

Constructing Model Proposition of Organizational Justice Climate, Perceived Organizational Support, *by Yuni Siswanti*

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Constructing Model Proposition of Organizational Justice Climate, Perceived Organizational Support, Employee Engagement and Counterproductive Work Behavior

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Abstract

The goal of this research was to offer a model which was built by organizational justice climate and perceived organizational support (POS) to measure counterproductive work behavior (CWB). POS was designed as a mediator variable for the effect of organizational justice climate on counterproductive work behavior while organizational climate on employee engagement. This design was aimed to create a research proposition. Hypothesis testing was used at different levels of analysis, i.e. for organizational justice climate (unit /group level), POS and employee engagement (individual level), and CWB (individual level).

Keywords: Organizational justice climate, perceived organizational support, employee engagement, counterproductive work behavior

Background

Many of the research until the present time focus on employees' positive behavior and this topic receives more attention from researchers in the field of behavior. Employees' negative behavior (for example counterproductive work behavior) receives a relatively less attention, even though this behavior may harm an organization since it has possibility of making losses. Murphy (1993) stated that organizations in the United States should spend an average cost of approximately 6 to 12 million dollars/year to deal with the problems caused by counterproductive work behavior. If this behavior is ignored and given less serious attention from organizations, it may result in physical and economic disadvantages to the organizations (Coffin, 2003; Steers & Rhodes, 1984; Penney & Spector, 2005; Christian & Ellis, 2011). Research on counterproductive work behavior began to receive attention from a lot of academics in the mid-1990s. Violent acts that took place in workplace were seen as a trigger of the emergence of counterproductive behavior at that time (Fox & Spector, 2005). According to Lim, Cortina & Magley (2008), most of the counterproductive work behavior at that time was likely to target both individuals and organizations.

All of these terms actually contain the same meaning, namely employees' negative work behavior that could harm or bring disadvantages to the members of organizations or to the organizations. Collins and Griffin (1998) stated that almost all counterproductive behaviors are given the same definition, that is, employees' behavior that harms organizations and other members of the organizations, and this behavior is usually characterized by ignoring both organizational rules and social values. According to Spector and Fox (2002), the definition of counterproductive work behavior refers to deviant workplace behavior which harms organizations and other members of the organizations. Gruys and Sackett (2003) argued that counterproductive work behavior is the behavior of organizational members that is deliberately committed to violate rules, ignore values, or be against the general interests of organizations. Bowling et al. (2011) suggested that counterproductive work behavior has the same definition as deviant workplace behavior, that is, a number of employees' actions intended to harm organizations or other organizations.

Counterproductive work behavior may occur in all organizational sectors (Vardi & Wiener, 1996). However, previous studies (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennet, 2006; Mathew & McCharty, 2005; Alias et al., 2012) suggest that CWB is more likely to occur in public sector organizations. An indication that CWB more frequently occurs in public sector organizations can be seen in the research findings of Wooden, 1990; Lokke Nielsen, 2009; Knot & Hayday, 2010; Dick & Rayner, 2013. CWB in these previous studies is manifested in the forms of employees' unauthorized absence from work, leaving work early, making other employees look guilty, intimidation at work, and so on.

Research on the taxonomy of CWB began with the work of Hollinger & Clark (1982) which categorized CWB into two broad categories, namely production deviance (for examples leaving work earlier than scheduled, tardiness, unauthorized absence), and property deviance (for examples, misusing the permits to use equipment or properties belonging to organizations).

In its development, research on CWB is no longer limited to these two deviance categories. Instead it has covered a wider domain (for examples, irreverence, verbal abuse, sexual harassment, etc.). Robinson & Bennett (1995) stated that the taxonomy of CWB proposed by Hollinger & Chark (1982) only covers employees' deviant behavior targeted to organizations, but not directed towards other interpersonals. Robinson & Bennett (1995) then conducted an empirical study to categorize CWB into four categories or a quadrant. This taxonomy is then known as typology of deviant workplace behavior. The two additional categories in this typology are political deviance (for example, blaming other employees even if they are the guilty ones), and personal aggression (for examples, verbal abuse or sexual harassment). These deviant workplace behaviors can be divided into two directional dimensions, namely (1) deviant workplace behavior targeted at organizations; and (2) deviant workplace behavior targeted at interpersonal-individuals (for examples, co-workers or employers). The division of these two dimensions of deviant workplace behavior (Bennet & Robinson, 2000) is often used by other researchers to divide the CWB dimensions performed by employees (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Dalal, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Devonish & Grinidge, 2010).

