figure 5.2. Moderating Role of Moral Identity in the Relationship between Perceived Interactional Justice and Active CWBI

5.4.1.6. Moderating role of moral identity internalization in the relationship between perceived interactional justice and passive cwbi

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = .01, 95% CI [-.0045, 0.0054], t= .1903, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived interactional justice and passive CWBI is not moderated by moral identity internalization. H6b was not supported.

Table 5.17. Linear model of predictors of Passive CWBI

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	6.06	.13	46.65	.0001
Interactional Justice (IJ)	-.05	.01	-3.99	.0001
Moral Identity Internalization (MII)	.03	.04	.89	.3701
IJ X MI	.01	.00	.19	.8492

5.4.2. Moderation Analysis for Perceived Organizational Support

Table 5.18, table 5.19, table 5.20, table 5.21, table 5.22 and table 5.23 show the results of the moderation analysis testing hypotheses for H7a, H7b, H8a, H8b, H9a and H9b particularly the moderating impact of moral identity internalization.

5.4.2.1. Moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between perceived distributive justice and active cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = -0.00, 95% CI [-.0088, 0.0013], t= -1.4730, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived distributive justice and active CWBO is not moderated by moral perceived organizational support. H7a was not supported.

Table 5.18. Linear Model of Predictors of Active CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	7.16	.12	59.63	.0001
Distributive Justice (DJ)	.02	.03	.57	.5660
Organizational Support (OS)	-.09	.02	-6.12	.0000
DJ X OS	-.00	.00	-1.17	.1415

5.4.2.2. Moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between perceived distributive justice and passive cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = -0.00, 95% CI [-.0067, 0.0019], t= -1.0976, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived distributive justice and passive CWBO is not moderated by moral perceived organizational support. H7b was not supported.

Table 5.19. Linear Model of Predictors of Passive CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	4.41	.10	42.93	.0001
Distributive Justice (DJ)	-.05	.02	-2.07	.0391
Organizational Support (OS)	-.05	.01	-3.37	.0008
DJ X OS	-.00	.00	-1.1	.2731

5.4.2.3. Moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between perceived procedural justice and active cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b =.00, 95% CI [-.0031, 0.0030], t= -.0278, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived procedural justice and active CWBO is not moderated by moral perceived organizational support. H8a was not supported.

Table 5.20. Linear Model of Predictors of Active CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	7.08	.12	58.57	.0001
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-.03	.02	-2.13	.0336
Organizational Support (OS)	-.07	.02	-4.38	.0000
PJ X OS	-.00	.00	-.03	.9778

5.4.2.4. Moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between perceived procedural justice and passive cwbo

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = .00, 95% CI [-.0013, 0.0040], t= 1.0322, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived procedural justice and passive CWBO is not moderated by moral perceived organizational support. H8b was not supported.

Table 5.21. Linear Model of Predictors of Passive CWBO

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	4.3	.11	41.49	.0001
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-.03	.01	-1.97	.0492
Organizational Support (OS)	-.04	.01	-3.02	.0027
PJ X OS	-.00	.00	1.03	.3026

5.4.2.5. Moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between perceived interactional justice and active cwbi

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = -.00, 95% CI [-.0038, 0.0009], t= -1.2415, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived interactional justice and active CWBI is not moderated by moral perceived organizational support. H9a was not supported.

Table 5.22. Linear Model of Predictors of Active CWBI

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	6.03	.13	47.24	.0001
Interactional Justice (IJ)	-.05	.01	-3.45	.0006
Organizational Support (OS)	-.02	.02	-1.09	.2749
IJ X OS	-.00	.00	-1.24	.2152

5.4.2.6. Moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between perceived interactional justice and passive cwbi

Moderation is demonstrated by an insignificant interactive impact, and in this case the interplay is non-significant, b = -0.00, 95% CI [-.0036, 0.0016], t= -.7559, p>.05, demonstrating that an association among the perceived interactional justice and passive CWBI is not moderated by moral perceived organizational support. H9b was not supported.

Table 5.23. Linear Model of Predictors of Passive CWBI

	b	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Constant	6.12	.14	43.75	.0001
Interactional Justice (IJ)	-.03	.02	-2.11	.0354
Organizational Support (OS)	-.03	.02	-1.64	.1021
IJ X OS	-.00	.00	-.76	.4502

5.5. Confirmed and Unconfirmed Hypotheses of the Research

The table created to provide an overview of which hypotheses were confirmed and which were not is presented below.

Table 5.24. Table of Confirmed and Unconfirmed Hypotheses of the Research

H1a: There is a negative relationship between perceived distributive justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization.	H1a was supported.
H1b: There is a negative relationship between perceived distributive justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization.	H1b was supported.
H2a: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H2a was not supported.
H2b: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H2b was supported.
H3a: There is negative relationship between perceived procedural justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization.	H3a was supported.
H3b: There is negative relationship between perceived procedural justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization.	H3b was supported.
H4a: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H4a was not supported.
H4b: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H4b was not supported.
H5a: There is negative relationship between perceived interactional justice and active counterproductive work behavior individual.	H5a was supported.
H5b: There is negative relationship between perceived interactional justice and passive counterproductive work behavior individual.	H5b was supported.
H6a: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and active counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on active counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.	H6a was supported.
H6b: Internalization of moral identity plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and passive counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on passive counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.	H6b was not supported.
H7a: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organizational support increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H7a was not supported.
H7b: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived distributive justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organizational support increases, the effect of perceived distributive justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H7b was not supported.
H8a: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and active counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organizational support increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on active counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H8a was not supported.
H8b: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived procedural justice and passive counterproductive work behavior organization as perceived organizational support increases, the effect of perceived procedural justice on passive counterproductive work behavior organization decreases.	H8b was not supported.
H9a: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and active counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on active counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.	H9a was not supported.
H9b: Perceived organizational support plays a moderator role between perceived interactional justice and passive counterproductive work behavior individual as internalization of moral identity increases, the effect of perceived interactional justice on passive counterproductive work behavior individual decreases.	H9b was not supported.

CHAPTER 6: GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this study, we conducted the Turkish adaptation of the CWB scale (Evans et al., 2023) and explored the moderating impacts of moral identity and POS on the association among POJ and active-passive CWBO/CWBI. The study revealed a negative correlation among perception of distributive/procedural fairness and counterproductive work behavior organization. Furthermore, it demonstrated an adverse association among perception of interactional fairness and unproductive job actions towards individual. While internalization of moral identity moderated the association among perception of distributive fairness and passive unproductive job actions organization, it didn't have a moderating impact on the association among perceived distributive justice and active unproductive job actions organization. In addition, I found that the internalization of moral identity didn't moderate the association among perceived procedural justice and active-passive unproductive job actions towards organization. Furthermore, although the internalizing of moral identity played a moderator role among perception of interactional fairness and active unproductive job actions towards individual, this moderating effect was not observed among perception of interactional fairness and passive unproductive job actions towards individual. The next section summarizes its results and lendings to the areas, highlights the research practice inferences, and addresses the research's limits and next directions.

