BI Norwegian Business School
Oslo, Norway

Master Thesis
Master of Science in Leadership and Organizational Psychology

- Comprehending envy and its impact on employees and the organization -

Authors:
Fathima Ashika Asraf

Bettina Schultz Seljelid

Supervisor:
Geir Thompson

Date of submission:
01.09.2016

Exam code and name:
GRA 19003 – Master Thesis

This thesis is a part of the MSc programme at BI Norwegian Business School. The school takes no responsibility for the methods used, results found and conclusions drawn.

Acknowledgments

Oslo, September 1st 2016

This master thesis is submitted in order to fulfill our Master of Science degree in Leadership and Organizational Psychology at BI Norwegian Business School.

Our time as students at BI has come to an end. We have gained valuable knowledge, and had the privilege to work with and learn from ambitious students and inspiring professors. Working on this particular thesis was very interesting and educational, although it was time-consuming. All in all it has been a great process with valuable experiences.

We would like to express our deepest gratitude to our supervisor, Dr. Geir Thomspon who kindly guided us trough this process. We appreciate all the useful insights and constructive feedback he provided, along with his engagement and time throughout the entire process of this master thesis. We also would like to extend our greetings to the participants in the survey who used their time to provide us with valuable information. Lastly, we would like to thank our family and friends for all their support and encouragement for completing our master degree at BI, Oslo.

Best regards,

Fathima Ashika Asraf

Bettina Schultz Seljelid

Abstract

Considerable theoretical and empirical work has identified the impact of envy on the organization and its employees. The mechanisms underlying this emotion, however, are not well understood. To enhance the understanding of workplace envy, we examined the relationship between envy and the secondary affective variables, *distress* and *job satisfaction*. Furthermore, we determined how envy might impact personal response variables in the workplace. We used Vecchio´s theory (1995) on antecedents and consequences of envy as a theoretical framework for our study. To test a possible behavioral coping response to envy, we modified Vecchio´s model by adding an additional variable to it, *antisocial behavior.* The present study relied on cross-sectional research design where 97 respondents from various business settings in Norway participated. Our findings revealed envy to be directly related to distress and job satisfaction. Furthermore, SEM analysis showed envy to have indirect and positive relation to propensity quit via distress and job satisfaction. However, the analysis did not find antisocial behavior to be related to envy as predicted. The limitations and implications of these findings are discussed and the paper concludes with an outline for possible future research.

Keywords: envy, distress, job satisfaction, propensity to quit, antisocial behavior

Table of content

Acknowledgments ..... **i**

Abstract ..... **ii**

1.0 Introduction **1**

1.1 Background 1

1.2 The concept of envy 1

1.3 Relating workplace envy to existing organizational theory 3

1.4 Why study workplace envy? 4

2.0 Theoretical framework **5**

2.1 Scope of the study 6

3.0 Purpose and Research Questions **7**

4.0 Constructs and hypothesis **9**

5.0 Proposed Theoretical Model **16**

6.0 Method **16**

6.1 Participants 16

6.2 Instruments 17

6.2.1 Measure. *17*

7.0 Results **18**

8.0 General Discussion **20**

8.1 Theoretical implications 21

8.2 Strengths and Limitations 23

8.2.1. Strengths *23*

8.2.2 Limitations *24*

8.3 Practical implications 25

9.0 Future research **26**

10.0 Conclusion **28**

References **30**

Attachments **40**

Appendix 1 – Questionnaire 40

Appendix 2 - Preliminary Master Thesis Report 46

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background

Negative emotions at work have received an increasing amount of attention in the field of psychology due to their remarkable impact on employees and the organization (Erdil & Müceldili, 2014). Recent research has identified specific organizational constructs that may either promote or inhibit the relationships at work (Vecchio, 1995, 1997, 2000; Duffy, Shaw & Schaubroeck, 2008; Menon & Thompson, 2010; Veiga, Baldridge & Markóczy, 2014; Thompson, Glasø & Martinsen, 2015a; Thompson, Glasø & Martinsen, 2015b). Envy - a distinct and negative emotion - is of particular interest, as it has been historically recognized to have a great effect on human relationships in an organization (Thompson et al., 2015a). However, in many circumstances the issues connected to envy are ignored by supervisors, due to their underlying bold assumption that business interactions should be grounded in rational economic-based decision-making (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). Although, emotions and feelings are believed to have little place in business related social interactions (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001), recent research have revealed emotions, in this case envy, to have considerable impact on individuals and organizations (e.g. Vecchio, 1995, 2000, 2005; Smith & Kim, 2007; Braun, Aydin, Frey & Peus, 2015). Furthermore, it has been encouraged by several researchers to comprehend envy, as it appears to be a hostile emotion that often prompts aggressive behaviors towards others (Smith & Kim, 2007; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007; Cohen-Charash, 2009).

1.2 The concept of envy

Most people experience envy from time to time, however it is unusual for a person to admit feeling envious of others, as well as admit how this envious feeling influences his or her behavior. Expressing and admitting envy is often viewed as shameful, hence the feeling of envy may go undetected (Vecchio, 1995, 2000, 2007). Envy has a powerful influence on behavior and can negatively affect the individual's performance level, satisfaction level and in some cases, lead to more severe outcomes, in worst case, murder (Vecchio, 1995; Smith & Kim, 2007). An example of this is in *Othello* by Shakespeare where one character

murders the other due to envy, misunderstandings and suspicions (Vecchio, 1995). Accordingly, the effects of envy can be classified by its *focus* and its *type* (Cohen-Charash, 2009). For instance, the focus of envy can be directed at the self, the envied, the work groups or the organization, and the reactions can be emotional, cognitive and/or behavioral (type).

The experience of envy has been conceptualized in three different ways. Firstly envy is conceptualized as *situational,* where the focus is on the general envy of others in an environment. For example in a work environment that includes multiple comparators (Vecchio, 1995; Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper & Aquino, 2012). Secondly as *dispositional,* where the focus is on the general tendency to feel envious of others (Smith & Kim, 2007) and lastly as *specific and episodic,* which involves a specific individual as a referent (Cohen-Charash, 2009). In this study, we focus on the first conceptualization, where individuals make unpleasant comparisons with others. Such a general approach can provide an increased understanding of the outcomes of envy. Further on, Vecchio (2005) conceptualize envy in two ways; *envy towards others* and *being envied by others.* The present paper focuses on envy toward others, by scrutinizing employees' own comparison with their colleagues. When feeling envy toward others, one may in some cases experience "ill-will" towards the other person in addition to just wanting what he or she has (Cohen-Charash, 2009). However, envy has been found to have profound effects on the people experiencing it as well as the people who are targets of it (Vecchio, 2005). People who experience envy are often distressed by this unpleasant emotion and often feel ashamed of it, while people who are afraid of being envied, often avoid too much success and hide their good fortune. Hence, envy has a strong impact on people´s behavior (Cohen-Charash, 2009). Besides, the increased attention to study the concept of workplace envy and its consequences may be a result of most organizations wanting to create and foster competitive environments in which coworkers are often differentially rewarded (Duffy et al., 2008; Menon & Thompson, 2010; Veiga et al., 2014).

According to Dogan & Vecchio (2001) envy stem from a sense of insecurity since it is a reaction to a perceived threat. In today's business climate, there are numerous influences that contribute to an uncertain work-environment. Many organizations undergo actions to remain competitive, which in some cases can foster employee envy (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). In an effort to become more

efficient and profitable, many organizations systematically reduce their staff (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). However, this approach does not always achieve the desired result of increased productivity and long-term profits. The remaining employees after such downsizing often fear losing their job in the future and tend to be suspicious of personnel-related decision-making within the organization (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). In addition, employees feel threatened by the management and their coworkers because of the question of who may be the next to go. This threat can easily generate competitive behavior amongst employees, thus evoke envy (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). At some point, these negative feelings will influence the quality of work because the feelings will cause stress and undermine the ability to work collaboratively (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). Furthermore, when an employee becomes extremely distressed and feels that there is no constructive response, he or she may react by requesting a transfer or quitting the organization (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). Accordingly, many researchers have identified envy to be a critical determinant for the organizational climate (e.g. Vecchio, 1995, 2005, 2007; Duffy & Shaw, 2000; Thompson et al., 2015a, 2015b; Özkoç & Çaliskan, 2015), which includes interaction between personality, emotions, norms and values of the employees, and the organization´s structure, goals and work relations (Özkoç & Çaliskan, 2015). Vecchio (2005) also demonstrate that competition among coworkers increases the likelihood of experiencing envy as a consequence of competitive outcomes, which in turn promote increased social comparison (Thompson et al., 2015b). It has further been emphasized that social comparisons are essential for envy to occur, as people often evaluate themselves and others from social comparisons (Vecchio, 1995, 2007).

1.3 Relating workplace envy to existing organizational theory

It is assumed that envy plays an important role that can motivate employees to various kinds of reactions that may affect the organization and its employees negatively. This assumption is grounded in the theory of social comparisons (i.e. equity theory) between the protagonist and its counterpart (Vecchio, 1995). Hence, a noteworthy theory for understanding envy and how to manage it is *social comparison theory* (Vecchio, 1995). We constantly compare ourselves to others. When comparing oneself with someone successful, one tends

to engage in an upward comparison that can result in an envious feeling. On the other hand, when engaging in a downward comparison, we may feel good about ourselves as the other part may have less then we do in areas we consider to be valuable (Lim & Yang, 2015). Furthermore, envy along with shame, guilt, contempt, and pride amongst other emotions and feelings, emerges as a person develops elementary understanding of a sense of self and others (Vecchio, 2007). A sense of others is necessary for a comparison to take place, and thus for envy to occur. For instance, if a coworker deservingly receives a corner office, one might feel envious of this situation due to his or her own desire of this corner office. It is irrelevant whether this was achieved in a fair or an unfair manner. Hence, if it is of personal desire it will lead to a feeling of envy (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007). Accordingly, work events such as promotions, pay increases, bonuses, recognitions, or simply praise from the manager makes the workplace a fertile ground for envious feelings and spontaneous social comparisons (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Vecchio, 2005). All in all, the direction of comparison is often determined by the person´s objectives (Lim & Yang, 2015). Managers are often unaware of the unintended consequences of their actions in triggering envy when comparing individuals to identify and reward superior performance (Veiga et al., 2014). Therefore, it is crucial to consider the theory of social comparison when comprehending envy and its consequences.

1.4 Why study workplace envy?

Recent research explores how aspects of the workplace, such as reward systems (Vecchio, 2000; 2005) and managerial style (Vecchio, 1995; 2005) may trigger envy among coworkers. However, there is also an increased interest to explore how envy affects organizational outcomes, such as performance and propensity to quit (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Vecchio, 2007). In a Norwegian business setting, envy has not received enough attention in the field of organizational psychology. Hence, this research is of importance because it gives the capability to make recommendations for preventing the negative effects of envy at work by theoretically express how and why it occurs and empirically discover its impact on the organization.

Furthermore, Vecchio (1995) emphasizes that most research on envy is based on a familiar and romantic context, hence the results from these researches

cannot be easily transformed into work/organizational setting due to the environmental context. Even if work-life has many parallels with family-life (i.e. workplace authority figures replace parental authority figures, and coworkers can be replaced with siblings), the dynamics in a work setting are found to be different from a familiar setting. Thus, Vecchio proposed a model of negative emotions drawn from the prior research in the area of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Vecchio, 2007). This model will be further elaborated in our study, with an intention to provide the literature with new knowledge about the outcomes of envy.

2.0 Theoretical framework

Our study wishes to use the model proposed by Vecchio (1995) as a framework, where he integrates existing organizational theories that relate to negative emotions such as envy. The theory of Vecchio identifies specific, testable hypothesis which involves individual influences on envy and how it is related to affective and behavioral variables such as job dissatisfaction and back-stabbing (Vecchio, 1995). It further explains that feelings of envy are triggered by an event that acts as a stimulus to a negative emotion. This event can be either internal (e.g. reflecting on past experiences) or external (e.g. observing the opponent obtaining a reward), and is further influenced by the assessment of an opponent's attributes. As a rival´s status or prestige increases, the likelihood for recognizing the rival is increased. Following the recognition of the rival the protagonist will asses the extent of actual or potential loss that will be closely tied to the negative emotion that follows (see Vecchio, 1995).