There are many previous studies that have examined the effects of CWB on organizations. A study conducted by Baron & Neuman, 1996; LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Vigoda, 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005 concluded that counterproductive work behavior (CWB) negatively affects employees and organizations. This way, it is very important to analyze the factors that trigger counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) in order to lower the costs that organizations shall spend (Robinson & Bennet, 1995; Bennet & Robinson, 2000).

According to Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas (2002), the emergence of counterproductive work behavior, is caused by several factors divided into 2 categories, namely: situational factors and dispositional factors. Situational factors of CWB consist of three (3) things, namely: (1) sources of stress, for examples, accumulation of workloads, role conflict, and conflicts among coworkers (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006); (2) changes that take place in the workplace, such as technological changes, changes in of organizational structure, management changes, pay cuts, inconvenience at workplace, and perceived organizational punishment (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Kickul, 2001; Marcus & Schuler, 2004); as well as (3) perceptions of justice (Stroms & Spector, 1987; Haaland, 2002).

Employees who perceive that they have been treated unfairly may then have poor performance in the forms of counterproductive behavior (CWB), such as absence from work, tardiness, theft, verbal abuse, and other forms of deviant workplace behaviors compared to those who are treated fairly (Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Nashir & Bashir, 2012).

Empirical studies of the process of the emergence of counterproductive work behavior are generally conceptual studies (Neuman & Baron, 1998; Martinko *et al.*, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005; Douglas, Kiewitz, Martinko, Harvey, Younhee, & Jae, 2008; Palupi & Tjahjono, 2016). Some of these conceptual studies related to the process of the emergence of counterproductive work behaviors are theoretical model of workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998), causal reasoning model for counterproductive behavior (Martinko *et al.*, 2002), general affective aggression model (Neuman & Baron, 1998), stressor emotion model of counterproductive work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2005), as well as elaboration likelihood model for workplace aggression (Douglas *et al.*, 2008). In addition, it is still necessary to conduct empirical studies in order to support theoretical concepts so as to assist organizations in minimizing the negative effects of counterproductive work behaviors (Zottoli, 2003).

According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964, Gouldner, 1960), positive perceptions and attitudes towards justice derived from the organizations where employees work will motivate them to work together with the organizations to foster better exchange relations (Tang & Tang, 2012). One of the manifestation of this exchange relationship is perceived organizational support (POS). Such social exchange relationship will exist when there is justice, but when there is not, the exchange relationship is no longer social; instead, it is likely to be related to economy (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

Referring to a study of Tang & Tang (2012), Organ (1990), and Colquitt *et al.* (2001), Colquitt *et al.* (2013), this research design took into account the effects of organizational justice on perceived organizational supports and CWB. Organizational justice is very closely related to the quality resulted from social exchange relationships. Therefore the researcher argued that the mechanism of social exchange relationship that underlies the perceptions of justice on CWB still needs to be studied further, considering previous studies of this relationship are still very limited.

According to Colquitt *et al.*, 2013, from a number of predictors of counterproductive work behavior, organizational justice is the most dominant and robust predictor. In addition, according to Foret & Love (2008), organizational justice becomes an important issue which employees highly pay attention to. Fair treatment may improve the quality of leader-member exchange relationships, as well as reduce counterproductive work behavior (Colquitt, *et al.*, 2013). Distributive justice becomes a quite important predictor of work attitudes and behaviors within organizations (Tjahjono, 2011; Tjahjono & Palupi, 2017).

The social exchange theory describes that employees will develop social exchange relationships with organizations, leaders/employers, and co-workers. The first type of exchange is the exchange between employees and organization which is commonly named perceived organizational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Siswanti (2005). Referring to a study conducted by Hunter, Schmidt, and Jackson (1982); Boye & Jones, 1997; Lau, Au, & Ho (2003); this research design used individual factors, namely counterproductive work behavior and perceived organizational support (POS) as well as group/unit factors, namely organizational justice climate.