6.1. The Relationships Between Perceived Organizational Justice, Moral Identity, Active-Passive CWBI/CWBO, and Perceived Organizational Support

Research's results revealed that perceived distributive justice negatively predicts active CWBO and passive CWBO; perceived procedural justice negatively predicts active CWBO and passive CWBO; perceived interactional justice negatively predicts active CWBI and passive CWBI. Although previous studies in the field did not extensively examine CWBO/CWBI as active and passive, these findings align with previous research findings (Al-A'wasa, 2018; Le Roy et al., 2012; Ozdevecioglu,

2003). LeRoy and colleagues (2012) revealed that diminished levels of perception of interactional fairness and negative emotions were key predictors of counterproductive work behaviors in their international study, which included Italy, France, and Turkey. Besides, they delved into the connections between anger, low perceived interpersonal justice, and active unproductive job actions. In research by Ansari and colleagues (2013), it was determined that staff views of low distribution fairness significantly influenced CWB, with organizational constraints highlighted as a contributing factor that aggravates these behaviors. Similarly, Oge G. et al. (2015) found a significant association among perceived institutional fairness aspects and the sub- aspects of CWB in their research with 198 public employees. Additionally, O'Neill and colleagues (2011) indicated that workers are inclined to participate in CWB when they perceive injustice. Devonish and Greenidge's study (2010) showed that DJ, PJ, and IJ have a significant negative impact on CWB. Moreover, Polatcı and Ozcalık (2015) discovered that CWB was negatively associated with both interactional and fairness in procedures.

Considering the moderation effects observed in the study, it was noted that internalization of ethical identity moderated the association among perceived distributive justice and passive CWBO. However, this moderation effect was not observed in the association among perception of distributive fairness and active CWBO. Additionally, internalization of moral identity didn't serve as a moderator among perception of procedural justice and either active or passive counterproductive work behavior organization. Similarly, while internalization of moral identity played a moderating role among perception of interactional fairness and active CWBI, it didn't exhibit the same effect in the relationship with passive CWBI. Lastly, none of the hypotheses related to the moderator role of perception of institutional assistance in the association among perceived organizational fairness and active-passive CWBO/CWBI received support. Although there may not be an exact study on this, the results are partially compliance with research indicating that moral identity acts as a moderator in the association among perceived organizational fairness and CWB. High moral identification levels in Chinese government workers have been found to reduce the likelihood of CWB, even in the face of institutional unfairness (Mingzheng et., 2014). In other words, they discovered that the association among institutional unfairness and unproductive job actions are constrained by high moral identification.

Wu et al. (2016) discovered that whereas people with strong moral identities did not experience this effect, people with low moral identities did experience a substantial impact from perception of institutional fairness on CWB through job fatigue.

Though few studies have identified a negative association between these components, there is a correlation between unproductive job actions and view of the company's assistance (Jacobs et al., 2013; Liao et al., 2004; Liu & Ding, 2012). Joy and Blau (2016) discovered a significant adverse link among the perception of the institutional assistance and counterproductive work behavior among workers in the programming sector. Additionally, Abas and colleagues (2015) conducted a study involving 660 public officials employed in Malaysian ministries, revealing that perception of POS had a notable adverse effect on both CWBO and CWBI. The association among POS and all sub-aspects of CWB is negative and significant in the study, aligning with the existing literature. Although POS has been considered as a moderator in studies involving the dark triad and CWB (Palmer et al., 2017), along with the major five personality characteristics and CWB (Liu et al., 2011). The moderating impact of POS on the association among perceived organizational justice and CWB not been investigated in previous research.

6.2. The Moderation Effect of Moral Identity Internalization

It was mentioned that while internalizing having a moral identity acts as a moderating element, among perceived distributive justice and passive CWBO, this moderating effect is not observed for active CWBO. There are differences between active and passive CWB behaviors in terms of directness, density, and hazard (Cuddy et al., 2007). Passive counterproductive work behaviors are typically indirect and low-risk, such as delaying tasks or intentionally underperforming. In contrast, active counterproductive work behaviors are more overt and directly harmful, such as causing harm to someone or blatantly violating rules. These behaviors are often associated with high emotional and psychological costs and require stronger motivation to be carried out. The internalization of moral identity may not have a sufficiently strong impact on preventing active counterproductive work behaviors because such actions usually arise from more complex and multifaceted reasons. Despite their moral identity, people may turn to these actions when they witness excessive amounts of injustice. Considering Adams' Principle of Equity (Adams, 1965), equitable is linked to the fairness of the

distribution of rewards in a reciprocal relationship involving at least two parties. When there is a high perception of distributive injustice, balancing this inequity may require a response through active CWBO, even if there is high internalization of moral identification. The internalization of moral identification enhances individuals' tendency to act according to ethical standards and avoid passive counterproductive behaviors. Such behaviors are more likely to conflict with internal moral values, making it easier for individuals to refrain from low-risk, indirect harmful actions. Therefore, passive counterproductive behaviors, being low-risk and indirect, are more effectively reduced by the internalization of moral identification. On the other hand, Theory of Social Cognitive (Bandura, 2001) asserts that people's actions are influenced by the interaction between personal factors (beliefs, expectations, moral identity) and environmental factors (perception of justice, organizational support). The internalization of moral identification is a personal factor that impacts actions. However, environmental factors (such as perceived injustice) can modify this effect. Active counterproductive behaviors, due to their higher risk and direct harm, may not be sufficiently mitigated by the internalizing of moral identity, since these behaviors are triggered by stronger environmental and emotional factors.

The internalizing of moral identification didn’t act as a moderating factor between perceived procedural justice and either active or passive CWBO. Fairness of process refers to the justice of the procedures and techniques utilized in making choices, as opposed to distributive justice, which is more involved with results (Lind & Tyler, 1998). According to Konovsky (2000), procedural justice addresses how rewards are distributed. Essentially, it evaluates how fair the methods, processes, and policies are perceived in determining matters such as salary, promotions, economic opportunities, working conditions, and performance evaluations (Atalay, 2010). This phenomenon can be explained by the Theory of Conservation of Assets (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989), it asserts that people work to preserve their resources and mitigate resource loss when facing environmental threats. As outlined by Hobfoll (2001), the core principle of the theory is to acquire, protect, and enhance resources. As a result, workers may resort to counterproductive job practices to protect resources and self against imagined dangers (Coleman et al., 2008). The perceived threat to resources in procedural justice may exceed what the internalization of moral identity can tolerate because the sense of injustice regarding decision-making processes can lead to heightened concerns about

both present and future outcomes. According to Social Exchange Theory (Homans, 1958), individuals expect mutual benefit and fairness in their relationships with organizations. When procedural justice is perceived as low, individuals may view this as a violation of these principles, weakening their trust and commitment to the organization. Although internalizing a moral identity strengthens individuals' ethical values, it may not completely counterbalance the disappointment felt towards unjust procedures. Therefore, moral identity may have a limited moderating influence on the association among procedural justice and unproductive job actions. Lastly, one of the procedural fairness criteria outlined is ethicality (Tyler, 1990; Colquitt, 2001; Blader &Tyler, 2003). The rule of ethical adherence requires that procedures align with ethical standards. With the existence of unethical procedures, the impact of internalized moral identity may be diminished.