Vecchio´s model identifies the assessment of loss to be influenced by three attributes. The first attribute is, *Employee Attributes,* which includes factors such as gender, self-confidence, external locus, work ethic and self-monitoring. For instance, when talking about gender, females value social relationships stronger than men, and therefore may be more responsive to jealousy-evoking events (Vecchio, 1995). Contrary, males are known to value competitive standing more than females and thus might be more responsive to envy-evoking events (Vecchio, 1995). The second major attribute is, *Work Unit Attributes,* which includes the unit size, competitive rewards, job rotation and job autonomy amongst others. For

instance, in large units envy is expected to be less reported since it is assumed that employees feel less sense of possessiveness in larger unit settings (Vecchio, 1995; Thompson et al., 2015b). However, this does not mean that the members of larger units are more content, see Vecchio (1995) for more. Thirdly, the model identifies *Organizational and National Culture Attributes,* which include employee participation norms, cooperative norms and collectivist norms (Vecchio, 1995). These are important for understanding the responses to the rivals. In settings with strong cooperative norms, envy may be less in evidence due to higher employee commitment. Likewise, norms of employee involvement in decision-making can reduce the assessment of threat by providing greater information about how decisions are made and giving them the opportunity to influence the decision-making process (Vecchio, 1995).

Further on, the model proposes that envy is connected to personal response dependent variables, which includes affective and behavioral response variables. The *primary affective response* includes feelings of anger and resentment, which can trigger strong outburst and physical attacks (Vecchio, 1995), but in many cases *secondary affective responses* such as fear, sense of rejection, depression and distress, follows anger and resentment (Thompson et al., 2015a). *The behavioral coping response* includes denial/avoidance, seek support, improve the relationship with target or develop alternative coping responses such as social loafing (Vecchio, 1995). The model also includes a feedback loop that links coping responses to assessment of loss. This link reflects the impact of the coping response on the assessment of threat. Accordingly, effective responses will reduce the level of threat and thereby reduce negative affect (Vecchio, 1995).

2.1 Scope of the study

As mentioned above, envy is experienced as a result of negative social comparisons (Vecchio, 1995). Based on this, we chose to treat envy as a negative emotion that arouse from social threat, both real and imagined. Heider (1958) explains that the unpleasant experience of envy desires the envious person to reduce the distance between the envious and the envied. Practically, this means equalizing the envious person's position with the position held by the envied person. One way of doing this is by harming the other person, which is a typical behavioral reaction of envy (Cohen-Charash, 2005; Mouly & Sankaran, 2002;

Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Silver & Sabini, 1978). Given the tendencies of most organizations to create and foster competitive environments in which coworkers are often differentially rewarded, it is important to study the behavioral aspects of envy as well.

Moreover, the importance of researching behavioral coping responses to envy has been emphasized by many researchers (e.g. Vecchio, 1995, 2007; Smith and Kim, 2007), as the existing guidelines for helping people to cope with envy-related problems are mostly untested and fairly rudimentary (Smith and Kim, 2007; Thompson et al., 2015a). For instance, in an analysis of workplace envy and jealousy, Vecchio (1997) speculates that praise and recognition would be effective ways to cope with envy (unless the employees saw them as manipulative), as they might help to create "a greater sense of inclusivity in unit activities", and thus avoid the feelings of being "left out" (p.555). However, these strategies are untested (Smith and Kim, 2007). Accordingly, Vecchio (1995) introduces certain negative behavioral coping responses to envy in his model, such as diminishing rival´s outcomes and derogation of rival. These negative actions among others may have the potential to cause harm to the property of an organization as well as to the individual (Robinson & O´Leary-Kelly, 1998). As the purpose of this study is to discover the impact of envy on organizational outcomes, we have chosen to consider *antisocial behavior* as a behavioral response variable to Vecchio´s model in addition to *propensity to quit,* which will be explained later. The former variable is anticipated to have a considerable impact on the organization and its employees (Cohen-Charash, 2000; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007).

3.0 Purpose and Research Questions

In the above section we have discussed that envy has remarkable effect on employees and the organization and is further argued to be an important issue to consider in the field of organizational psychology. Although envy related reactions receives some empirical attention in the social psychological literature, further research is needed to better understand the effects envy has on organizational and employee outcomes, mainly due to the fact that envy can go undetected by both leaders and employees. Vecchio´s theory illustrates which variables are associated with workplace envy, and how they are associated (Vecchio, 1995). Based on this, we have chosen to limit this paper to illuminate

the effects of envy by applying relevant parts of Vecchio´s model to support his theory in Norwegian work settings, as there is only a few studies that concerns this particular setting (e.g. Thompson et al., 2015a, 2015b). Our intention is to stimulate additional research to the topic of workplace envy in Norway.

More specifically, the present study seeks to test the mediating effect of distress and job satisfaction on propensity to quit. Although, current studies have found envy to be related to these variables individually, there are no studies, which have considered the effect envy has on propensity to quit, through distress and job satisfaction. In purpose to increase our understanding of workplace envy, we modified Vecchio´s model by adding antisocial behavior as an additional variable, where we wish to test whether there is a connection between them in a Norwegian work setting. Similar to the experience of envy, interpersonal counterproductive behaviors are found to be related to negative social comparisons (e.g. Heider, 1958; Mouly & Sankaran, 2002), and evidence shows that envy can push employees to engage in counterproductive efforts and even pit employees against one another (Gächter & Thöni, 2010). Most of the existing studies are based on negative emotions as a general negative affect and only a few focuses on discrete emotions (Khan, Peretti & Quratulain, 2009). Lazarus and Cohen-Charash (2001) suggests that instead of focusing on general affects, the role of discrete emotions should be examined due to their unique relational themes, antecedents and outcomes. Based on Lee and Allen´s (2002) argumentation that it may be more fruitful to investigate negative discrete emotions than positive discrete emotions at work, we chose to use envy as an antecedent of antisocial work behavior. The latter would be our main contribution to the literature.

Based on the discussion above, the main purpose of this study is to address and interpret the following research questions:

RQ 1: *" Does distress and job satisfaction have a mediating effect on propensity to quit in a work setting?*

RQ 2: "*How does envy relate to antisocial behavior amongst employees at work?"*

The next section will introduce the main constructs and hypotheses followed by the research method, where we present the terms and settings that we found beneficial for answering the research questions above.

4.0 Constructs and hypothesis

Envy is seen to be a complex emotion, which consists of other emotions, such as hatred (Johnson-Laird & Oatley, 1989; Cohen-Charash, 2009), desire, entitlement (Bers & Rodin, 1984; Cohen-Charash, 2009), longingness, self-criticism, dissatisfaction, and self-awareness (Smith, Kim, & Parrott, 1988; Cohen-Charash, 2009). Stated differently, envy is considered as both very unpleasant and very reprehensible (Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007). Due to the lack of a distinct theoretical framework for defining envy, many researchers have suggested definitions to the concept, however most definitions are grounded in Vecchio's theory (Vecchio, 1995). Vecchio (1995) defined envy as "A pattern of thoughts, emotions and behaviors that results from the loss of self-esteem in response to another obtaining outcomes that one strongly desires" (p. 206). Further on, Parrott and Smith (1993) argue that envy occurs "when a person lacks another's superior quality, achievement or possession and either desires it or which that the other lacked it" (p. 906). As mentioned earlier, envy occurs mostly when people compare themselves to others and is a universal emotion that has been found in most cultures and is felt by most people (Smith, Parrott, Diener, Hoyle & Kim, 1999). In a work setting, individuals tend to compare their benefits, advantages and salaries with colleagues through formally and informally mechanisms. More specifically, a crucial role in envy is played by social comparisons (Vecchio, 1995; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007). As a consequence of unfavorable comparisons, the person who envies others will probably constantly ask him- or herself questions such as "Why him/her and not me?" Furthermore, it has been indicated that envious people engage in counterproductive interpersonal work related behaviors due to their perception of unfairness (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007).

When researching envy, Vecchio (1995) highlights the importance of differentiating envy from the concept of jealousy, due to the close connection between these aspects. Although envy and jealousy often are used interchangeably

in everyday language, the social psychology literature on emotions in the workplace clearly distinguishes between these concepts (Vecchio, 1995). One way to distinguish between jealousy and envy is that "Envy concerns what we would like to have, but do not have, while jealousy concerns what we have, but fear to loose" (Vecchio 1995, p. 205). Even though people use these terms back and forth, it is important to understand that envy can exist without feelings of jealousy, while jealousy is often connected to envy (Vecchio, 1995). Both envy and jealousy stem from a sense of insecurity because they are reactions to a perceived threat (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). In addition to Vecchio (1995), Smith and Kim (2007) also distinguished between envy and jealousy where the two terms differed in numbers and perception of people involved. That is, envy involves two people where one lacks something another enjoys, whilst jealousy involves three people and occurs when a person fears to lose something to another person. Furthermore, Smith and Kim (2007) claimed that since envy contains self-threatening feelings of inferiority and hostility, and is socially repugnant, people tend to not acknowledge feeling envy, neither publicly nor privately, and they will often cope with their fears about the implications of them feeling envious.

Cohen-Charash (2000), as part of a study of the antecedents and consequences of workplace envy, found that the stronger the reported envy, the greater the incidence of negative actions taken toward the envied target. Such as hurting the target, sabotaging the target´s work and reputations, and withholding assistance and cooperation. Furthermore, envy has been associated with greater anxiety, depression, hostility, fatigue and confusion (Thompson et al., 2015a). The absence of empirically based attention on workplace envy may be partly due to the difficulties associated with studying an issue that is inherently distasteful. Individuals look at envy as something unpleasant as well as something that is potentially unavoidable. Hence, people are embarrassed to acknowledge these kinds of strong and negative emotions toward others (Vecchio, 1995).

Prior research has shown that individuals are envious because they want to be better than others, and not just better off. As a consequence of such attitude, these people experience a relative distress when others achieve more than they do (Veiga et al., 2014). According to Vecchio (1995) distress is an affective response to envy and may encourage an unfortunate focus on one's shortcomings and make

it difficult to recognize the admirable qualities of oneself (Thompson et al., 2015a). Vecchio's theory suggest that envy is related to primary affective responses (emotional responses) such as anger and resentment, which in most cases is followed by secondary affective responses such as fear, sense of rejection, depression and distress. Warr (1990) and Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) indicate that even though distress is an affective state, such as job satisfaction, it is characterized as more than just feeling unhappy at work. It includes feelings of depression and anxiety, which are the primary dimensions of negative affect and mood. In a current study of 414 employees from various industries and organizational levels with 70% males in Norway, Thompson et al. (2015a) found that envy was positively correlated with distress which supports the assumption that envy creates a negative mood *"feeling of isolation and sadness"* (p. 18*)*. However, as their study is the only study that has looked at the relationship between envy and distress there is a need for additional data from other contexts to say that Vecchio´s model is built on a good empirical foundation. Hence, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Envy is positively associated with distress.

Vecchio (2005) reported that competition among coworkers increases the likelihood of experiencing envy as a consequence of competitive outcomes, which in turn foster increased social comparison. Within empirical studies, job satisfaction is considered as an overall feeling about the job or as a related set of attitudes about various aspects of the job. A generally accepted definition of the concept is "Job satisfaction refers to one's cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional), and behavioral responses to one's job, as assessed by one's evaluation of job features or characteristics, emotional responses to events that occur on the job, and job-related behavioral intentions" (Tziner, Rabenu, Radomski & Belkin, 2015 p. 208). It is concluded that job satisfaction is a combination of cognitive and affective reactions to the differential perceptions of what an employee wants to receive compared to what he or she actually receives (Judge, 1994). Studies on consequences of envy in work-settings indicate that envy is negatively associated with job satisfaction (Duffy & Shaw, 2000). This relationship was also supported

by Vecchio (2005, 2007). However, the assumption that envy is the same regardless of social context is probably not valid, hence additional research is needed to test the relationship between job satisfaction and envy in a Norwegian work setting. Accordingly, following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 2: Envy is directly and negatively related to job satisfaction.