In its development, researchers have studied organizational phenomena in a wider scope instead of only in individual levels, that is in group and organizational level (Spell & Arnold, 2007), by aggregating employees' perceptions of justice.

Referring to social interaction and social construction approach, individual perceptions of justice are inseparable from environmental factors. For future research, it is important to study the social context of the workplace characterized by relational phenomena, that is no longer individually or independently interpreted (Capelli & Sherer, 1991). Previous studies have suggested that the effects of justice perceived by members will be stronger when most or all the members of a group are treated unfairly, compared to when there are only a few members who are treated unfairly (Naumann & Bennett, 2000).

The research design positioned organizational justice as a CWB antecedent by referring to Muss holder, Bennett & Martin (1998) who initiated procedural justice research using unit-level analysis. This research design also tried to look at group-level cognitive consensus representing individual perceptions of justice within the group (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Simons & Roberson, 2003; Roberson, 2006;) and leader behavior manifested in the form of perceived organizational support.

According to a study by Wang (2009a) and Tang & Tang (2012), this research developed the relationship between organizational climate with CWB, by referring to organizational justice theory and social exchange theory. As a model development of this relationship, organizational justice was developed using social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), social construction theory (Colquitt, 2001; Kulik & Ambrose, 1992). Both theories contribute to the formation of justice as an effort of employees in perceiving justice in their organization and its effects on their attitudes and behavior. In their studies, Liao & Rupp (2005); Masterson et al. (2000); Rupp & Cropanzano (2002); Setton, Bennet, & Liden (1996); Wayne et al. (2002) developed justice factors (individual unit/level of analysis) into justice climate (social context and group unit/level of analysis). According to Naumann & Bennett (2000), organizational justice climate is an integration between the concept of justice and organizational climate, defined as the average group-level cognition related to how a work group is treated.

Organizational justice is divided into four dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001 & 2004; Leventhal, 1976; Thibaut & Walker; 1975; Bies & Moag, 1986). Procedural justice is the rule or procedure used to determine the distribution of allocation among employees (Colquitt, 2001). This definition is reinforced by Conlon (1993) and Aquino et al. (1999), stating that procedural justice deals with the justice and feasibility of the procedures used to allocate various decisions within organizations. To be included as fair procedures, there are several criteria to meet: consistency, lack of bias, correctability, representation, accuracy, ethically (Leventhal, 1976). Distributive justice is the perception of justice about the allocation of output within organizations (Colquitt, 2001). According to Moorman (1991), the perception of justice is also seen from the treatment of the management in performing their procedures.

In association with counterproductive work behavior, some previous studies on organizational justice focus on procedural justice (Laio & Rupp, 2005; Simmons & Roberson, 2003), and distributive justice (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). According to some researchers (Colquitt et al., 2001, 2002, 2013) the dimensions of organizational justice that are considered to be highly relevant in explaining the relationship of social exchange are procedural justice and interactional justice, while distributive justice is considered to be more relevant in explaining the relationship of economic exchange. In addition, the findings of previous studies (Masterson et al., 2000; Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005) showed that, when employees of an organization perceive that they receive unfair treatment during social exchanges, they will show a negative reaction in the form of emotions, attitudes, or other negative behaviors.

Meta-analysis studies conducted by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) and Dalal (2005) mention that all the dimensions of organizational justice can be used to predict counterproductive work behaviors, including procedural justice and interactional justice. Harash & Spector (2000) in their meta-analysis found a negative correlation of procedural justice with CWB, while Berry, Ones & Sacjett (2007) found a negative correlation between interactional justice with CWB. According to Cohen and Spector (2001), procedural justice is a strong (robust) predictor in predicting CWB. On the other hand, Aquino, Lewis, Bradfield (1999) argued that the most powerful predictor in predicting CWB is interactional justice. Such different opinions become a fundamental basis in conducting further studies, particularly in analyzing the potential of each dimension of organizational justice as an independent variable, as well as the effects of each of these dimensions on CWB.