While the internalization of identity in morality acts as a moderating role among perceived interactional fairness and active CWBI, it does not have the same moderating effect on passive CWBI. This is the opposite of what is observed with distributive justice. One the rationale for this distinction could be the distinct nature of the organizational justice structures and the types of CWB. Beugré (2002) suggests that interactional fairness involves displaying behaviors characterized by courtesy, respect, and honesty in internal communication within an organization. Colquitt and colleagues (2001) argue that interactional justice pertains to the quality of emotional and social support an individual receives from their interactions with others. Additionally, people place great importance on their relationships because these connections shape and define their identities and values. When others behave fairly, it signifies respect and sincerity towards the individual, satisfying their feeling of self-esteem and identities (Yılmaz, 2004). As a result, the internalization of moral identity attenuates the correlation among perception of interactional fairness and active unproductive job actions, since behaviors perceived as more harmful, intense, or overt have the potential to undermine an individual's moral identity. According to the Reciprocity Principle (Mauss, 1990), overt active CWBI may further damage relationships and cause more people to suffer relational harm by reducing the emotional and social support they receive. In this situation, even if an individual has a high internalization of moral identity, they may still exhibit passive CWBI in response to perceived interactional justice. Furthermore, passive behavior, unlike active

behavior, can reflect not only the need for revenge but also the need to conserve and protect resources in stressful situations (Krisher et al., 2010). These passive actions might be attempts to reduce tense circumstances and prevent future tension. This aligns well with the Resource Conservation Theory (Hobfoll, 1989), which is based on the idea that during extended periods of stress, people tend to protect their resources, including time, energy, and social capital.

6.3. The Moderation Effect of Perceived Organizational Support

There is a lack of a moderation impact of POS on the association among POJ and active/passive CWBO/CWBI. According to the S-E Framework and the COR stress arises when there is a threat to resources, and people work to safeguard their current riches (Spector, 1998). Employees might engage in both dimensions of CWB as a strategy to safeguard themselves and their resources against impending threats (Coleman et al., 2008). POS is perceived as a resource, but direct threats or injustices perceived by employees, especially significant ones, might overshadow the buffering effect of POS.

6.4. Practical Implications

Given the research's conclusions, managers and human resources professionals ought to give internalizing moral identification more consideration, and efforts should be made to encourage the internalizing internalization of moral identification among employees. For example, this could be achieved through conducting ethical training programs, fostering an organizational culture that values ethical behavior, and recognizing employees who demonstrate high ethical standards. By doing so, a work environment can be created where certain types of CWB are less likely to occur even when perceived injustice is present. As seen in the results, moral identity only exhibited a buffering effect on two types of CWB. Therefore, managers and human resources professionals should act more fairly in distribution, process, and interactional fairness and reflect this fairness to their employees. Although the moderation impact of POS was not observed in the findings, organizations should still pay attention to this concept and strive to increase perceived organizational support as it provides resources, reduces stress, and indirectly influences behaviors by affecting employee commitment and satisfaction. Establishing an emotional and social support network within the organization will be important for this purpose. Lastly,

organizations should be aware of the differences between active and passive CWBI/CWBO, understand their impacts, and develop specific strategies accordingly. In addition to creating a fair working environment, customized interventions should be designed to address employees' specific complaints to prevent serious harm to the organization.

6.5. Limitations and Future Directions

Firstly, the research is restricted because of its depending only on self-reported measures, as individuals may sometimes provide less candid responses due to the social desirability effect, especially in psychological research. The information gathered in this study is limited to self-report scales, including the Perceived Organizational Justice Scale, the Moral Identity Scale, the Perceived Organizational Support Scale, and data collected from the Counterproductive Behavior Scale. Secondly, one of the restrictions is the using a cross-sectional methodology; longitudinal studies could be conducted in the future. Lastly, studies could be carried out with larger and more specific occupational groups. Nevertheless, our research illuminates the associations among POJ, moral identity, and POS based on the categorization of active and passive CWBI/CWBO. In future studies, it may delve deeper into both active and passive CWBI/CWBO precursors and the various individual and organizational factors resulting from them.

REFERENCES

Abas, C., Omar, F., Halim, F. W., & Hafidz, S. W. M. (2015). The mediating role of organizational-based self-esteem in perceived organizational support and counterproductive work behavior relationship. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *10*(9), 99. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v10n9p99

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Bergowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 267-299). Academic Press.

Adams, J. S. (1963). Towards an understanding of inequity. *The journal of abnormal and social psychology*, *67*(5), 422. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/h0040968

Akkaya, B. (2019). The relationship between primary school Teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors and counter-productive work behaviors. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 19(84), 1-27. https://doi.org/10.14689/ejer.2019.84.1

Al-A'wasa, S. I. S. (2018). The impact of organizational justice on the counterproductive work behavior (CWB): A field study conducted in the Jordan Customs Department (JCD). *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *9*(1), 27-38.

AlKerdawy, M. M. A. (2014). The mediating effects of duty orientation on the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior in the public banks of Egypt. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(8), 155. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v9n8p155

Ambrose, M. L., Seabright, M. A., & Schminke, M. (2002). Sabotage in the workplace: The role of organizational injustice. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 89(1), 947-965. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00037-7

Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review,* 24(3), 452–471. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1999.2202131

Andrews, M. C., & Kacmar, K. M. (2001). Discriminating among organizational politics, justice, and support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*(4), 347-366. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.92

Ansari, M. E., Maleki, S., Mazraeh, S., & Arab-Khazaeli, H. (2013). Individual, job, and organizational predictors of counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 3(4), 74-86.

Armeli, S., Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Lynch, P. (1998). Perceived organizational support and police performance: The moderating influence of socioemotional needs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(2), 288.

Arslantürk, G., & Şahan, S. (2012). Örgütsel adalet ve örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkinin Manisa İl Emniyet Müdürlüğü örnekleminde incelenmesi. *Polis Bilimleri Dergisi, 14*(1).

Atalay, C. (2010). Örgütsel adalet: Örgütsel davranışta güncel konular. Bursa: Ekin Basım Yayın Dağıtım.

Ayazlar, G., & Güzel, B. (2013). Örgütsel adaletin otel çalışanlarının işten ayrılma niyeti ve işyerinde sapma davranışına etkisi. *Seyahat ve Otel İşletmeciliği Dergisi, 10*(3), 6-23.

Ayduk, O., Downey, G., & Kim, M. (2001). Rejection sensitivity and depressive symptoms in women. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*(7), 868–877. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167201277009

Aquino, K., Freeman, D., Reed, A. II, Lim, V. K. G., & Felps, W. (2009). Testing a social-cognitive model of moral behavior: The interactive influence of situations and moral identity centrality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 97*(1), 123–141.

Aquino, K., & Lamertz, K. (2004). A relational model of workplace victimization: Social roles and patterns of victimization in dyadic relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(6), 1023. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.6.1023

Aquino, K., Reed, A. II, Thau, S., & Freeman, D. (2007). A grotesque and dark beauty: How moral identity and mechanisms of moral disengagement influence cognitive and emotional reactions to war. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 43*, 385-392.

Aquino, K., & Reed, A. (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*(6), 1423-1440.

Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power, procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(3), 653. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.653

Bahri, M. R. Z., Langrudi, M. S., & Hosseinian, S. (2013). Relationship of work environment variables and job satisfaction of employees with counterproductive work behaviors: A study of non-governmental non-benefit Islamic Azad University employees in West Mazandaran. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 21*(12), 1812-1815. DOI: 10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.21.12.1565

Baka, Ł. (2019). Explaining active and passive types of counterproductive work behavior: The moderation effect of bullying, the dark triad and job control. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health, 32*(6), 777-795. https://doi.org/10.13075/ijomeh.1896.01425

Baka, Ł. (2018). When do the 'dark personalities' become less counterproductive? The moderating role of job control and social support. *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics, 24*(4), 557–569. https://doi.org/10.1080/10803548.2018.1463670

Bal, T. (2020). The role of organizational cynicism as a mediator in the relationship between perceived organizational support and counterproductive work behavior for public employees. *Sosyal Güvenlik Dergisi, 10*(1), 145-164. https://doi.org/10.32331/sgd.753051

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Mechanisms of moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*(2), 364.

Baran, B. E., Shanock, L. R., & Miller, L. R. (2012). Advancing organizational support theory into the twenty-first-century world of work. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 27*(2), 123–147. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9236-3

Baron, R. A., & Neuman, J. H. (1996). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence on their relative frequency and potential causes. *Aggressive Behavior, 22*(3), 161–173. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(1996)22:3%3C161::AID-AB1%3E3.0.CO;2-Q

Becker, G. S. (1968). Crime and punishment: An economic approach. *Journal of Political Economy, 76*(2), 169–217.

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 349–360. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.3.349

Berry, C. M., Carpenter, N. C., & Barratt, C. L. (2012). Do other-reports of counterproductive work behavior provide an incremental contribution over self-reports? A meta-analytic comparison. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(3), 613. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026739

Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 410–424. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.410

Beugré, C. D. (1998). *Managing fairness in organizations*. Greenwood Publishing Group.

Beugré, C. D. (2005). Reacting aggressively to injustice at work: A cognitive stage model. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 20*, 291-301.

Beugré, C. D. (2002). Understanding organizational justice and its impact on managing employees: An African perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 13*(7), 1091-1104.

Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* , 89-118, Stanford University Press.

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* ,1, (pp. 43-55) JAI Press.

Bies, R. J., Tripp, T. M., & Kramer, R. M. (1997). At the breaking point: Cognitive and social dynamics of revenge in organizations. In R. A. Giacalone & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp.18-36). Sage Publications, Inc.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (2005). The study of revenge in the workplace: Conceptual, ideological, and empirical issues. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 65-81). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-003

Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2003). What constitutes fairness in work settings? A four-component model of procedural justice. *Human Resource Management Review, 13*(1), 107-126. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00101-8

Blanchard, A. L., & Henle, C. A. (2008). Correlates of different forms of cyberloafing: The role of norms and external locus of control. *Computers in Human Behavior, 24*(3), 1067-1084. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2007.03.008

Blasi, A. (1990). Kohlberg's theory and moral motivation. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development, 1990*(47), 51-57. https://doi.org/10.1002/cd.23219904706

Blasi, A. (2004). Moral functioning: Moral understanding and personality. In D. K. Lapsley & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development, self, and identity* (pp. 335-348). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Blasi, A. (1984). Moral identity: Its role in moral functioning. In W. Kurtines & J. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Morality, moral behavior and moral development*, 128–139, Wiley.

Blasi, A. (1993). The development of identity: Some implications for moral functioning. In G. G. Noam & T. E. Wren (Eds.), *The moral self* , 99-122, MIT Press.

Blau, P. M. (1964). Justice in social exchange. *Sociological Inquiry, 34*(2), 193-206.

Bowling, N. A., & Eschleman, K. J. (2010). Employee personality as a moderator of the relationships between work stressors and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 15*(1), 91. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017326

Brimecombe, M. J. (2012). *An exploratory investigation of the predictors of counterproductive work behaviors among major league baseball employees*. (Doctoral dissertation). The Florida State University.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C. L. (1997). *Managing workplace stress* (1). Sage.

Cemaloğlu, N. (2016). Okulun psikolojik yönü. In S. Özdemir (Ed.), *Türk eğitim sistemi ve okul yönetimi*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.

Chernyak-Hai, L., & Tziner, A. (2014). Relationships between counterproductive work behavior, perceived justice and climate, occupational status, and leader-member exchange. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones,* 30(1), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.5093/tr2014a1

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 86(2), 278-321. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2001.2958

Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witt, L. A., & Barrick, M. R. (2004). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 89(4), 599. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.599

Coleman Gallagher, V., Harris, K. J., & Valle, M. (2008). Understanding the use of intimidation as a response to job tension: Career implications for the global leader. *Career Development International*, *13*(7), 648-666.

Colquitt, J. A., & Chertkoff, J. M. (2002). Explaining injustice: The interactive effect of explanation and outcome on fairness perceptions and task motivation. *Journal of Management, 28*(5), 591-610. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(02)00157-5

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86(3), 425-445. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.425

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86(3), 386. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386

Colquitt, J. A., Zapata-Phelan, C. P., & Roberson, Q. M. (2005). Justice in teams: A review of fairness effects in collective contexts. In J. Martocchio (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (pp. 53-94). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Conlon, D. E., Meyer, C. J., & Nowakowski, J. M. (2005). What types of justice relate most strongly to key organizational outcomes. In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice: Fundamental questions about fairness in the workplace* (pp. 407-432). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Coşkun, A. (2017). *Ahlaki kimlik ve makyavelizmin örgüt yararına ahlaki olmayan davranış üzerinde etkisi: Ahlaki iklimin düzenleyici rolü*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Marmara University.

Cropanzano, R., Bowen, D. E., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The management of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives,* 21(4), 34-48. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2007.27895338

Cropanzano, R., & Greenberg, J. (1997). Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling through the maze. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (12), 317-372, John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Cropanzano, R., & Stein, J. H. (2009). Organizational justice and behavioral ethics: Promises and prospects. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *19*(2), 193-233. https://doi.org/10.5840/beq200919211

Cuddy, A. J. C., Fiske, S. T., & Glick, P. (2007). The BIAS map: Behaviors from intergroup affect and stereotypes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*(4), 631–648. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.4.631

Cullen, M. J., & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Personality and counterproductive behavior in the workplace. In M. Barrick & A. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Personality and work* (pp.150-182). Jossey-Bass.

Daileyl, R. C., & Kirk, D. J. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as antecedents of job dissatisfaction and intent to turnover. *Human Relations,* 45(3), 305-317. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679204500306

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 90(6), 1241–1255. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.6.1241

Demir, M., Ayas, S., & Harman, A. (2018). Üretim karşıtı iş davranışları üzerinde örgütsel adalet algısının rolü: Banka çalışanları örneği. *International Journal of Academic Value Studies, 4*(19), 435-448.

Demir, M. (2011). Effects of organizational justice, trust and commitment on employees' devian behavior. *Anatolia, 22*(2), 204-221. https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2011.597934

Demirel, Y., & Seçkin, Z. (2011). Örgütsel adaletin bilgi paylaşımı üzerine etkisi: İlaç sektörü çalışanlarına yönelik bir araştırma. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Istanbul University.

Detert, J. R., Treviño, L. K., & Sweitzer, V. L. (2008). Moral disengagement in ethical decision making: A study of antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 93(2), 374. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.2.374

Deutsch, M. (1985). *Distributive justice: A social-psychological perspective*. Yale University Press.