Vecchio´s theory suggests that the magnitude of affective responses, such as distress, is influenced by the magnitude of experienced envy (Vecchio, 1995, 2005). This may negatively affect performance and relationships with others. According to Cohen-Charash (2009) experiencing a negative social comparison is not sufficient to lead to negative reactions. Based on this proposal negative feelings such as distress must be present for negative social comparison to lead to negative consequences of envy (Thompson et al., 2015b). Thompson et al. (2015b) found in their study that there was an indirect association between envy and job satisfaction via distress in group level (-.25). Our research model suggests this relationship to exist on individual level. Hence, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Envy is negatively associated with job satisfaction via distress.

In the field of organizational behavior, scholars focus on investigating various aspects of emotions at work. Differentiation for instance promotes competition among coworkers and foster greater feelings of envy (Erdil & Müceldili, 2014). Hence, envy can lead to negative outcomes (Erdil & Müceldili, 2014), such as propensity to quit. The term *propensity to quit* refers to an employee´s willingness to leave the organization (Vecchio, 2000). Vecchio (2000) argues in his study that envy prompt openness to consider alternative employment, which would be a form of coping response. Research has supported the finding that propensity to quit is predictive of actual turnover (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984). Additionally, propensity to quit is also considered as an outcome of affective variables, such as job satisfaction (Hellman, 1997; Vecchio,

2005, 2007). When job satisfaction decreases, propensity to quit increases. However, this may not always be the case, especially when unemployment is high. A worker might choose to remain in the present employment, despite being dissatisfied with the job (Abiodun, Oyeniyi & Osibanjo, n.d.; Vecchio, 2000). Although the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave is generally thought to be negative (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Tett & Meyer, 1993), the magnitude of this relationship is not consistent within the available literature. One explanation of this assumption might be, as mentioned above, related to the influence of other personal or situational factors. This inconsistent relationship was further supported by Locke (1976), where he noted that the significant level of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave has not been especially high, usually less than .40 (p.237). It is probable that other variables mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and the act of quitting (Mobley, 1977).

Workplace envy was found to be correlated with lower job satisfaction, distress, and propensity to quit (Vecchio, 2000; Thompson et al., 2015a). As stated above, an employee may request a transfer or quit the job if the person becomes highly distressed and feel no beneficial response (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). Hence, acknowledging envy at work is vital.

In a study of US non-nursing workers, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave was found to be significantly different from zero and consistently negative (Hellmann, 1997). Similar result was also found in a study conducted by Shields and Ward (2001) and many others; intention to quit is negatively linked to job satisfaction. Like Locke (1976), Hellman (1997) also states that other variables may mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and the act of quitting, even though this relationship is mostly found to be significant in the literature. Therefore, we chose to examine the relationship between envy and propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction, which is assumed to have a significant effect on propensity to quit. Hence, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Envy is indirectly and positively associated with propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction.

In the research literature antisocial behavior has been conceptualized in many ways, such as "organizational aggression" (Neuman & Baron, 1998; Fox & Spector, 1999), "deviant behavior" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), "organizational misbehavior" (Vardi & Wiener, 1996), "revenge" (Bies, Tripp & Kramer, 1997), "mobbing/bullying" (Knorz & Zapf, 1996) and "counterproductive behavior" (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001). As a consequence, these different concepts are seen to be complex (Robinson & O´Leary-Kelly, 1998). Hence, in this paper we choose to use the term "antisocial behavior" which captures a wide range of negative behaviors, in addition to the harmful nature of these acts (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Fox et al., 2001). Antisocial behavior is defined as "actions directed toward other employees or the organization that have the potential for producing physical, economic, psychological or emotional harm" (Aquino & Douglas, 2003, p. 195) and it can be found in many forms at the workplace.

Having said this, in a novel study on organizational envy among 188 employed individuals, Cohen-Charash and Mueller (2007) revealed that employees would engage in harmful behaviors when the level of envy is high and the level of organizational justice is low. Furthermore, Cohen-Charash and Mueller (2007) stressed that the envier would protect their self-esteem by harming others to reduce the feelings of frustration associated with envy and downplaying the perceived advantage held by the envied person. Hence, antisocial behavior in the workplace is undoubtedly an important issue to study.

Research shows that 42 percent of women have experienced sexual harassment at work (Gruber, 1989), 75 percent of employees have stolen from their employers (McGurn, 1988) and that 33 to 75 percent of all employees have engaged in behaviors ranging from disobedience to sabotage (Harper, 1990). These actions represent some of the most serious forms of antisocial behaviors (Robinson & O´Leary-Kelly, 1998). However, it is also important to acknowledge the less serious actions, such as lying (DePaulo & DePaulo, 1989), spreading rumors (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), withholding effort (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993) and absenteeism (Johns, 1997). These actions may violate work norms and therefore may be antisocial and harmful for the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Robinson & O´Leary-Kelly, 1998). The envious person can achieve three goals by engaging in antisocial work behaviors. Firstly, by harming

envied others the envious persons´ frustration with feeling inferior will be reduced (Fox & Spector, 1999; Kulik & Brown, 1979; Smith, 1991; Spector, 1975, 1978). Secondly, by harming envied others the envious person can reduce the envy-provoking advantage held by the other. This may help equalizing the two people involved (Heider, 1958; Silver & Sabini, 1978). Lastly, by engaging in harming behaviors the envious person might be able to protect his or her wounded self-esteem (Fein & Spencer, 1997).

Additionally, studies have reported that employees can harm coworkers under certain conditions, as a response to experienced procedural injustice (e.g. Greenberg & Barling, 1999). As such, other studies have revealed that counterproductive behavior can stem from conflicts between coworkers that would result in organizational and interpersonal deviance (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fox et al., 2001). Thus, harming the envied other may affect the performance of the organization and the organization itself especially when the harming behaviors are directed at it (Duffy & Shaw, 2000). Accordingly, envy can lead to higher occurrence of interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Mouly & Sankaran, 2002; Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Silver & Sabini, 1978), which aims at imposing personal harm to another person (Fox & Spector, 1999; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Vecchio (1995; 2007) emphasize that an envious person with a sense of reduced self-worth will be contrived to make some form of response to deal with perceived threat. One strategy would be to engage in antisocial behavior towards coworkers (Thompson et al., 2015a). As previously mentioned, interpersonal counterproductive behaviors are found to be related to negative social comparisons, similar to envy. Vecchio (2005) found competitive reward structures to be associated with greater feelings of envy, which were likely to foster interpersonal distrust and hostility among employees. Although these authors undoubtedly have contributed greatly to the field, additional empirical research is still needed, with an inclusion of different national and cultural contexts. Hence we suggest following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Feelings of envy is positively related to antisocial behavior.

5.0 Proposed Theoretical Model

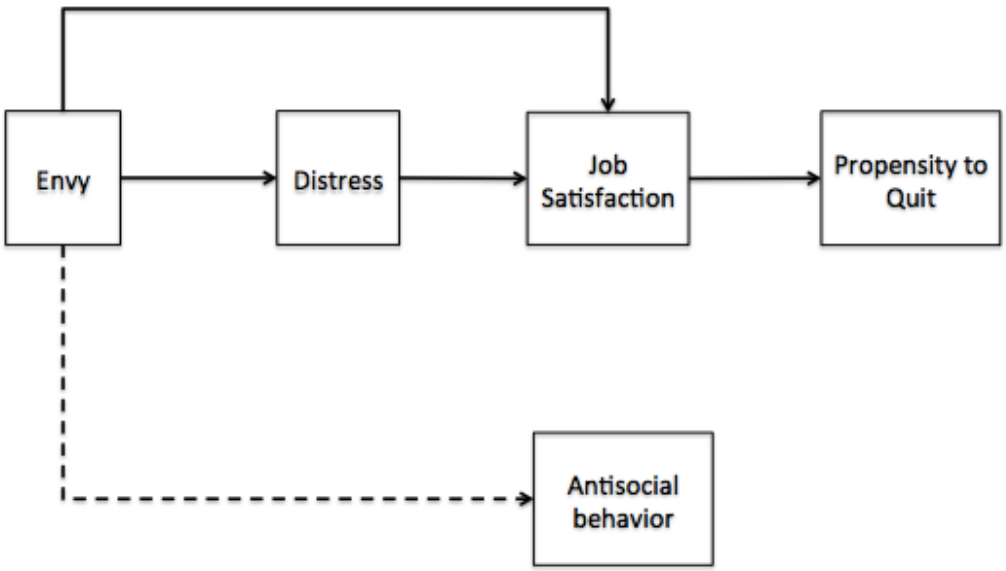

Figure 1

6.0 Method

In the following section we will briefly discuss the chosen research design and level of analysis for this study. Based on our intention of the study we have chosen to use *cross-sectional research design.* In a cross-sectional study various segments of a population is sampled and the data is collected in a single point in time (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013).

6.1 Participants

Approximately 400 people were asked to participate in the study. The questionnaire was sent out to various companies, organization levels and positions in the private sector. We approached private companies in Norway, both large and small, as well as personal contacts in suited businesses. The data was collected electronically through a link each respondent received online where they could answer each question in the questionnaire. They all received a cover letter explaining that the data collection was collected for academic reasons only with a goal to better understand how envy affects different factors at the workplace.

There was no compensation for participating in the study and all the respondents were informed about the confidentiality of their answers.

The response rate was 79,66%, however due to technical errors only 41,10% of the original response rate was fully completed. 72% of the respondents were women and 28% were men. The technical errors occurred when the data was collected. Questionnaires were used for the data collection where respondents were randomly selected based on their fit for the requirements. The questionnaire was aimed at people working in the private sector, both fulltime and part-time. However, there might have been a problem due to one alternative where it was possible to select "student". This choice was not supposed to be present as many of our respondents were students who had a part-time job. Those who selected "student" were automatically eliminated from the study. Due to this mistake, the sample size was reduced quite a bit and it was not possible to redo the data collection due to the given timeframe. Hence, when interpreting the data the low number of respondents needs to be taken into consideration as the volume affects the result and the fit of the model (Kenny & McCoach, 2003; Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). The questionnaires were distributed to the HR manager in IKEA, who further on passed it on to her employees. In addition to this people in our network were contacted directly and asked to participate in the study. Thus, this study was based on responses from various business settings in the private sector in Norway.

6.2 Instruments

All instruments were originally developed in English. In the purpose of avoiding misunderstandings and to ensure equivalence of the item meanings, the questionnaires were put through a back-translation conversion process to translate the questionnaires into Norwegian (Brislin, Lonner & Thorndike, 1973; Cavusgil and Das, 1997). In addition, a pilot testing of the questionnaires was conducted. This was done to see whether the items and formatting were clear and understandable.

6.2.1 Measure.

Envy was measured by using the scale from Vecchio (2005) containing a scale ranging from 1-5 (1=never, 5=often). Items included: "Most of my

coworkers have it better than I do" and "I don't know why, but I seem to be the underdog at work". *Job satisfaction* was measured by using three items scale by Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986) and Brooke, Russell and Price (1988), which was adapted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951). The scale ranged from 1-5 (1=strongly agree, 5=strongly disagree). Sample items included: "I find real enjoyment in my job", "I like my job better than the average worker does". *Distress* was measured by a twelve-item scale (Gatz & Hurwicz, 1990). Sample items were: "I felt depressed" and "I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing". (1=rarely or not at all, 2=Some or little of the time, 3=Occasionally or moderate amount of time, 4=Often or all the time). *Propensity to quit* was measured by using a five-item scale that is adapted from Landau and Hammer (1986). The scale rate was 1-5 (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Sample items were: "As soon as I can find a better job, I´ll leave" and "I am thinking about quitting my job". *Antisocial behavior* was measured by using a nine-items (Robinson and O´Leary-Kelly 1998). It included sample items like: "Said or did something to purposely hurt someone at work?" and "Deliberately bent or broke a rule(s)?" 5-point Likert-type scale were used where 1=very infrequently and 5=very frequently.