Research finding inconsistency in the effects of organizational justice on CWB, for examples the effects of procedural justice / procedure fairness and interactional justice on the two CWB dimensions, is still found in other empirical studies, for example: Aquino, Lewis & Bradfield (1999) who found that interactional justice has negative and significant correlation with the two dimensions of CWB, targeted at both organizations and individual, while procedural justice is only significantly and negatively correlated with CWB when targeted at individual, but not negatively correlated with CWB when targeted at organization. In contrast, Fox, Spector & Miles (2001) showed that procedural justice is only significantly and negatively correlated with CWB when targeted at organization, but not significantly and negatively correlated with CWB when targeted at individual.

These findings show that procedural justice is not the best predictor in predicting CWB, particularly in the CWB dimensions targeted at organizations (Akremi, Vandenbergue, & Camerman, 2010; Devonish & Greenidge, 2010). Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield (1999) explained that employees will be more sensitive to violations of interactional justice than those of procedural justice.

The design of this research only focused on procedural justice and interactional justice in terms of their effects on CWB, since distributive justice refers to equity theory, stating that individuals define justice only on the comparison of outcomes that they receive, so that the relationship tends to be economic exchange which is more suitable to be called as contracts, that is agreement to comply with obligations or not doing something.

Exchange relationships will improve when there is a positive perception and attitude towards justice that is received from organizations. This statement is relevant to a study conducted by Organ in terms of social exchanges, revealing that employees will behave positively when there is justice (Giap, Hackermeier, Jiao & Wagdarikar, 2005). When there is injustice, social exchange relationships tend to be negative (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

Focus on organizational justice arises from the idea that justice is a big issue and has a vital role for employees (Forret & Love, 2008). Liao and Rupp (2005) stated that there is a huge need for crosslevel research to reveal the effects of the perceptions of justice (group level) on the variable of outcomes (with individual level). Cross-level analysis explains that any treatment in the context of justice (group level) has different effects on the attitudes and behaviors of individuals in the workplace when compared to individual-level perceptions of justice. This condition reflects the effects of individuals' social backgrounds, starting from something broad to explain individuals' specific characteristics.

The research model referred to the integration of justice theory and social exchange theory, and developed previous studies (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Masterson et al., 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Settoon, Benneth, & Lide, 1996; and Wayne et al., 2002). A study of Liao and Rupp (2005) examined the effects of organizational justice climate on commitment, job satisfaction, and OCB using crosslevel analysis. Studies conducted by Rupp and Cropanzano (2002), Setton, Bennett, and Liden (1996), as well as Wayne et al. (2002) examined the effects of organizational justice on OCB with

perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange as mediator variable. A study of Colquitt et al. (2013) also included social exchange quality in the forms of trust, commitment, organizational support, and Leader Member Exchange (LMX).

The findings of Colquitt et al., (2013) on social exchanges are: (1) Organizational justice (all the four types of justice: procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice, each of which was analyzed towards Organizational Citizenship Behavior/OCB, CWB, and task performance) is positively associated with OCB and task performance. Organizational justice is negatively correlated with CWB; (2) justice perceived by supervisors (informational justice) has stronger correlation with OCB (only some hypotheses are supported); (3) justice has an indirect effect on task performance, OCB, and CWB through social exchange quality. The indirect effect of organizational justice on CWB is significant only on distributive justice, procedural justice, and interpersonal justice). The research findings of Colquitt et al., (2013) recommended that social exchange theory be used to explain the reaction of justice, and its positive / negative effects on other variables.

Another variable that has the possibility of affecting CWB is Perceived Organizational Support (POS). POS is defined as the belief that organizations will reward employees' contributions and pay attention to their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Exchange theory (social exchange theory and organizational support theory) believes that support could serve as a catalyst in achieving positive employee outcomes (work attitude, behavior, and performance) (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

According to the theory of exchange relationships, there is a complementary and mutually beneficial relationship between an organization and its employees, as well as the one that benefits those outside them (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Cooperation between organization and its employees that is based on organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) assumes that organizations will reward employee contributions and improve their well-being. In this case, this includes that organization will provide assistance to employees in overcoming pressure during work or in achieving effective performance. This suggests the presence of motivation that may drive the relationships of organization-employee exchange (Ahmed et al., 2013), and the presence of support from organization (Baran et al., 2012). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) conducted 70 studies (from 1986-2002), also in 2003-2011, examining the factors and consequences of POS. Riggle et al. (2009) also conducted survey studies in examining the results of POS.