Devonish, D., & Greenidge, D. (2010). The effect of organizational justice on contextual performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and task performance: Investigating the moderating role of ability-based emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 18(1), 75-86. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2389.2010.00490.x

Dilek, U. (2004). *Örgütsel adalet algılamaları ve örgütsel bağlılıkla ilişkisi*. [Unpublished master's thesis]. Kara Harp Okulu Komutanlığı, Savunma Bilimleri Enstitüsü.

Doğan, E. (2002). *Employee job attracting: Transformational leadership style, trusting to leader, empowerment and intelligence effects.* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Gazi University.

Doğruöz, E., & Özdemir, M. (2018). Eğitim örgütlerinde üretim karşıtı iş davranışları ve örgütsel bağlılık ilişkisi. *İlköğretim Online,* 17(1), 396-413. https://doi.org/10.17051/ilkonline.2018.413790

Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86(4), 547. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.4.547

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal,* (45), 331–351. https://doi.org/10.5465/3069350

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., Shaw, J. D., Johnson, J. L., & Pagon, M. (2006). The social context of undermining behavior at work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 101*(1), 105-126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2006.04.005

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86(1), 42–51. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.42

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 71(3), 500–507. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500

Eisenberger, R., & Stinglhamber, F. (2011). Antecedents of perceived organizational support. In R. Eisenberger & F. Stinglhamber, *Perceived organizational support: Fostering enthusiastic and productive employees* (pp.61–97). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/12318-003

Eren, E. (2014). *Örgütsel davranış ve yönetim psikolojisi*. Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım.

Ersoy, F. (2018). *İlham veren sosyal bilgiler öğretmenlerinin ahlaki kimlik profillerinin gömülü teori bağlamında incelenmesi. [*Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University.

Evans, J. B., Slaughter, J. E., & Ganster, M. L. (2023). Sins of commission and omission: The implications of an active–passive categorization of counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 187*(*1), 97-117. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-022-05277-w

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS: Introducing Statistical Method* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 1-55). Stanford University Press.

Folger, R. (1987). Distributive and procedural justice in the workplace. *Social Justice Research, 1*(2), 143-159.

Folger, R., Rosenfield, D., Rheaume, K., & Martin, C. (1983). Relative deprivation and referent cognitions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology,* 19(2), 172-184. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(83)90036-7

Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2005). Beyond counterproductive work behavior: Moral emotions and deontic retaliation versus reconciliation. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 83–105). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-004

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration–aggression. *Journal of organizational behavior*,20(6),915-931.

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (Eds.). (2005). *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (151). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 59*(*3), 291-309. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2001.1803

Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2006). The many roles of control in a stressor emotion theory of counterproductive work behavior. In P. L. Perrewé & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Employee health, coping and methodologies* ,5, 171-201, Emerald Group Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3555(05)05005-5

Fox, S., & Stallworth, L. E. (2004). Employee perceptions of internal conflict management programs and ADR processes for preventing and resolving incidents of workplace bullying: Ethical challenges for decision-makers in organizations. *Employee Rights and Employment Policy Journal,* 8*(2*), 375-400.

George, J. M., Reed, T. F., Ballard, K. A., Colin, J., & Fielding, J. (1993). Contact with AIDS patients as a source of work-related distress: Effects of organizational and social support. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(1), 157-171.

Giacalone, R. A., & Greenberg, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Antisocial behavior in organizations*. Sage Publications.

Glenn, A. L., Koleva, S., Iyer, R., Graham, J., & Ditto, P. H. (2010). Moral identity in psychopathy. *Judgment and Decision Making,* 5*(7*), 497-505. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1930297500001662

Goh, A. P. S., Bruursema, K., Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (2003, April 11-13). Comparisons of self and coworker reports of counterproductive work behavior. Paper presented at the meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*(2), 161-178.

Greenberger, D. B., & Allen, V. L. (1980). Destruction and complexity: An application of aesthetic theory. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 6*(*3), 479-483. https://doi.org/10.1177/014616728063025

Greenberg, I. V., Rutte, C. G., & Van Knippenberg, A. D. F. (1997). Influence of social comparison of outcomes and procedures on fairness judgement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 913-919. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.913

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*(2), 399-432.

Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79-103). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Greenbaum, R. L., Mawritz, M. B., Mayer, D. M., & Priesemuth, M. (2013). To act out, to withdraw, or to constructively resist? Employee reactions to supervisor abuse of customers and the moderating role of employee moral identity. *Human Relations,* 66(7), 925-950. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726713482992

Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management Review,* 12*(1*), 9-22. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1987.4306437

Gruys, M. L., & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment,* 11*(*1), 30-42. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00224

Gruys, M. (2000). *The dimensionality of deviant employee behavior in the workplace*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota]. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses.

Gültaç, A. G. A. S., & Erigüç, G. (2019). Geçmişten günümüze örgütlerde üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları: Kavramsal bir bakış açısı. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi (36*)51-68. https://doi.org/10.30794/pausbed.397895

Hakstian, A. R., Farrell, S., & Tweed, R. G. (2002). The assessment of counterproductive tendencies by means of the California Psychological Inventory. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment,* 10(1-2), 58-86. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00194

Hardy, S., & Carlo, G. (2005). Identity as a source of moral motivation. *Human Development,* 48(4), 232-256. https://doi.org/10.1159/000086859

Hardy, S. A. (2006). Identity, reasoning, and emotion: An empirical comparison of three sources of moral motivation. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30(3), 207-215.

Henle, C. A. (2005). Predicting workplace deviance from the interaction between organizational justice and personality. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 17(2), 247-263.

Hershcovis, M. S., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupré, K. E., Inness, M., et al. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 228-238. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.228

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*(3), 513-524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513

Hobfoll, S. E., Shirom, A., & Golembiewski, R. T. (Eds.). (2001). *Handbook of organizational behavior*. Revised and Expanded. CRC Press.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology, 6*(4), 307-324. https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.6.4.307

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology,* 50(3), 337-421. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062

Hochwarter, W. A., Perrewé, P. L., Meurs, J. A., & Kacmar, C. (2007). The interactive effects of work-induced guilt and ability to manage resources on job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 12(2), 125-135. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.2.125

Hollinger, R. C. (1986). Acts against the workplace: Social bonding and employee deviance. *Deviant Behavior*, 7(1), 53-75. https://doi.org/10.1080/01639625.1986.9967695

Hollinger, R. C., & Clark, J. P. (1983). Deterrence in the workplace: Perceived certainty, perceived severity, and employee theft. *Social Forces,* 62(2), 398-418. https://doi.org/10.1093/sf/62.2.398

Hollinger, R. C., & Clark, J. P. (1982). Employee deviance: A response to the perceived quality of the work experience. *Work and Occupations, 9*(1), 97-114. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888482009001006

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American journal of sociology*, 63(6), 597-606.

Hussain, I., Sia, S. K., & Mishra, P. K. (2014). Workplace deviance and the menace of some antecedents: A review of extant literature. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing, 5*(7), 13-20.

İçerli, L. (2010). Organizational justice: A theoretical approach. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Development,* 5(1), 67-92.

İplik, E., İplik, F. N., & Efeoğlu, İ. E. (2014). Çalışanların örgütsel destek algılarının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkisinde örgütsel özdeşleşmenin rolü. *International Journal of Economic & Administrative Studies,* 6(12), 123-145.