7.0 Results

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test how well the predicted interrelationships between the variables matched the observed data. The results of CFA displayed the following results: (x^2 [517] = 758.249, $p < 0.01$; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.069; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.838; Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) =0.825) and the correlations were found to be significant on significance level 0.01. When looking at the results in comparison with general rules of thumb of RMSEA the model is shown to have acceptable fit (e.g. Hu & Bentler, 1998; Weston & Gore, 2006; Hooper et al., 2008; Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2014).

Table 1 provides an overview of descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the variables. The alpha coefficient estimates were in an acceptable range for all the variables of interest (.76 -.89) and these are presented diagonally in the intercorrelations matrix.

The results revealed envy to be positively correlated with distress and antisocial behavior (*rs* = 0.54 and 0.52) as well as with propensity to quit (*rs*= 0.55). In addition envy showed to be negatively correlated with job satisfaction (*rs*= 0.53). Further on distress displayed to be negatively correlated with job satisfaction (*rs*= -0.62*)* and positively with propensity quit and antisocial behavior (*rs*= 0.62 and 0.60). Respectively the results revealed job satisfaction to be negatively correlated with both propensity to quit and antisocial behavior (*rs*= -0.69 and -0.42). Finally propensity to quit was positively correlated with antisocial behavior with *rs*= 0.45.

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Correlations Among Study Variables.							
Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Envy	2.15	1.01	(.86)				
2. Distress	1.87	0.44	.54**	(.80)			
3. Job Satisfaction	4.62	0.83	-.53**	-.62**	(.79)		
4. Propensity to Quit	2.97	1.23	.55**	.62**	-.69**	(.89)	
5. Antisocial Behavior	1.44	0.44	.52**	.60**	-.42**	.45**	(.76)
Note. N=97. Coefficient α reliabilities are shown in the diagonal.							
*Correlation is significant at p < .05 level. **Correlation significant at p < .01 level.							

Table 1

SEM analysis was conducted to test our theoretical model that consisted of 5 latent variables. The structural equation model provided an acceptable fit according to the criteria of RMSEA with the current dataset (x^2 [523] = 780 p< 0.01; RMSEA = 0.071; CFI = 0.827; TLI =0.814) .

The delta method procedure in the program STATA was used to test the effects of envy (Sobel test). Figure 2 exhibits the results of the path analysis regression for outcomes and shows these relationships in context. The results revealed a direct significant positive relation between envy and distress (β = 0.57, p<0.001), and negative association between distress and job satisfaction (β = -0.47, P<0.001). As predicted in hypothesis 2, the Sobel test displayed a significant direct negative relation between envy and job satisfaction (-0.32, p<0.001), which is in accordance with prior research. Job satisfaction is expected to decrease with higher levels of envy directed toward others (Vecchio, 2005). Furthermore, hypothesis 3 predicted envy to be indirectly and negatively associated with job satisfaction via distress. In this regard the results revealed a significant standardized effect of -0.27 (P<0.001). Hence, hypothesis 3 was partially

supported while hypothesis 1 and 2 was fully supported. Accordingly, hypothesis 4 predicted envy to be indirectly and positively associated with propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction. This was also supported with a standardized effect of 0.43 ($p<0.001$). Although, envy was correlated with antisocial behavior, the Sobel test revealed an insignificant effect between these two variables. Thus, hypothesis 5 was not supported.

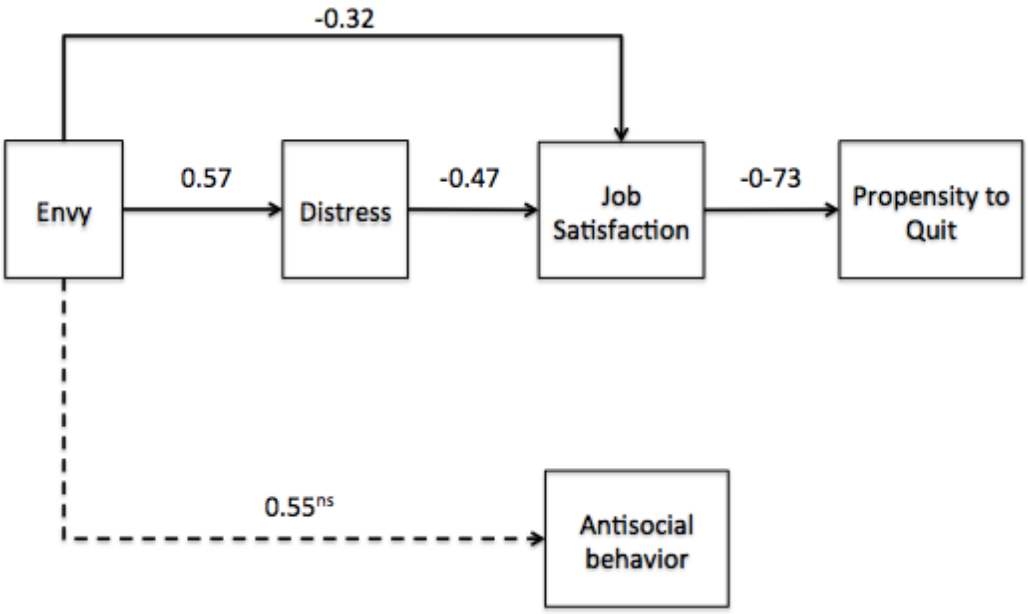

Figure 2

8.0 General Discussion

Despite the acknowledgement of the existence of envy within organizational context, the topic is mostly undetected since it is considered to be unpleasant and shameful. Furthermore, the concept of social comparison suggests that employees evaluate their own input/output ratios based on their comparison with the input/output ratios of other employees (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978; Thompson et al., 2015b). Moreover, employees who sense inequity will try to reduce it, for instance by distorting their contributions and/or outcomes, or leaving the organization (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978). The present study examined the impact of envy on personal response variables caused by negative social

comparison. Following this, a few methodological issues need to be addressed before heading into the discussion of the analysis.

For the results to be of 99% confidence level, instead of 95%, the sample size needs to be larger. Accordingly, due to the small sample size in this study, the confidence level could have been reduced from 95% to 90% or so. Based on Hair et al. (2014), to get a valid and reliable result we needed to have minimum 350 respondents, which is also a premise for SEM analysis. The chi-square is sensitive to sample size and this may be the reason for our model not to achieve a good model fit standard. A simple rule of thumb would be; the bigger the model, the bigger the sample size should be. The model fit criteria has touched upon much controversy and discussions on their subjective interpretation and appropriateness under specific modeling conditions (Marsh, Balla & Hau, 1996). For instance, Kenny and McCoach (2003) argued that TLI and CFI would decline in correctly specified models as more variables were added. As such, since our model was modified with another additional variable, it may cause a decline in CFI and TLI. However, these criterions did not get better when the additional variable (antisocial behavior) was removed from the model. Hence, we believe there can be other reasons for the reduced level of CFI and TLI.

Moreover, the coefficient of determination (r^2) for some item variables were below 0.2, this may lie in the fact that the humans are simply harder to predict than physical processes. We did not reconsider these items in our study, as we believed these items were essential to explain the variation in the latent variables. Besides, those items also displayed to have significant coefficients.

8.1 Theoretical implications

The prominent contribution of this paper to the literature is the findings about the relationship between envy and propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction, in one single model. Notably, we found these variables to be correlated with both envy, and each other. We believe that the emotional reactions to envy may create a feeling of isolation and sadness in the applicable person (Thompson et al., 2015a) and encourage the person to leave the company by enhancing personal shortcomings such as dissatisfaction at work. Such affective responses to envy might occur when the envious person cannot justify blaming the envied coworker for their good fortune and skills, or due to some perceived

injustice. Besides, a reduced level of job satisfaction would further make it difficult to see the positive qualities of oneself. As predicted, our study illustrated that feeling envy toward others is positively associated with distress, which seems to be consistent with the fact that envy may create a negative mood, a feeling of isolation and sadness as mentioned above. Similar findings have been reported by Smith et al. (1999) and Thompson et al. (2015a) to mention a few.

Furthermore, the association between envy and job satisfaction was mediated by distress. Hence, feelings of isolation and sadness due to envy seem to reduce the overall satisfaction at work and thereby prompting the employee to consider other employment. Envy conveys "information that one is not able to control environmental forces that pose threats to one's social standing" thus one way of coping with envy would be to find other employment (Vecchio 2000; Duffy et al, 2008, p. 174). In our study we found that envy was positively associated with propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction. Thus our main prediction was held by our research. Conversely, the Sobel test did also identify a direct effect from envy to job satisfaction, as pointed out by Vecchio (1999, 2005) and Duffy and Shaw (2000).

When experiencing envy as a result of unfavorable comparisons with colleagues, one will be compelled to make some form of response to resolve that particular threat, such as engaging in counterproductive work behavior (Cohen-Charash & Muller, 2007). This dysfunctional response behavior may occur to limit their contribution to the organization. Accordingly, we believe that an unpleasant experience of envy desires the envious person to be able to protect his or her wounded self-esteem by harming his or her counterpart. Hence, envy may be a critical reason for detrimental conflict in the workplace. However, the Sobel test did not support this hypothesis. We found it interesting to see that the relationship between envy and antisocial behavior was significant in other studies (e.g. Mouly & Sankaran, 2002). We assume that our results might have been affected by the small sample size collected for this study as well as other cultural aspects in Norway.

Furthermore, family-life functions as a template for interpreting social relations at work, thus it has many parallels to family-life (Vecchio, 2007). Learned behaviors in family setting, such as respect and defiance toward authority

figures may translate into patterns of workplace behavior (Vecchio, 2007). Patterson, DeBaryshe and Ramsey (1989) assert in their study that families of antisocial children are characterized by harsh and inconsistent discipline, little positive parental involvement with the child, and poor monitoring and supervision of the child activities (Loeber & Dishion, 1983; McCoard, McCoard & Howard, 1963). Based on these statements we believe that the likelihood for exposing antisocial behavior is influenced by the person's upbringing. However, the reported data show that envy is theoretically and practically important, hence we believe that our study has provided a better understanding of the construct of envy and its importance in work context. Explicitly, this thesis confirms that envy has two elements: negative emotional feelings, such as distress and dissatisfaction, and negative comparisons. Our findings should lead to additional studies that explore envy in Norwegian work contexts.

8.2 Strengths and Limitations

This present study has applied data from different work settings in order to test the validity of Vecchio´s theory (1995) and has provided some interesting insights. However, the contributions and findings should also be considered in light of certain limitations as well.

8.2.1. Strengths

By focusing on one context, in this case private sector, it can eliminate alternative sources of error variance. However, data from other contexts such as public organizations should also be examined to see whether the findings in our study are applicable across various contexts. The most notable strength of our study is the finding that envy mediates through distress and job satisfaction on propensity to quit.

The existing research on envy has mainly been based on self-reports and cross-sectional designs (Vecchio, 2007). Consequently, our study collected the data using a cross-sectional design, thus it does not allow us to interpret causality. However, our findings may be explained based on current theory on social comparison. Furthermore, it is a well establish finding that envy lead to distress, so that we may argue that Vecchio´s model is built on good empirical foundation.

Furthermore, using questionnaires will allow the researcher to organize the questions and receive replies without having direct contact with the respondents. Thereby personal influences will be avoided. In addition to being cheap and quick to administer, questionnaires are flexible and structured tools which are easy and convenient for the respondents.

To sum up, our study has empirically demonstrated that when employees experience envy, it has a negative affect on them. Further it has made progress in examining the impact of envy in a work context by using data from various business settings in Norway. Hence, this approach represents an extension of Vecchio´s theory (1995), and as such makes a contribution to the field. Besides this, our study has shown that envy at work has dysfunctional consequences such as making people want to leave their work.