POS is the belief related to organization-employee exchanges (Ahmed et al., 2013), in which employee organizational commitment serves as an indication of employees who have organizational support (Baran et al., 2012). There are various ways in which organizations could express their commitment to employees, such as justice (Cheung, 2013, Fu & Lihua, 2012; Jacobs et al., 2013), opportunities to grow (Aryee & Chen, 2004; Mendelson et al., 2011; Yew, 2011), support from supervisors (Simosi, 2012; Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011; Pazy, 2011; Siswanti, 2008; Siswanti, 2010), support from co-workers (Chen, 2010; Mearns & Reader, 2008; Zagenczyk et al., 2010). An interesting thing to remember is that these results are complementary to each other. Zagenczyk et al. (2011) stated that there is a positive and significant relationship between POS and these antecedents. On the other hand, other researchers found an insignificant relationship between POS and these antecedents (Allen et al., 2008; Mearns and Reader, 2008; Valcour et al., 2011). There is a possibility that there is a mediator in such relationship (Tekleab and Chiaburu, 2011; Allen et al., 2003; DeConinck, 2010;). Therefore, further research is required. Organizations have spent a lot of allocation to support employees, but the outcomes are often not as expected. Ahmed et al. (2013), Chung et al. (2012), Muse & Wadsworth (2012); Bogler & Nir (2012), noted a positive and significant relationship between POS and the expected outcomes, while other researchers found a moderation effect on the relationship (Cheung, 2013, Karatepe, 2012b; Francis, 2012; Newman et al., 2012; Simosi, 2012; Sulea et al., 2012); while other studies showed insignificant relationship (Cho & Treadway, 2011; Elstad et al., 2013; Jaksen & Andersen, 2013; Landsman, 2008; Snick & Redman, 2012; Tuzun & Kelmci, 2012; Wickramasinghe and Perera, 2012). This contradiction indicates that

there is a need for further research (Riggle et al., 2009). The research findings of Ahmed & Nawaz (2015) revealed that distributive justice, procedural justice, support from supervisors, and support from co-workers serves as strong predictors of POS. Based on social exchange theory, organizational justice does not directly affect individual behavior, but through certain attitude shaping mechanisms, such as perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, and trust (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997; Setton, Bennett, & Liden, 1996).

The research findings of Ahmed & Nawaz (2015) recommended that employee engagement be included in the design of advanced models. This is because there is possibility that, when organizational justice climate positively affects perceived organizational support, it can also positively affect employee engagement within the organization.

Literature Review and Proposition Designs

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

According to Penney & Spector (2002), counterproductive work behavior is a workplace behavior that disturbs organizations or the members of organizations, such as theft, sabotage, interpersonal aggression, slow progress of work, wasted time or materials, and spreading rumors. Sackett (2003) also had a similar definition, that is the behavior of the members of an organization that is deliberately committed to violate rules or ignore values that contradict the goals of the organization.

According to Levy & Ritti (2003), counterproductive work behavior is employee behavior such as theft, sabotage, blackmail, bribery, and aggression. Any destructive and harmful behaviors that employees are unable to control are also called counterproductive work behaviors, i.e. any harmful and destructive behaviors done by employees to prevent an organization from achieving its goals (Fox & Spector, 2005).

A number of empirical studies categorize counterproductive work behaviors into several dimensions (Bowling and Gruys, 2010). A study conducted by Roy, Bastounis, and Poussard-Minibas (2012) grouped the dimensions of counterproductive work behavior into two forms of behavior, namely: 1) counterproductive work behavior performed by employees in active manifestation, such as theft, aggressive behavior, sabotage, (2) counterproductive work behavior performed by employees in passive manifestation, such as non-compliance behavior, abusive behavior, withdrawal behavior.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is employees' perceptions of the justice they receive from organization (Greenberg, 1987, 1990a, 1996). According to French (1964), organizational justice is individuals' perception of organizational justice, in terms of outcomes, procedures and interactions taking place within the organization. Organizational justice consists of:

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is justice that perceived from the compensation received by employees (Folger and Konovsky 1989). Distributive justice refers to income that is distributed (Homans 1961) and prioritizes decisions in terms of resource allocation as well as individual reactions in terms of the outcomes they receive; employee perceptions of equality in payments, promotions and distribution of resource (Eskew 1993).