İşbaşı, J. Ö. (2001). Çalışanların yöneticilerine duydukları güvenin ve örgütsel adalete ilişkin algılamalarının vatandaşlık davranışının oluşumundaki rolü. *Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi,* 1(1), 51-73.

İşcan, Ö. F., & Sayın, U. (2010). Örgütsel adalet, iş tatmini ve örgütsel güven arasındaki ilişki. *Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi,* 24(4), 195-216.

Ilies, R., Peng, A. C., Savani, K., & Dimotakis, N. (2013). Guilty and helpful: An emotion-based reparatory model of voluntary work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(6), 1051-1060. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033871

Irak, D. U. (2004). Örgütsel adalet: Ortaya çıkışı, kuramsal yaklaşımlar ve bugünkü durumu. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları, 7*(13), 25-43.

Iscan, O. F., & Naktiyok, A. (2005). Attitudes towards telecommuting: The Turkish case. *Journal of Information Technology, 20*(1), 52-63. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jit.2000023

Işık, O., Uğurluoğlu, Ö., & Akbolat, M. (2012). Sağlık kuruluşlarında örgütsel adalet algılarının örgütsel bağlılığa etkisi. *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi,* 13(2), 254-265.

Jacobs, G., Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2013). (Un)Ethical behavior and performance appraisal: The role of affect, support, and organizational justice. *Journal of Business Ethics, 121*(1), 63-76. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1687-1

Jones, D. A. (2009). Getting even with one's supervisor and one's organization: Relationships among types of injustice, desires for revenge, and counterproductive work behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*(4), 525-542. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.563

Joy, M. M., & Balu, V. G. (2016). The impact of perceived organizational support on counterproductive work behaviors: An empirical study in Indian information technology sector. *International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management, 5*(4), 58-63.

Judge, T. A., Scott, B. A., & Ilies, R. (2006). Hostility, job attitudes, and workplace deviance: Test of a multilevel model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 126-138. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.126

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Conflict and ambiguity: Studies in organizational roles and individual stress*. Wiley.

Kalyva, E. (2011). Antisocial behavior in children with ADHD: Causes and treatment. In R. M. Clarke (Ed.), *Antisocial behavior: Causes, correlations, and treatments* (pp. 75-92). Nova Science Publishers.

Kanten, P., & Kanten, S. (Eds.). (2016). *Örgütlerde davranışın aydınlık ve karanlık yüzü*. Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık.

Karabay, E. Z. (2004). Kamuda ve özel sektörde örgütsel adalet algısı ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiler. *Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi) Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü*.

Karaeminoğulları, A. (2006). *Öğretim elemanlarının örgütsel adalet algıları ile sergiledikleri üretkenliğe aykırı davranışlar arasındaki ilişki ve bir araştırma.* [Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi]. İstanbul Üniversitesi

Karasar. N, (2011), Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi, (11. baskı) Ankara. Nobel Yayınevi.

Karavardar, G. (2014). Perceived organizational support, psychological empowerment, organizational citizenship behavior, job performance and job embeddedness: A research on the fast food industry in Istanbul, Turkey.

Karriker, J. H., & Williams, M. L. (2009). Organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior: A mediated multifoci model. *Journal of management*, *35*(1), 112-135. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307309265

Kaukianien, A., Salmivalli C., Björkqvist, K., Österman, K,. Lahtinen, A., Lagerspetz, A. (2001). Overt And Covert Aggression in Work Settings in Relation to the Subjective Well-Being of Employees, *Aggressive Behavior*, 27(5), 360-371 https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.1021

Keashly, L. (2001) "Interpersonal and Systemic Aspects of Emotional Abuse at Work: The Target's Perspective", Violence and Victims, 16(3), s.233-268

Keashly , L., Trott, V., MacLean, L.M. (1994). "Abusive Behavior in the Workplace: A Preliminary Investigation", Violence and Victims, 9(4), 341 357. DOI: 10.1891/0886-6708.9.4.341

Kelloway, E. K., Barling, J., & Hurrell Jr, J. J. (Eds.). (2006). Handbook of workplace violence. Sage Publications.

Kelloway, E. K. (2010). Using longitudinal data in occupational health psychology: A practical guide. APA Books.

Keskin, H., Akgün, A. E., & Günsel, A. (2008). Örgütsel adaletsizlik kavramı, boyutları ve yönetimi. Editörler: Mahmut Özdevecioğlu ve Himmet Karadal. Örgütsel DavranıĢta Seçme Konular: Organizasyonların Karanlık Yönleri ve Verimlilik Azaltıcı DavranıĢlar. Ankara: İlke Yayınevi, 91-106.

Kidwell, R.E. and Kochanowski, S.M. (2005), The morality of employee theft: teaching about ethics and deviant behavior in the workplace, *Journal of Management Education*, 29 (1) ,135-152. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562903261180

Klotz, A. C., & Buckley, M. R. (2013). A historical perspective of counterproductive work behavior targeting the organization. Journal of management history, 19(1), 114-132. https://doi.org/10.1108/17511341311286222

Koçel, Tamer (2011), "İşletme Yöneticiliği", Beta Basım Yayın, 13. Baskı, İstanbul

Konovsky, M. A. (2000). Understanding procedural justice and its impact on business organizations. *Journal of management*, 26(3), 489-511. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(00)00042-8

Krischer, M. M., Penney, L. M., & Hunter, E. M. (2010). Can counterproductive work behaviors be productive? CWB as emotion-focused coping. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 15(2), 154–166. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0018349

Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2017). Perceived organizational support: A meta-analytic evaluation of organizational support theory. Journal of management, 43(6), 1854-1884. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315575554

Kwak, A. (2006). The relationships of organizational injustice with employee burnout and counterproductive work behaviors: Equity sensitivity as a moderator. Central Michigan University.

Lapsley, D.K. and Lasky, B. (2001), "Prototypic moral character", Identity: An International Journal of Theory and Research, Vol. 1 No. 4, pp. 345-363. https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532706XID0104_03

LaVan, H., & Martin, W. M. (2008). Bullying in the US workplace: Normative and process-oriented ethical approaches. Journal of business ethics, 83, 147-165.

Lazarus, Richard S. Emotion and adaptation. Oxford University Press, 1991.

LeBlanc, M. M., & Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Predictors and outcomes of workplace violence and aggression. Journal of applied psychology, 87(3), 444. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.444

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(1), 131–142. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.87.1.131

Lee, S. B., Liu, S. H., & Maertz Jr, C. (2022). The relative impact of employees' discrete emotions on employees' negative word-of-mouth (NWOM) and counterproductive workplace behavior (CWB). Journal of Product & Brand Management, 31(7), 1018-1032. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-07-2021-3555

Le Roy, J., Bastounis, M., & Poussard, J. M. (2012). Interactional justice and counterproductive work behaviors: The mediating role of negative emotions. Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal, 40(8), 1341-1355. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2012.40.8.1341

Leventhal, G. S. (1976). The distribution of rewards and resources in groups and organizations. In Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 9, pp. 91-131). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60059-3

Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory? In K. J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Weiss (Eds.), Social exchange: Advances in theory and research (27-55). New York: Plenum.