8.2.2 Limitations

Even though questionnaires are practical in many ways, they are time consuming to design and develop, and one limitation is the lack of flexibility of responses (Walliman, 2010). According to Bryman and Bell (2011) questionnaires are said to lack validity and be inadequate to understand some types of information, such as changes in emotions and behavior. The questions are asked after the event, so there might be a possibility that the respondent forget something important, and it is not possible for the researcher to explain any points that might have been misinterpreted. However, conducting a pilot test might solve the last point. Another potential limitation, as mentioned above, is related to the technical error when we collected the data, which reduced the sample size considerably. Hence, in future such error should be considered carefully.

Although self-report studies have many advantages, they also face several disadvantages due the way the respondents generally behave. For instance respondents may be too embarrassed to reveal private details, hence the answers may be exaggerated. As such, various biases may affect the results (i.e social desirability bias). Another limitation of our study is related to the answers being affected by the respondent's mood at the time when the questionnaire was filled out. A good mood would lead to a positive answer, and a bad mood would lead the answers to be negative (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

As noted, we may all once in a while experience envy, however it is unusual to admit feeling envious or talk openly about the causes of such feelings (Cohen-Charash, 2009). Envy and distress are internal emotional states, which have both a hidden affective side and a clear behavioral side (Thompson et al., 2015a). When gathering data on these topics, respondents might therefore evoke in self-defense mechanisms when responding to questions, which is perceived to be grisly. Hence, the possibility of falsification of responses of those studied may exist (Vecchio, 2000; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007). Thereby, researchers should scrutinize how to assess self-defensive responses in the area of envy in future research. Accordingly, there are administrative steps that can be applied to reduce the concern of self-defense to some degree such as emphasizing confidentiality and anonymity as well as informing the respondents that feeling envy is a prevalent and normal emotion (Thompson et al., 2015a).

Our research was conducted throughout several organizational levels and in various industries, however it is not reported if these associations will be reproducible in specific settings, or at all organizational levels. The measures used are often found to be a generalized sense of being envied (Smith et al., 1999). Therefore, it would be useful to examine if the number and depth of these dyadic antagonisms influence global reports of being envied differently, in addition to employee outcomes (Vecchio, 2007).

Lastly, our examination of Vecchio's theory is far from comprehensive, indicating that personality traits, which are included in Vecchio´s theory, might be relevant variables when examining the antecedents and the impact of envy (Thompson et al., 2015a). Whether these will affect our result is unknown, hence this limits our study. However, we believe our attempt to further understand the impact of envy was successfully completed.

8.3 Practical implications

Research on the issues of envy offers ideas and speculations on how to cope with such a dysfunctional emotion. In our study we theorized that one way to cope with envy would be to find other employment. This assumption was supported through our results. Giving the followers a feeling of inclusivity is an effective coping strategy (Vecchio, 1997). This includes praise and recognition, however it is important to make sure that they don't perceive it as a manipulative

gesture. Basically, Vecchio (1997) propose that coping responses that fails to reduce the level of perceived threat will most likely not succeed in preventing the feelings of envy and thereby its negative affect such as finding other employment.

As noted earlier, envy can be viewed as being related to a feeling that one lacks control over events (e.g. reward allocations). From a practical perspective it is important to consider how organizations seek to handle negative emotions. Thompson et al. (2015a) found for instance that a supportive leadership style would limit the likelihood of envy to occur, hence it may probably reduce the level of distress. Thus, supportive leadership style including fostering an open communication might prevent envy in a work setting (Hackman, 2002). By preventing such negative emotions, one can avoid negative effects on one's job satisfaction. Further on, leaders could involve their followers in the decision-making process to increase awareness of how decisions are made and dismiss the belief that decisions are made based upon favoritism (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). This will lead to a feeling of unity, and improvements of the social bonds and satisfy the fundamental human need to belong (Thompson et al., 2015a). As a result feeling of isolation will be reduced.

Accordingly, targets of envy can be positive role models who elicit positive affect in others and in this way motivate others to be successful as they are (Cohen-Charash, 2009). However, similar to envy, interpersonal counterproductive behaviors are related to negative social comparisons that can stem from conflicts between coworkers. This would result in organizational and interpersonal deviance. Current guidelines for reducing interpersonal counterproductive behavior are mostly untested and limited (Thompson et al., 2015a). Hence, further research is needed.

9.0 Future research

The conceptual and empirical literature provides a number of interesting insights into the role of the social emotion of envy at work. The field is just beginning to develop more precise formulation of the role of envy in various processes, and much remains to be done conceptually as well as empirically in terms of understanding antecedents and consequences of workplace envy (Duffy et al., 2008). Our study is a contribution to the field for comprehending envy and

its impact on the employees and the organization. Additionally, one area that holds great promise for understanding antecedents of envy lies in considering recent work on social comparisons in an organizational context.

Future research should gather data from various contexts in order to test the validity of the model. As a modification of the model was conducted, the new model should be replicated by using a different sample even though the result contradicted our hypothesis regarding the connection between envy and antisocial behavior. Beside this, our participants were originated from several industries and worked at different levels in the organizations. Additionally, the participants were from different cultural backgrounds. As predicted above we believe cultural backgrounds and person´s upbringing can affect the relation between envy and antisocial behavior. As stated by Vecchio (2007), learned behaviors in family settings may easily translate into patterns of workplace behavior, thus worklife has many parallels to family life. Hence, future research should investigate the role of cultural values in the proposed relationships by conducting cross-cultural studies.

Furthermore, the selection of coping responses are influenced by employees, work units and cultural attributes (Vecchio, 1995). However, it is yet not possible to predict which coping technique is likely to occur and give maximum effect in a given setting (Vecchio, 2000). Moreover, if managing envy is avoided, it can lead to more destructive responses such as aggression and property damage (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Vecchio, 2000). Hence, behavioral coping responses to envy are another potential area for future research.

Finally, in addition to these perspectives, we see several other specific potential avenues for future research. Vecchio (2005) conceptualize envy in two ways; envy toward others and being envied by other. Our study is based on the former approach, however we believe the latter approach should be included in future research to test the validity of our model. Even though those who outperform others enjoy a special status at the workplace, they may also experience discomfort and unease due to their concerns of how their achievements are perceived by others (Exline & Geyer, 2003). Empirical evidences show that outperformers are subject to envy (e.g. Vecchio, 2005). Although Schaubroeck and Lam (2004) reported that the higher the initial liking of the ultimate/eventual

promote, the less the non-promoted person like the person after he or she was promoted. However, Vecchio (2005) found in his study that people who are envied experience less negative affect than the enviers.

Furthermore, Henagan and Bedeian (2009) argued and found that the outperformers had a complicated relationship with being the target of upward social comparisons due the experience of discomfort. They tend to respond by presenting themselves in a humble way and engage in behaviors aimed to avoid the situation such as leaving the room when the subject came up (Duffy et al., 2008). Additionally, Henagan and Bedeian (2009) reported that as a result of being the target and being uncomfortable with it, individuals intentionally reduced their level of performance to allow someone else to do better so that they would not be threatened. Hence, avoid future upward social comparisons. Notably, the authors stated that when the envied act in a more modest fashion, they do not do so because they feel "sorry" for the envying individual, but rather because they wish to reduce their own discomfort. As such it may be interesting to develop our model by adding/replacing a new variable (i.e. performance) to investigate the above assumption.

Moreover, Menon and Thompson (2007) showed that people exaggerate the extent to which they are envied by others, thus behave in adverse ways towards others such as through avoidance and condescension. This would create an environment where others fulfill one´s expectations by engaging attitude and actions that degrade one's relationships with them (Duffy et al., 2008). This means by believing that they are envied, people help create such conditions. Accordingly, Duffy et al. (2008) suggest that researchers need to consider "how people seek to enhance their own self images by imaging envy where it may not exist" (p.181).

10.0 Conclusion

Envy can be a damaging emotion at the workplace, especially when it goes undetected, and certain level of emotional distress may be a normal byproduct of organizational life. Regardless of this, the managers need to understand the dynamics of emotional aspect to manage the employees effectively and to prevent undesired outcomes.

In our study we found envy to be positively associated with propensity to quit, through distress and job satisfaction. Additionally we also found envy to have an indirect effect on propensity to quit via job satisfaction. However this effect did not prove to be stronger. As hypothesized the results revealed envy to have significant direct association with distress and job satisfaction.

Due to the negative effect of envy, we included a new output variable, antisocial behavior to the model suggested by Vecchio (1995) with the expectation to find a significant relationship. Unfortunately, our result did not support our expectation. However, we hope our research and analysis arouse greater attention to workplace envy in the research literature and inspires researchers to study workplace envy at multiple levels (individual, group and organizational), both from the perspective of the envier and the envied, and through the sight of different constituencies such as subordinates, supervisors and executives.

References

Abiodun, A. J., Oyeniyi, O., & Osibanjo, O. A. (n.d.). Job satisfaction and intention to leave of Nigerian salesmen. *Department of Business Studies*. Covenant University

Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 90(1), 195-208.

Bers, S. A., & Rodin, J. (1984). Social-comparison jealousy: A developmental and motivational study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *47*(4), 766.

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

Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of applied psychology*, *35*(5), 307.

Braun, S., Aydin, N., Frey, D., & Peus, C. V. (2015, January). Leader Narcissism Predicts Followers' Malicious Envy and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2015, No. 1, p. 16115). Academy of Management.

Brislin, R. W., Lonner, W. J., & Thorndike, R. M. (1973). *Cross-cultural research methods* (pp. 32-58). New York, NY: J. Wiley.

Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(2), 139-145. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.73.2.139

Bruk-Lee, V., & Spector, P. E. (2006). The social stressors-counterproductive work behaviors link: Are conflicts with supervisors and coworkers the same? Journal of occupational health psychology, 11(2), 145.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press, USA.

Carrell, M. R. and Dittrich, J. E. (1978). Equity Theory: The Recent Literature, Methodological Considerations, and New Directions. E. Academy of Management

Carsten, J. M., & Spector, P. E. (1987). Unemployment, job satisfaction, and employee turnover: A meta-analytic test of the Muchinsky model. *Journal of Applied psychology*, *72*(3), 374.

Cavusgil, S. T., & Das, A. (1997). Methodological issues in empirical cross-cultural research: A survey of the management literature and a framework. *MIR: Management International Review*, 71-96.

Cohen-Charash, Y. (2000). Envy at work: a preliminary examination of antecedents and outcomes. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley.

Cohen-Charash, Y. (2009). Episodic envy. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *39*(9), 2128-2173. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00519.x

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Mueller, J. S. (2007). Does perceived unfairness exacerbate or mitigate interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors related to envy?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(3), 666-680. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.666

Curry, J. P., Wakefield, D. S., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). On the causal ordering of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(4), 847-858. doi:10.2307/255951

DePaulo, P. J., & DePaulo, B. M. (1989). Can Deception by Salespersons and Customers Be Detected Through Nonverbal Behavioral Cues? 1. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 19(18), 1552-1577.

Dogan, K., & Vecchio, R. P. (2001). Managing envy and jealousy in the workplace. *Compensation & Benefits Review*, *33*(2), 57-64.

Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the

workplace. *Academy of management Journal*, *45*(2), 331-351.

Duffy, M. K., Scott, K. L., Shaw, J. D., Tepper, B. J., & Aquino, K. (2012). A social context model of envy and social undermining. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(3), 643-666. doi:10.5465/amj.2009.0804

Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2000). The Salieri Syndrome: Consequences of envy in groups. *Small Group Research*, *31*(1), 3-23. doi:10.1177/104649640003100101

Duffy, M. K., Shaw, J. D., & Schaubroeck, J. M. (2008). Envy in organizational life. *Envy: Theory and research*, 167-189.

Erdil, O., & Müceldili, B. (2014). The Effects of Envy on Job Engagement and Turnover Intention. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *150*, 447-454.

Exline, J. J., & Geyer, A. L. (2003). Who's afraid of being envied? Trait and demographic correlates of STTUC discomfort. In *Poster presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Los Angeles, CA*.