Seen from the history, equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) focuses on the science or knowledge about organizational justice. This is because most studies of distributive justice focus on maximizing

productivity (Colquitt, 2001). Another theory that adopted distributive justice based on the equity theory is the judgement of justice model (Leventhal, 1976, 1980), distributive justice theory (Homans, 1961) and the theory of allocation preferences (Leventhal et al., 1980). Organs (1988a) argued that the criteria to determine employee salary are: status, seniority, productivity, effort and needs related to distributive justice. Organ (1988a) mentioned that distributive justice shall meet three principles: equity, equality, and needs (Deutsch 1985; Koopmann 2002; Tyler 1994).

Procedural Justice

According to Lind & Tyler, 1988, procedural justice is fair process which determines outcomes. According to Moorman (1991), procedural justice is how employees perceive organizational justice through applicable formal procedures, to measure the extent to which fair procedures are applied within organization.

Interactional Justice

Robbins (2012) defined interactional justice as individuals' perception of the extent to which employees are treated with dignity, attention, and respect. Colquitt (2001) mentioned that interactional justice shows the level of a person being treated well, respectfully, and politely, as well as being appreciated. Interactional justice includes assessing leaders' behaviors in viewing employees' point of view and leaders' ability to minimize subjectivity, treatment of employees in implementing a procedure, and bias in judgment (Bies & Moag, 1986).

In its development, interactional justice is divided into 2 as follows:

1) Interpersonal Justice

Interpersonal justice is the justice for the interpersonal treatment during the implementation of procedures and distribution of results. Interpersonal justice focuses on individuals' perceptions of justice from the aspects related to how they are treated. Impolite and unfair treatment by superiors may cause subordinates to perform less well and have less job satisfaction.

2) Informational Justice

Informational justice refers to individuals' perceptions of information justice as the basis for decision-making and for explaining decision-making procedures (Giap *et al.* 2005).

Organizational Justice Climate

According to Li and Cropanzano (2009), in the last few years the concept of organizational justice has developed into a group level known as organizational justice climate. Greenberg (1990) was the first person that used the term organizational justice to explain the role of justice as something that is directly related in the workplace. According to Greenberg (1990), the perceptions of organizational justice consist of three constructs: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. These three constructs are derived from the concept of distributive justice developed by Deutchs (1975) and Leventhal (1980); as well as interactional justice developed by Bies & Moag (1986) and Greenberg (1990). Procedural justice was developed by Thibaut and Walker (1975) and Leventhal (1980). Researchers on organizational behaviors then identified four types of organizational justice, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, and the development of interactional justice into interpersonal and informational justice (Zapata-Phelan, Colquitt, Scot, & Livingstone, 2008). Group-level perceptions of justice according to Li and Cropanzano (2009) will create justice climate that could shape individuals' view of justice. Roberson & Colquitt (2005) stated that employees/individuals in a group will share with each other, resulting in a similar interpretation of justice through the aggregate justice perceptions across group members. In such conditions, individuals will learn to evaluate justice from the point of views of other group members, and this will ultimately lead to homogeneity of justice perceptions in the groups.

This study used a social cognitive theory approach to explain the level of group analysis (Robinson & O'Learly-Kelly, 1998).

The benefits of the effects of organizational justice climate variable (unit level) on both attitude and behavior variables (individual level) can be seen from a study by Collquitt et al. (2002), showing that justice climate (unit level) has a more significant effect on performance and absenteeism compared to the effects of justice variable (individual level) on performance and absenteeism (individual level). The research findings of Mossholder et al. (1998) indicated that equity variable (unit level) has a greater effect on job satisfaction (individual level).

Perceied Organizational Support (POS)

The basis of POS is organization's understanding of individuals' emotions, needs, efforts, commitments, and loyalties (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore and Shore, 1995). Related to POS, Eisenberger et al., 1986 assumed that employees develop a global belief that organization in which they work provides value and attention to their well-being.

Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960), researchers believe that POS positively affects employee relationships with organization owners because it encourages employees to have inner feeling to pay attention to the organization and help achieve organizational goals (Eisenberger et al 2001, Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002).