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. Administrative Science Quarterly, 9, 370–390

Lian, H., Ferris, D. L., Morrison, R., & Brown, D. J. (2014). Blame it on the supervisor or the subordinate? Reciprocal relations between abusive supervision and organizational deviance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 99(4), 651–664. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0035498

Liao, H., Joshi, A., & Chuang, A. (2004). Sticking Out Like a Sore Thumb: Employee Dissimilarity and Deviance Work. Personnel http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2004.00012.x Psychology, 57(4), 969-1000.

Lind, E. A., and Tyler, T. R. (1988). The Social Psychology of Procedural Justice. New York: Plenum Press.

Liu, N. T., & Ding, C. G. (2012). General ethical judgments , perceived organizational support , interactional justice, and workplace deviance. The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23(13), 2712-2735. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.610945

Liu, Y., Zhang, H., Zhang, J., & Ma, L. (2011, June). The big five personality and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of perceived organizational support. In 2011 International Conference on Computer Science and Service System (CSSS) (2680-2683). IEEE.

Lovallo, W. R. (2010). Emotions and stress. Handbook of Health Psychology and Behavioral Medicine, 1, 31.

Mann, S.L., Budworth, M. ve Ismaila, A.S. (2012). "Ratings of Counterproductive Performance: The Effect of Source and Rater Behavior", *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management,* 61(2), 142-156. https://doi.org/10.1108/17410401211194653

Matherne, C.F. III and Litchfield, S.R. (2012), "Investigating the Relationship between affective commitment and unethical pro-organizational behaviors: the role of moral identity", Journal of Leadership, Accountability & Ethics, Vol. 9 No. 5, pp. 35-46.

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of Counterproductive Behavior at Work: A General Perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4), 647–660. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.647

Marcus, B., Taylor, O. A., Hastings, S. E., Sturm, A., & Weigelt, O. (2016). The structure of counterproductive work behavior: A review, a structural meta-analysis, and a primary study. Journal of Management, 42(1), 203–233. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313503019

Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10, 36–50. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00192

Mayer, D. M., Aquino, K., Greenbaum, R. L., & Kuenzi, M. (2012). Who displays ethical leadership, and why does it matter? An examination of antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership. *Academy of management journal*, 55(1), 151-171. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2008.0276

McCarthy, B. (2002). New economics of sociological criminology. Annual Review of Sociology, 28(1), 417–442.

Michel, J., Newness, K., & Duniewicz, K. (2016). How abusive supervision affects workplace deviance: A moderated-mediation examination of aggressiveness and work-related negative affect. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31(1), 1-22. doi:10.1007/s10869-015-9400-2

Mingzheng, W., Xiaoling, S., Xubo, F., & Youshan, L. (2014). Moral identity as a moderator of the effects of organizational injustice on counterproductive work behavior among Chinese public servants. Public Personnel Management, 43(3), 314-324. https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026014533898

Moore, C., Detert, J. R., Klebe Treviño, L., Baker, V. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2012). Why employees do bad things: Moral disengagement and unethical organizational behavior. Personnel psychology, 65(1), 1-48. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2011.01237.x

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship?. Journal of applied psychology, 76(6), 845. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.845

Moretti, D.M. (1986), The Prediction of Employee Counterproductivity through Attitude Assessment, *Journal of Business and Psychology*,(1)2, 134-147. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639802400305

Neuman, J. H. ve Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. Journal of Management, 24(3), 391-419. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639802400305

Oge, G. M., Ifeanyi, E. O., & Charles, G. O. (2015). Examining the link between organisational justice and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Business & Management Studies, 1*(1), 1-10.

O'Neill, T. A., Lewis, R. J., & Carswell, J. J. (2011). Employee personality, justice perceptions, and the prediction of workplace deviance. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 51*(*5), 595-600. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.05.025

Ones, D. S., Viswesvaran, C., & Schmidt, F. L. (2003). Personality and absenteeism: A meta-analysis of integrity tests. *European Journal of Personality,* 17(S1), S19-S38. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.487

O'reilly, J., & Aquino, K. (2011). A model of third parties' morally motivated responses to mistreatment in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 36*(3), 526-543. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2009.0311

Öcel, H. (2010). Üretim karsiti is davranislari ölçegi: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalismasi. *Turk Psikoloji Yazilari, 13*(26), 18-29.

Örmeci, E. (2013). *Örgütsel adalet algısının, örgüte bağlılık aracılığıyla üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışlarına etkisinde kuruma güvenin rolü* [Doctoral dissertation]. Marmara Universitesi.

Özdevecioğlu, M. (2003). Algılanan örgütsel adaletin bireylerarası saldırgan davranışlar üzerindeki etkilerinin belirlenmesine yönelik bir araştırma. *Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi ,21*, 1-15.

Özdevecioğlu, M. (2004). Sosyal destek ve yaşam tatmininin mesleki stres üzerindeki etkileri: Kayseri'de faaliyet gösteren işletme sahipleri ile bir araştırma. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi,* 22*(*1), 209-233.

Özkalp, E., & Kirel, Ç. (2013). *Örgütsel davranış*. Ekin Kitabevi Yayınları.

Özmen, O. T., Sümer, H. C., & Ergeneli, A. (2007). Adalet algısının çalışanların performansı üzerindeki etkisi: Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının aracılık rolü. *Amme İdaresi Dergisi, 40*(4), 37-57.

Palmer, J. C., Komarraju, M., Carter, M. Z., & Karau, S. J. (2017). Angel on one shoulder: Can perceived organizational support moderate the relationship between the Dark Triad traits and counterproductive work behavior? *Personality and Individual Differences ,*110*,* 31-37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.01.018

Parry, G. (1986). Paid employment, life events, social support, and mental health in working-class mothers. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 27*(2), 193-208. https://doi.org/10.2307/2136316

Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). Workplace incivility. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 177-200). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-008

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*(7), 777-796. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.336

Peters, L. H., & O'Connor, E. J. (1980). Situational constraints and work outcomes: The influences of a frequently overlooked construct. *Academy of Management Review, 5(*3), 391-397. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1980.4288856

Ployhart, R. E., & Ryan, A. M. (1997). Toward an explanation of applicant reactions: An examination of organizational justice and attribution frameworks. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 72(3), 308-335. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1997.2742

Polatçı, S., Özçalık, F., & Cindiloğlu, M. (2014). Üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışı ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde kişi-örgüt uyumunun etkileri. *Niğde Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi,* 7*(*3), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.16953/deusbed.04863

Polatçı, S., & Özçalık, F. (2015). Çalışanların örgütsel adalet algıları ile üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları etkileşiminde pozitif ve negatif duygusallığın aracılık etkisi. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi,* 17(2), 215-234.

Poyraz, K., Kara, H., & Çetin, S. A. (2009). Örgütsel adalet algılamalarının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarına etkisine yönelik bir araştırma. *S.D.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 1*(9), 71-91.

Reed II, A., & Aquino, K. F. (2003). Moral identity and the expanding circle of moral regard toward out-groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*(6), 1270-1286. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.6.1270

Renken, B., Egeland, B., Marvinney, D., Mangelsdorf, S., & Sroufe, L. A. (1989). Early childhood antecedents of aggression and passive-withdrawal in early elementary school. *Journal of Personality,* 57*(2*), 257-281. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1989.tb00483.x

Reynolds, S. J., & Ceranic, T. L. (2007). The effects of moral judgment and moral identity on moral behavior: An empirical examination of the moral individual. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(6), 1610-1624. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.6.1610

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 87*(4*), 698-714. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698

Riggle, R. J., Edmondson, D. R., & Hansen, J. D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. *Journal of Business Research,* 62(10), 1027-1030. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.05.003

Ritov, I., & Baron, J. (1995). Outcome knowledge, regret, and omission bias. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 64(2), 119-127. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1995.1094

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal,* 38(2), 555–572.