Fein, S., & Spencer, S. J. (1997). Prejudice as self-image maintenance: Affirming the self through derogating others. Journal of personality and Social Psychology, 73(1), 31.

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., & 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.

Gächter, S., & Thöni, C. (2010). Social comparison and performance: Experimental evidence on the fair wage–effort hypothesis. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, *76*(3), 531-543.

Gatz, M., & Hurwicz, M. (1990). Are old people more depressed? Cross-sectional data on Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale factors. *Psychology And Aging*, *5*(2), 284-290. doi:10.1037/0882-7974.5.2.284

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

Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Greenberg, L., & Barling, J. (1999). Predicting employee aggression against coworkers, subordinates and supervisors: The roles of person behaviors and perceived workplace factors. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20(6), 897-913.

Gruber, J. E. (1989). How women handle sexual harassment: A literature review. Sociology and Social Research, 74(1), 3-9.

Hackman, J. R. (2002). *Leading teams: Setting the stage for great performances*. Harvard Business Press.

Hair, Jr. J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, J. B., & Anderson, R. E (2014). *Multivariate data analysis.* Pearson Education Limited. 7th edition. Edinburgh.

Harper, D. (1990). Spotlight abuse-save profits. Industrial distribution, 79(3), 47-51.

Heider, F. (1958). The psychology of interpersonal relations New York Wiley, 1958.

Hellman, C. M. (1997). Job satisfaction and intent to leave. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *137*(6), 677-689.

Henagan, S. C., & Bedeian, A. G. (2009). The Perils of Success in the Workplace: Comparison Target Responses to Coworkers' Upward Comparison Threat1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *39*(10), 2438-2468.

Hom, P. W., Griffeth, R. W., & Sellaro, C. L. (1984). The validity of Mobley's (1977) model of employee turnover. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, *34*(2), 141-174.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Articles*, 2.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological methods*, *3*(4), 424.

Johns, G. (1997). Contemporary research on absence from work: Correlates, causes and consequences. International review of industrial and organizational psychology, 12, 115-174.

Johnson-Laird, P. N., & Oatley, K. (1989). The language of emotions: An analysis of a semantic field. *Cognition and emotion*, *3*(2), 81-123.

Judge, T. A.. (1994). Review of *Job Satisfaction: How People Feel about Their Jobs and How It Affects Their Performance*. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *39*(1), 186–189.

Khan, A. K., Peretti, J. M., & Quratulain, S. (2009). Envy and counterproductive work behaviors: is more fairness always preferred. In *20th AGRH Conference (9th-11th Septembre 2009, Toulouse, France) of the French-speaking HR/OB Research Scholarly Association*.

Kenny, D. A., & McCoach, D. B. (2003). Effect of the number of variables on measures of fit in structural equation modeling. *Structural equation modeling*, *10*(3), 333-351.

Kidwell, R. E., & Bennett, N. (1993). Employee propensity to withhold effort: A conceptual model to intersect three avenues of research. Academy of management review, 18(3), 429-456.

Knorz, C., & Zapf, D. (1996). Mobbing—eine extreme Form sozialer Stressoren am Arbeitsplatz. *Zeitschrift für Arbeits-und Organisationspsychologie*.

Kulik, J. A., & Brown, R. (1979). Frustration, attribution of blame, and aggression. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 15(2), 183-194.

Landau, J., & Hammer, T. H. (1986). Clerical employees' perceptions of intraorganizational career opportunities. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(2), 385-404. doi:10.2307/256194

Lazarus, R. S., & Cohen-Charash, Y. (2001). Discrete emotions in organizational life. *Emotions at work: Theory, research and applications for management*, *4584*.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer publishing company.

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.

Lim, M., & Yang, Y. (2015). Effects of users' envy and shame on social comparison that occurs on social network services. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *51*, 300-311.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The Nature and Consequences of Job Satisfaction. *M. Dunnette (De). Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Rand Mc Nally*.

Loeber, R., & Dishion, T. (1983). Early predictors of male delinquency: a review. *Psychological bulletin*, *94*(1), 68.

Marsh, H. W., Balla, J. R., & Hau, K. T. (1996). An evaluation of incremental fit indices: A clarification of mathematical and empirical properties. *Advanced structural equation modeling: Issues and techniques*, 315-353.

McCoard, J., McCoard, W., & Howard, A. (1963). Family interaction as antecedent to the direction of male aggressiveness. The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 66(3), 239.

McGurn, M. (1988). Spotting the thieves who work among us. Wall Street Journal, 7(March), A16.

Menon, T., & Thompson, L. (2007). Don't hate me because I'm beautiful: Self-enhancing biases in threat appraisal. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *104*(1), 45-60.

Menon, T., & Thompson, L. (2010). Envy at work. *Harvard business review*, *88*(4), 74-79.

Miceli, M., & Castelfranchi, C. (2007). The envious mind. *Cognition and emotion*, 21(3), 449-479.

Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of applied psychology*, *62*(2), 237.

Mouly, V. S., & Sankaran, J. K. (2002). The enactment of envy within organizations insights from a New Zealand academic department. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *38*(1), 36-56.

Neuman, J. H., & 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.

Özkoç, A. G., & Çaliskan, N. (2015). The Impact of Organizational Envy on Organizational Climate Created among Employees: An Application in Accommodation Enterprises. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *10*(1), 40.

Parrott, W. G., & Smith, R. H. (1993). Distinguishing the experiences of envy and jealousy. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, *64*(6), 906-920. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.64.6.906

Patterson, G. R., DeBaryshe, B. D., & Ramsey, E. (1989). A developmental perspective on antisocial behavior (Vol. 44, No. 2, p. 329). American Psychological Association.
ISO 690

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of management*, *12*(4), 531-544.

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., & 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.

Salovey, P., & Rodin, J. (1984). Some antecedents and consequences of social-

comparison jealousy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *47*(4), 780.

Schaubroeck, J., & Lam, S. S. (2004). Comparing lots before and after: Promotion rejectees' invidious reactions to promotees. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *94*(1), 33-47.

Shields, M. A., & Ward, M. (2001). Improving nurse retention in the National Health Service in England: the impact of job satisfaction on intentions to quit. *Journal of health economics*, *20*(5), 677-701.

Silver, M., & Sabini, J. (1978). The perception of envy. *Social Psychology*, 105-117.

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.

Smith, R. H. (1991). Envy and the sense of injustice. The psychology of jealousy and envy, 79-99.

Smith, R. H., & Kim, S. H. (2007). Comprehending envy. *Psychological Bulletin*, *133*(1), 46-64. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.133.1.46

Smith, R. H., Kim, S. H., & Parrott, W. G. (1988). Envy and jealousy semantic problems and experiential distinctions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *14*(2), 401-409.

Smith, R. H., Parrott, W. G., Diener, E. F., Hoyle, R. H., & Kim, S. H. (1999). Dispositional envy. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25(8), 1007-1020.

Spector, P. E. (1975). Relationships of organizational frustration with reported behavioral reactions of employees. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60(5), 635.

Spector, P. E. (1978). Organizational frustration: A model and review of the literature. Personnel Psychology, 31(4), 815-829.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment,

turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. Personnel psychology, 46(2), 259-293

Thompson, G., Glasø, L., & Martinsen, Ø. (2015a). Antecedents and Consequences of Envy. *The Journal of social psychology*, (just-accepted).

Thompson, G., Glasø, L., & Martinsen, Ø. (2015b). The relationships between envy and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes at work. *Scandinavian Journal of Organizational Psychology*, *7*(1).

Tziner, A., Rabenu, E., Radomski, R., & Belkin, A. (2015). Work stress and turnover intentions among hospital physicians: The mediating role of burnout and work satisfaction. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*. Netanya Academic College, Israel, 31(3), 207-213.

Vardi, Y., & Wiener, Y. (1996). Misbehavior in organizations: A motivational framework. *Organization science*, *7*(2), 151-165.

Vecchio, R. P. (1995). It's not easy being green: Jealousy and envy in the workplace. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management.* Volume 13. 201-244. Stanford, CT: JAI Press Inc.

Vecchio, R. P. (1997). Categorizing coping responses for envy: A multidimensional analysis of workplace perceptions. *Psychological reports*, *81*(1), 137-138.

Vecchio, R. P. (2000). Negative emotion in the workplace: Employee jealousy and envy. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *7*(3), 161-179.

Vecchio, R. (2005). Explorations in employee envy: Feeling envious and feeling envied. *Cognition & Emotion*, *19*(1), 69-81.

Vecchio, R. P. (2007). Cinderella and salieri in the workplace: The envied and the envier. In: S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, and D. P. Skarlicki (eds.), *Managing social and ethical issues in organizations*, pp. 109-134. Information Age.

Veiga, J. F., Baldridge, D. C., & Markóczy, L. (2014). Toward greater understanding of the pernicious effects of workplace envy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(17), 2364-2381. doi:10.1080/09585192.2013.877057

Walliman, N. (2010). *Research methods: The basics*. Routledge.

Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental

health. Journal of occupational Psychology, 63(3), 193-210.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. Journal of personality and social psychology, 54(6), 1063.

Weston, R., & Gore, P. A. (2006). A brief guide to structural equation modeling. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *34*(5), 719-751.

Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2013). *Business Research Methods.* Cengage learning.

Attachments

Appendix 1 – Questionnaire

Nedenfor er en liste over **følelser** du kan ha hatt på jobb. Angi hvor ofte du har følt det på denne måten i løpet av **det siste året**.

Envy

Utsagn:	Aldri	Unntaksvis	Sjelden	Av og til	Ofte
1. De fleste andre medarbeiderne har det bedre enn meg.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Min leder verdsetter andres innsats mer enn han/hun verdsetter min.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Jeg kan ikke tenke meg at jeg noensinne vil få et så godt oppdrag som visse jeg har sett.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Jeg vet ikke hvorfor, men det virker som om jeg er den underlegne i gruppen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Det er litt irriterende å se at det alltid er andre som er så heldige å få de beste oppdragene.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Distress

Utsagn:	Sjelden eller ikke i det hele tatt	En del eller litt av tiden	Av og til eller moderat del av tiden	Ofte eller hele tiden
1. Jeg ergret meg over ting som jeg vanligvis ikke ergrer meg over.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Jeg hadde ikke matlyst.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Jeg følte at jeg var like bra som andre.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Jeg hadde problemer med å konsentrere meg om det jeg holdt på med.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Jeg følte meg nedtrykt.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Jeg sov urolig.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Jeg var glad.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Jeg snakker mindre enn vanlig.	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Jeg følte meg ensom	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Folk var uvennlige.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Jeg følte meg trist	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Jeg kunne ikke komme i gang.				

Job Satisfaction

Utsagn:	Helt uenig	Delvis uenig	Litt uenig	Verken enig eller uenig	Litt enig	Delvis enig	Helt enig
1. Alt i alt er jeg tilfreds ed jobben min.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.Generelt liker jeg ikke jobben min.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.Generelt liker jeg å jobbe her	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Quit

Utsagn:	1 Helt uenig	2	3	4	5	6	7 Helt enig
1. Så snart jeg kan finne en bedre jobb, kommer jeg til å forlate min nåværende jobb.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.Jeg søker aktivt etter ny jobb i en annen organisasjon.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.Jeg tenker alvorlig på å slutte i jobben min.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Jeg tror jeg kommer til arbeide i dette firmaet om fem år.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Jeg tenker ofte på å slutte i jobben min	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Nedenfor er en liste over **hendelser** som kan ha oppstått på jobb. Angi hvor ofte du har opplevd dette i løpet av

Antisocial behavior

Utsagn:	Svært sjeldent	Sjelden	Noen ganger	Ofte	Svært ofte
1. Skadet eiendeler som tilhører min arbeidsgiver.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Sagt eller gjort noe for å såre noen på jobben med vilje.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Utført en jobb dårlig, feil eller langsomt med vilje.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.Sytt med kollegaer.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Bevisst tøyd eller brutt en regel/regler	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Kritisert folk på jobben.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Gjort noe som skadet min arbeidsgiver eller sjef.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Startet en krangel med noen på jobben.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Sagt uforskammede ting om min leder eller organisasjon	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 2 - Preliminary Master Thesis Report

Preliminary Master Thesis Report

- Envy and its relation to affective and behavioral responses at the workplace-

Supervisor:

Geir Thompson

Hand-in date:

15.01.2016

Campus:

BI Oslo

Exam code and name:

GRA 1902 – Preliminary thesis report

Program:

Master of science in Leadership and Organizational Psychology

Table of Content

Summary i

1.0 Introduction 1

2.0 Research Question 4

3.0 Constructs and hypothesis 5

4.0 Research model 11

5.0 Method 11

5.1 Participants 11

5.2 Procedure 12

5.3 Translation and pilot test 12

5.4 Measures 12

6.0 Further direction and plan 13

References 14

Summary

This study is based on Vecchio´s theory of envy and aims to get a broader understanding of how the concept is connected to employee´s intent to leave the organization. In the first part of this paper, related empirical evidence and theoretical background is being discussed. In the second part our hypotheses will be presented followed by methodological issues including a description of participants, data collection procedures and measures for each variable. In the end our future plan for the process is presented.