In general, there are positive conditions within an organization (for exmaples equity, employment conditions, and relationships with supervisors), in the context of POS which will make employees have the sense of belonging (affective commitment), an increase in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and performance, a decrease in avoidance and other similar attitudes (such as counterproductive work behavior) (Eisenberger et al. 2001; Eisenberger and Stinglhamber 2011; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Riggle et al. 2009).

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is an opportunity given to employees to establish stronger relationships with co-workers, managers, and organizations. This indicates a sense of creating an environment where employees are motivated to be correlated with their works and to have better understanding of their works. This shows that the meaning of employee engagement is increasingly important for organization (Gatenby et al. 2009; Tusa'diah et al., 2017; Novianti et al., 2017; Anwar et al., 2017).

Christian et al. (2011), in a model of engagement process, stated that there are three antecedents of engagement, namely: (1) the characteristics of works (autonomy, variety of tasks, task significance, problem solving, complexity of work, social support, conditions of work), (2) leadership (transformational leadership and leader-member exchange), and (3) dispositional characteristics (Conscientiousness, Positive Affect (happiness), Proactive Personality). This means that one of the above antecedents, that is organizational support, can improve employee engagement to organization where they work.

Proposition 1 : Distributive justice climate negatively affects counterproductive work behavior.

Proposition 2 : Procedural justice climate negatively affects counterproductive work behavior.

Proposition 3 : Interactional justice climate negatively affects counterproductive work behavior.

Proposition 4 : Distributive justice climate indirectly affects counterproductive work behavior with perceived organizational support as mediator.

Proposition 5 : Procedural justice climate indirectly affects counterproductive work behavior with perceived organizational support as mediator.

Proposition 6 : Interactional justice climate indirectly affects counterproductive work behavior with perceived organizational support as mediator.

Proposition 7 : Perceived organizational support positively affects employee engagement.

Design of Research Model

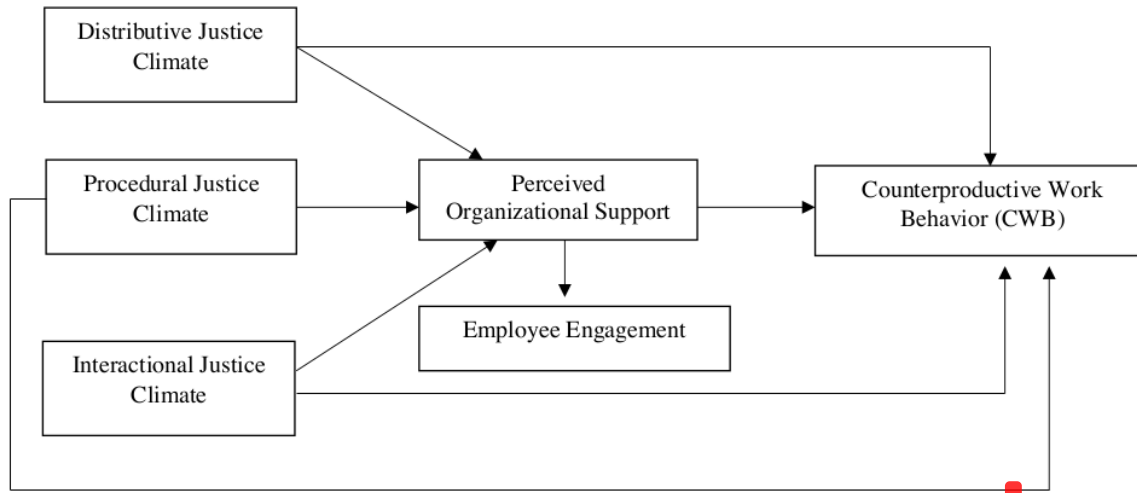


Figure 1: Analysis of Organizational Justice Climate, Perceived Organizational Support, Employee Engagement and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Conclusion

The design of this study is to offers a model of a counterproductive work behavior (CWB) which was built by organizational justice. In this study researcher use perceived organizational support (POS) and employee engagement as mediator variables where POS will influence employee engagement. This paper produces: (1) research model design; (2) research proposition; (3) the design of research methods.

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Constructing Model Proposition of Organizational Justice Climate, Perceived Organizational Support,

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