Robinson, S. L., & Greenberg, J. (1998). Employees behaving badly: Dimensions, determinants, and dilemmas in the study of workplace deviance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 19*(*6), 615-627.

Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal,* 41(6), 658-672.

Rofcanin, Y., de Jong, J. P., Las Heras, M., & Kim, S. (2018). The moderating role of prosocial motivation on the association between family-supportive supervisor behaviors and employee outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 107*, 153-167. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.04.001

Rosenbaum, M., & Ben-Ari Smira, K. (1986). Cognitive and personality factors in the delay of gratification of hemodialysis patients. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(2), 357. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-3514.51.2.357

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE). Acceptance and commitment therapy. Measures package, 61(52), 18.

Sabuncuoğlu, Z., & Tüz, M. (2008). *Örgütsel Psikoloji (4 b.)*. Bursa: Alfa Yayınları.

Sackett, P. R., & DeVore, C. J. (2002). Counterproductive behaviors at work. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology, Vol. 1. Personnel psychology* (pp. 145–164). Sage Publications Ltd.

Sackett, P. R., & Devore, C. J. (2009). İşyerinde amaç karşıtı davranışlar. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Endüstri, iş ve örgüt psikolojisi el kitabı* (pp. 179-202). İstanbul: Literatür Yayıncılık

Saleem, F., & Gopinath, C. (2015). Injustice, counterproductive work behavior and mediating role of work stress. *Pakistan journal of commerce and social sciences (PJCSS)*, *9*(3), 683-699.

Salgado, J. F. (2002). The Big Five personality dimensions and counterproductive behaviors. *International journal of selection and assessment*, 10(1-2), 117-125. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00198

Sandgren, O., & Torpman, E. (2018). Reducing counterproductive work behavior-the roles of self-efficacy and emotional regulation.

Shao, R., Aquino, K., & Freeman, D. (2008). Beyond moral reasoning: A review of moral identity research and its implications for business ethics. *Business Ethics Quarterly*. (18) 513-40.

Shusha, A. (2013). The role of psychological engagement in relationship between perceived organizational support and withdrawal behavior and intentions: an empirical study on small industries in Egypt. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *8*(16), 22. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v8n16p22

Seçer, H. Ş., & Seçer, B. (2007). Örgütlerde üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları: belirleyicileri ve önlenmesi. TISK Academy/TISK Akademi, 2(4).

Shoss, M. K., Jundt, D. K., Kobler, A., & Reynolds, C. (2016). Doing bad to feel better? An investigation of within- and between person perceptions of counterproductive work behavior as a coping tactic. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 137(3), 571–587.

Silbert, L. (2005). *The effect of tangible rewards on perceived organizational support* (Master's thesis, University of Waterloo).

Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of applied Psychology*, *82*(3), 434. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.82.3.434

Skarlicki, D.P., van Jaarsveld, D.D. and Walker, D.D. (2008), "Getting even for customer mistreatment: the role of moral identity in the relationship between customer interpersonal injustice and employee sabotage", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 93 No. 6, pp. 1335-1347. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/a0012704

Spector, P. E. (1998). A control theory of the job stress process. *Theories of organizational stress*, 153-169.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. Human Resource Management Review, 12(2), 269–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(02)00049-9

Spector, P. E., Fox, S., Penney, L. M., Bruursema, K., Goh, A., & Kessler, S. (2006). The dimensionality of counterproductivity: Are all counterproductive behaviors created equal? Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68(3), 446–460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.10.005

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). The stressor-emotion model of counterproductive work behavior. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 151-174). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10893-007

Spector, P. E., & Goh, A. (2001). The role of emotions in the occupational stress process. In *Exploring theoretical mechanisms and perspectives* (pp. 195-232). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3555(01)01013-7

Spector, P. E., & Jex, S. M. (1998). Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: interpersonal conflict at work scale, organizational constraints scale, quantitative workload inventory, and physical symptoms inventory. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, *3*(4), 356. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/1076-8998.3.4.356

Spector, P. E. (1975). Relationships of organizational frustration with reported behavioral reactions of employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 635-637. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/h0077157

Thibaut, J. W., & Walker, L. (1975). Procedural justice: A psychological analysis.

Turunç, Ö., & Çelik, M. (2010). Çalışanların algıladıkları örgütsel destek ve iş stresinin örgütsel özdeşleşme ve iş performansına etkisi. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi Dergisi*, *17*(2), 183-206.

Tyler, T. R. (1990). Why People Obey the Law. New Haven: Yale University Press

Vatankhah, S., Javid, E., & Raoofi, A. (2017). Perceived organizational support as the mediator of the relationships between high-performance work practices and counter-productive work behavior: Evidence from airline industry. *Journal of Air Transport Management* ,*59*, 107-115. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jairtraman.2016.12.001

Yavuzsan, Y. Ö. (2020). *Çalışanların algıladığı psikolojik sözleşme ihlallerinin üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları üzerindeki etkisine yönelik bir araştırma* [Master's thesis]. Hasan Kalyoncu Üniversitesi). https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.11782/2067

Yavuz, S. (2010). *Örgütsel adalet algısının iş tatminine etkisi üzerine bir araştırma* [Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi]. Marmara Universitesi.

Yilmaz, G. (2004). İnsan kaynakları uygulamalarına ilişkin örgütsel adalet algısının çalışanların tutum ve davranışları üzerindeki etkisi.

Yılmaz,F., ve Yılmaz,F. (2015). Ahlaki Kimlik Ölçeği Türkçe Formunun Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışması. Celal Bayar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 13(4),11 133. https://doi.org/10.18026/cbusos.35372

Yuan, Z., Barnes, C. M., & Li, Y. (2018). Bad behavior keeps you up at night: Counterproductive work behaviors and insomnia. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 103(4), 383–398. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000268

Zagenczyk, T. J. (2006). *A social influence analysis of perceived organizational support*. University of Pittsburgh.

Zhao, L., Lam, L. W., Zhu, J. N., & Zhao, S. (2022). Doing it purposely? Mediation of moral disengagement in the relationship between illegitimate tasks and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 179(3), 733-747.

Wang, Y., Wang, G., Chen, Q., & Li, L. (2017). Depletion, moral identity, and unethical behavior: Why people behave unethically after self-control exertion. *Consciousness and cognition* ,56, 188-198.

Winterich, K. P., Mittal, V., & Aquino, K. (2013). When does recognition increase charitable behavior? Toward a moral identity-based model. *Journal of Marketing*, *77*(3), 121-134. https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.11.0477

Worden, W. J., & Sobel, H. J. (1978). Ego strength and psychosocial adaptation to cancer. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 40(8), 585-592.

Wu, M., Sun, X., Zhang, D., & Wang, C. (2016). Moderated mediation model of relationship between perceived organizational justice and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Chinese Human Resource Management*. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCHRM-07-2016-0016