1.0 Introduction

Most people experience envy from time to time, however it is unusual for a person to admit feeling envious, as well as admit how this envious feeling influences his or her behavior. Expressing and admitting envy is often viewed as shameful, hence the feeling of envy may go undetected. Envy has a powerful influence on behavior and can negatively affect the individual's performance level, satisfaction level and in some cases, lead to more severe outcomes, in worst case, murder (Vecchio, 1995; Smith & Kim, 2007). An example of this is in *Othello* by Shakespeare where one character murders the other due to envy, misunderstandings and suspicions (Vecchio, 1995). The concept of workplace envy has received increased attention in psychological research, and this increased attention may be a result of most organizations wanting to create and foster competitive environments in which coworkers are often differentially rewarded (Duffy, Shaw & Schaubroeck, 2008; Menon & Thompson, 2010; Veiga, Baldridge, Markóczy, 2014).

In an effort to become more efficient and profitable, many organizations systematically reduce their staff. However, this approach does not always achieve the desired result of increased productivity and long-term profits. The remaining employees after such downsizing often fear losing their job in the future and tend to be suspicious of personnel-related decision making within the organization (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). In addition, employees feel threatened by the management and their coworkers because of the question of who may be the next to go. This threat can easily generate competitive behavior among employees. At some point, these negative feelings will influence the quality of work because the feelings will cause stress and undermine the ability to work collaboratively. Furthermore, when an employee becomes extremely distressed and feels there is no constructive response, he or she may react by requesting a transfer or quitting the organization (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). According to Dogan & Vecchio (2001) envy stem from a sense of insecurity since they are reactions to a perceived threat. In today's business climate, there are numerous influences that contribute to an uncertain work-environment. Many organizations undergo actions to remain competitive, which in some can cases can foster employee envy (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). Vecchio (2005) also demonstrate that competition among co-

workers increases the likelihood of experiencing envy as a consequence of competitive outcomes, which in turn promote increased social comparison (cited in Thompson, Glasø & Martinsen, 2015b).

People often evaluate themselves and others from social comparisons. Envy along with shame, guilt, contempt, pride amongst other emotions and feelings, emerges as a person develops elementary understanding of a sense of self and others (Vecchio, 2007) and to experience envy, a sense of others is necessary to compare. Work events such as promotions, pay increases, bonuses, recognitions, allocation of office space or simply praise from the manager makes the workplace a fertile ground for envious feelings and spontaneous social comparisons (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Vecchio, 2005). Managers are often unaware of the unintended consequences of their actions in triggering envy when comparing individuals to identify and reward superior performance (Veiga et al., 2014). According to Fisher, Kastenmüller, Frey and Peus (2009), envy reduces the envier´s willingness to share high quality work knowledge with the person envied, which increases the attempts to undermine them (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002; Veiga et al., 2014). Given the tendencies of most organizations to create and foster competitive environments in which coworkers are often differentially rewarded, it is not surprisingly that workplace envy is unexceptional. Moreover, envy has been found to have profound effects on the people experiencing it as well as the people who are targets of it (Vecchio, 2005). Thereby, one may argue that envy in itself has a strong influence on people's behavior in general.

The experience of envy has been conceptualized in three different ways. Firstly envy is conceptualized as *situational,* which focus on the general envy of others in an environment, for example work environment, that includes multiple comparators (Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper & Aquino, 2012), secondly as *dispositional,* which focus on the general tendency to feel envious of others (Smith & Kim, 2007) and lastly as *specific and episodic,* which involves a specific individual as a referent (Cohen-Charash, 2009). In this study, we focus on the first conceptualization, where individuals make unpleasant comparisons with others. Further on, Vecchio (2005) conceptualize envy in two ways; *envy towards others* and *being envied by others.* The present paper focuses on envy toward others, by scrutinizing employees' own comparison with their colleagues. When

feeling envy toward others, one may in some cases experience ill will towards the other person in addition to just wanting what he or she has (Cohen-Charash, 2009).

Recent research explores how aspects of the workplace, such as reward systems (Vecchio, 2000; 2005) and managerial style (Vecchio, 1995; 2005), may trigger envy among co-workers, however, there is also an increased interests to explore how envy affects organizational outcomes, such as performance and propensity to quit (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Vecchio, 2007). Vecchio (1995) argue that most research on envy is based on a familiar and romantic context, hence cannot be easily transformed into work/organizational setting, due to the environmental context.

This paper wishes to use the model proposed by Vecchio (1995) as a framework for our study. The model addresses the variables that influence envy. Firstly, *Employee Attributes,* which includes factors such as gender, in-group status, external locus, work ethic and self-monitoring. Secondly, *Work Unit Attributes,* which include the unit size, competitive rewards, job rotation and job autonomy amongst others. Thirdly, *Organizational and National Culture Attributes* that include employee participation norms, cooperative norms and collectivist norms (Vecchio, 1995). Envy is connected to personal response dependent variables, which include affective and behavioral response variable. The *primary affective response* includes feelings of anger and resentment while the *secondary affective response* includes emotions of job dissatisfaction, fear, sense of rejection and depression. *The behavioral coping response* includes denial/avoidance, seek support, improve the relationship with target or develop alternative coping responses such as social loafing (Vecchio, 1995; Thomson, Glasø & Martinsen, 2015a).

Another interesting point that Vecchio (2000) drew attention to is the connection between negative emotions in the workplace and stress. Many researchers have shown that stressful events can evoke negative emotions at work (e.g Lazarus, 1991, 1993, 1998; Cooper, Dewe & O`Driscoll, 2001; Feldman, Cohen, Lepore, Matthes, Kamarck & Marsland, 1999). According to Lazarus (1993), common negative emotional responses to stress include *annoyance, anger, anxiety, fear, sadness* and *grief* to mention a few. However, this list is not

complete. In his analyses of stress-emotion relations, Lazarus (1991, 1995) mentions five other negative emotions that is considered important reactions to stressful events; *guilt, shame, envy, jealousy* and *disgust.* According to Vecchio (2000) envy is a negative emotion, which has tremendous effects on employee and on organizational outcomes (Vecchio, 2000). The perception that envy is an emotional state caused by an employee´s self-perceived inability to control an event i.e. reactions to social threats, is sufficient to evoke a stress reaction (Vecchio, 2000). Selye (1979) and Matteson and Ivancevich (1987), viewed stress as "a type of psychological and emotional arousal in response to a situation that constitutes a perceived threat to one's well-being" (Vecchio, 2000 p.163). Based on this, we choose to treat envy as a negative emotion that arouse from social threat, both real and imagined.

Although envy related reactions receives some empirical attention in the social psychological literature, further research is needed to get a broader picture to understand the effect envy has on organizational and employee outcomes. This is mainly due to the fact that envy can go undetected by both leaders and employees, since it is seen as an unpleasant feature (e.g. Vecchio, 1995). Based on Vecchio's theory the present study seeks to examine the variables that is associated with envy in the workplace. In doing so, we have chosen to use distress and job satisfaction as a secondary affective response to envy (Vecchio, 1995). In addition the current thesis wishes to find out whether there is a connection between envy and stress, as proposed by Vecchio (1995, 2000), and how this connection will affect individuals propensity to quit. The latter would be our main contribution to the literature.

In the next following sections the main concepts and hypothesis will be further discussed based upon empirical evidence, followed by our research question.

2.0 Research Question

"How is envy associated with affective and behavioral responses in work context, and how is it associated with employees´ propensity to quit through stress?"

3.0 Constructs and hypothesis

Envy is seen to be a complex emotion, which consists of other emotions, such as hatred (Johnson-Laird & Oatley, 1989; Cohen-Charash, 2009), desire, entitlement (Bers & Rodin, 1984; Cohen-Charash, 2009), longingness, self-criticism, dissatisfaction, and self-awareness (Smith, Kim, & Parrott, 1988; Cohen-Charash, 2009). Stated differently, envy is considered as both very unpleasant and very reprehensible (Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007). Due to the lack of a distinct theoretical framework for defining envy, many researchers have suggested definitions to the concept, however most definitions is grounded in Vecchio's theory (Vecchio 1995). Vecchio (1995) defined envy as "A pattern of thoughts, emotions and behaviors that results from the loss of self-esteem in response to another obtaining outcomes that one strongly desires" (p. 206). Further on, Parrott and Smith (1993) argue that envy occurs "when a person lacks another's superior quality, achievement or possession and either desires it or which that the other lacked it" (p. 906). As mentioned in the introduction, envy occurs mostly when people compare themselves to others and is a universal emotion that has been found in most cultures and is felt by most people (Smith, Parrott, Diener, Hoyle & Kim, 1999). In a work setting, individuals tend to compare their benefits, advantages and salaries with colleagues through formally and informally mechanisms. More specifically, a crucial role in envy is played by social comparisons (Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007). As a consequence of unfavorable comparisons, the person who is envy of others will probably constantly ask him- or herself questions such as "Why him/her and not me?" Furthermore, it has been indicated that envious people engage in counterproductive interpersonal work related behaviors due to their perception of unfair situation (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007).

When researching envy it might be necessary to look at the concept of jealousy, due to the close connection between these aspects. Although envy and jealousy often are used interchangeably in everyday language, the social psychology literature on emotion in the workplace clearly distinguishes between these concepts (Vecchio, 1995). One way to distinguish between jealousy and envy is that "Envy concerns what we would like to have, but do not have, while jealousy concerns what we have, but fear to loose" (Van Sommers, 1988; Vecchio

1995, p. 205). Even though people use these terms back and forth, it is important to understand that envy can exist without feelings of jealousy, while jealousy is often connected to envy (Vecchio 1995). Both envy and jealousy stem from a sense of insecurity because they are reactions to a perceived threat (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001). In addition to Vecchio (1995), Smith and Kim (2007) also distinguished between envy and jealousy where the two terms differed in numbers and perception of people involved. That is, envy involves two people where one lacks something another enjoys, whilst jealousy involves three people and occurs when a person fears to lose something to another person. Furthermore, Smith and Kim (2007) claimed that since envy contains self-threatening feelings of inferiority and hostility, and is socially repugnant, people tend to not acknowledge feeling envy, either publicly or privately, and they will often cope with their fears about the implications of them feeling envious.

Cohen-Carash (2000), as part of a study of the antecedents and consequences of workplace envy, found that the stronger the reported envy, the greater the incidence of negative actions taken toward the envied target. Such as hurting the target, sabotaging the target´s work and reputations, and withholding assistance and cooperation. Furthermore, envy has been associated with greater anxiety, depression, hostility, fatigue and confusion (Thompson et al., 2015a). The absence of empirically based attention on workplace envy may be partly due to the difficulties associated with studying an issue that is inherently distasteful. Individuals look at envy as something unpleasant as well as something that is potentially unavoidably; hence, people are embarrassed to acknowledge these kinds of strong and negative emotions toward others (Vecchio, 1995).

Prior research has shown that individuals are envious because they want to be better than others, and not just better off. As a consequence of such attitude, these people experience a relative distress when others achieve more than they do (Veiga et al., 2014). According to Vecchio (1995) distress is an affective response to envy and may encourage an unfortunate focus on one's shortcomings (Thompson et al., 2015a). Vecchio’s theory suggest that envy is related to primary affective responses (emotional responses) such as anger and resentment, which is in most cases followed by secondary affective responses such as fear, sense of rejection, depression and distress. Warr (1990) and Watson, Clark and Tellegen

(1988) indicate that even though distress is an affective state, such as job satisfaction, it is characterized as more than just feeling unhappy at work. It includes feelings of depression and anxiety, which are the primary dimensions of negative affect and mood. Thompson et al. (2015a), found that envy was positively correlated with distress that supports the assumption that envy creates a negative mood *"feeling of isolation and sadness"* (Thompson et al., 2015a p. 18*)*. Accordingly, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Envy is positively associated with distress.

Within empirical studies, job satisfaction is considered as an overall feeling about the job or as a related set of attitudes about various aspects of the job. A generally accepted definition of this concept is "Job satisfaction refers to one's cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional), and behavioral responses to one's job, as assessed by one's evaluation of job features or characteristics, emotional responses to events that occur on the job, and job-related behavioral intentions" (Tziner, Rabenu, Radomski & Belkin, 2015). It is concluded that job satisfaction is a combination of cognitive and affective reactions to the differential perceptions of what an employee wants to receive compared with what he or she actually receives (Judge, 1994). Studies on consequences of envy in work-settings indicate that envy is negatively associated with job satisfaction (Duffy & Shaw, 2000; Vecchio, 2005, 2007). This relationship was also supported by Vecchio (2000, 2007). Thus, feeling envy is associated with higher level of job dissatisfaction. Distress is an affective response to envy, which further can have an affect on job satisfaction due to the fact that distress may encourage an unfortunate focus on personal shortcomings and make it difficult to see the positive or admirable qualities of oneself (Thompson et al., 2015a). Hence, reduce the level of job satisfaction at work. Based on this, we would like to examine the relationship between envy and distress as a secondary affective response to envy:

Hypothesis 2: Envy is negatively associated with job satisfaction via distress.

In the field of organizational behavior, scholars are focusing on investigating a number of aspects of emotions at work. This is not surprising because organizations are composed of people and people have emotions. Differentiation for instance promotes competition among coworkers and foster greater feelings of envy (Erdil & Müceldili, 2014). Hence, envy can lead to negative outcomes (Erdil & Müceldili, 2014) such as propensity to quit. The term *propensity to quit* refers to an employee´s willingness to leave the organization. Research has supported the finding that propensity to leave is predictive of actual turnover (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984). Intent to leave (propensity to quit), on the other hand is consequently considered as an outcome of affective variables, such as job satisfaction (Hellman, 1997). Although the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave is generally thought to be negative (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Tett & Meyer, 1993), the magnitude of this relationship is not consistent within the available literature. One explanation of this assumption might be related to influence of other personal or situational factors. This was supported by Locke, (1976) where he noted that significant level of the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave has not been especially high, usually less than .40, and it is probable that other variables mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and the act of quitting (Mobley, 1977).

Workplace envy was found to be correlated with lower job satisfaction, distress, and propensity to quit (Vecchio, 2000; Thompson et al., 2015a). Dogan & Vecchio (2001) argue that when an employee becomes extremely distressed at work and feel no constructive response, he or she may react by requesting a transfer or quitting the employment. Hence, acknowledging envy at work is vital.

According to Hellman (1997), increased dissatisfaction among employees would result in higher chance for them to consider other employment opportunities. In his study of US non-nursing workers, the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave was found to be significantly different from zero and consistently negative. Similar result was also found in a study conducted by Shields and Ward (2001) and many others; intention to quit is negatively linked to job satisfaction. As Locke, Hellman (1997) also states that other variables may mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and the act of quitting, even though this relationship is mostly found to be significant in the

literature. Therefore, we would like to examine the relationship between envy and propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction that is assumed to have a significant effect on propensity to quit. Hence, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Envy is indirectly and positively associated with propensity to quit via distress and job satisfaction.

Stress in the workplace is undoubtedly an important issue to study, because of its consequences, which may affect the organization and its employees in a negative way (Tziner et al, 2015). Dogan and Vecchio (2001) argue that envy can be best viewed as stress-related reactions. As mentioned above, although envy is a difficult emotion that arises in "stressful" circumstances, itself causes increased stress. High levels of stress can impair an employee´s performance and result in negative behavioral and attitudinal work outcomes (Fried, Shirom, Gilboa & Cooper, 2008; Tziner et al, 2015). Hence, stress is connected to negative emotions in the workplace and the feeling of being stressed can affect employees` health, well-being and organizational productivity (Cooper, Liukkonen & Cartwright, 1996; Sutherland & Cooper, 1990; Cooper, Dewe & O´Driscoll, 2001).

According to Cooper et al. (2001) stress is "an ongoing process that involves individuals transacting with their environments, making appraisals of those encounters, and attempting to cope with the issues that arise" (p. 12), and is explained to be a relationship between the environment and the person (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1987; Lazarus, 1990). The feeling of losing control, deficient rewards or feeling insecure of one's job situation are examples of issues that can be seen as psychological stressors. Psychological stressors are a risk to people's physical and psychological health (Mark & Smith, 2008), which again may lead to lack of productivity, absence and propensity to quit (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998). Stressors are proven to be sources of strain on the individual (Cooper et al., 2001) and occur when the pressure on an individual exceeds the individual's capacity to cope (Stranks, 2005). Stress can affect people in different

ways, and the long-term effects that stress has on an organization, is important to consider. Ongoing stress among employees can lead to absenteeism and turnover, distrust of management, lack of organizational commitment and reduction in performance (Stranks, 2005).

Threat is proven to be experienced as a type of stress (Locke & Taylor, 1990; Vecchio, 2000). The perception of a threat is connected to evoking a stressful reaction, thus stress is an emotional arousal in response to a situation where the person perceives some sort of threat to his or her well being (Vecchio, 2000). As mentioned, envy is an emotional state aroused by a person's self-perceived ability to control events, which is a reaction to a social threat (Vecchio, 2000). This state may lead to a feeling of helplessness, which is seen to be a consequence of stress. Thus, the stress literature acknowledges that stress is a result of a threat that is experienced by an individual. Likewise envy is also known to be a response to social threats. Vecchio (2000) and other researchers state that there is a link between envy and stress but there is a lack of research on this particular relationship. Hence, we suggest following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Feeling of envy is positively related to stress.

Envy is seen to be an unpleasant and negative emotion that can be associated with both physical and psychological pain (Duffy, 2012; Erdil & Müceldili, 2014). This type of pain leads to frustration and stress in the workplace. When the stress experienced by individuals everyday cannot be handled in an effective way, these individuals find turnover to be a tempting solution (Erdil & Müceldili, 2014). Researches show that employees´ job dissatisfaction and interest in finding a new job increases with higher levels of felt envy towards others, which is a part of workplace stress (e.g. Vecchio, 2005). However, it is important to note that not all stress is bad stress; some people need the pressure of feeling some level of positive stress to accomplish something more effectively. It is the negative stress that needs to be considered (Stranks, 2005). There is a strong relationship between stress and intentions to quit, as well as actual turnover (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Avey, Luthans & Jensen, 2009), and several studies found that stress is an important predictor of propensity to quit

(Coomber & Barriball, 2007). In a study conducted by Yongqing Fang (2001) stress was found to be a significant predictor when thinking about quitting a job. This study confirmed the anticipation that stress is an important factor for nurses to turnover, and held an 8.5 percent out of all the 41 percent of the turnover predictors. Hence, following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 5: Envy will be indirectly associated with employees' propensity to quit via stress.

4.0 Research model

5.0 Method

Based on our intention of the study we have chosen to use *cross-sectional research design.* In a cross-sectional study various segments of a population is sampled and the data is collected in a single point in time (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013).

5.1 Participants

The goal of the study is to examine the hypotheses 1 to 5, which focus on how envy will be associated with propensity to quit via certain selected variables;

distress, job satisfaction and stress. The study focuses on one group of respondents from various business settings in the private sector in Norway. We will approach medium to large organizations by contacting the company´s Human Resource manager by email. We aim to have a minimum of 350 respondents to get a valid and reliable result (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2014), and to hold the premise of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM analysis).

5.2 Procedure

Questionnaires will be used in this research and sent to the Human Resource manager by e-mail. The questionnaire will be electronically distributed only once. In order to improve the response rate, a reminder will be sent after about two weeks. A cover letter explaining the purpose of study is to get a better understanding of some of the issues that impact the employees at work, and ensuring confidentiality will be included.

5.3 Translation and pilot test

All questionnaires were originally developed in English. In the purpose for avoiding the risk for misunderstanding or misconception and to ensure equivalence of item meaning, the questionnaires were put through a back-translation conversion process (Brislin, Lonner & Thorndike, 1973; Cavusgil and Das, 1997). In addition, a pilot testing of the questionnaires with a focus on four respondents who is not a part of the final study will be put through. This will be done in the aim see whether the items and formatting are clear or not.

5.4 Measures

Envy will be measured by using the scale from Vecchio (2005) on a scale from 1-7 (1=never, 7=often). Items will include: “Most of my coworkers have it better than I do” and “I don't know why, but I seem to be the underdog at work”.

Job satisfaction will be measured by using six items scale by Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986) and Brooke, Russel and Price (1988), which was adapted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951). The scale range from 1-5 (1=Strongly agree, 5=Strongly disagree). Sample items: “I find real enjoyment in my job”, “I like my job better than the average worker does”.

Distress will be measured by a twelve-item scale (Gatz & Hurwicz, 1990). Sample items will be: “I felt depressed” and “I had trouble keeping my mind on what I was doing”. (1=Rarely or not at all, 2=Some or little of the time, 3=Occasionally or moderate amount of time, 4=Often or all the time).

Propensity to quit will be measured by using a five-item scale that is adapted from Landau and Hammer (1986). The scale rate is 1-7 (1=Strongly disagree, 5=Strongly agree). Sample items will be: “As soon as I can find a better job, I´ll leave” and “I am thinking about quitting my job”.

Stress will be measured by using a seven-item perceived stress scale (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983). (0=never, 1= almost never, 2=sometimes, 3=fairly often, 4=very often). It will include sample items like: “”How often have you felt nervous and stressed?” and “How often have you felt that things were going your way?”

6.0 Further direction and plan

The next step is to send the questionnaires to collect the data. The plan is to send them in the middle of February. We will use the time until March to gather methodological knowledge from other similar studies and materials. Hopefully, we will receive the data during the first week in March and start with conducting data analysis.

References

Avey, J. B., Luthans, F., & Jensen, S. M. (2009). Psychological capital: A positive resource for combating employee stress and turnover. *Human Resource Management*, *48*(5), 677-693. doi:10.1002/hrm.20294

Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of applied psychology*, *35*(5), 307.

Brislin, R. W., Lonner, W. J., & Thorndike, R. M. (1973). *Cross-cultural research methods* (pp. 32-58). New York, NY: J. Wiley.

Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(2), 139-145. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.73.2.139

Cavusgil, S. T., & Das, A. (1997). Methodological issues in empirical cross-cultural research: A survey of the management literature and a framework. *MIR: Management International Review*, 71-96.

Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., & Mermelstein, R. (1983). A global measure of perceived stress. *Journal of health and social behavior*, 385-396.

Cohen-Charash, Y. (2000). Envy at work: a preliminary examination of antecedents and outcomes. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley.

Cohen-Charash, Y. (2009). Episodic envy. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *39*(9), 2128-2173. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00519.x

Cohen-Charash, Y., & Mueller, J. S. (2007). Does perceived unfairness exacerbate or mitigate interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors related to envy?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(3), 666-680. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.666

Coomber, B., & Barriball, K. L. (2007). Impact of job satisfaction components on

intent to leave and turnover for hospital-based nurses: A review of the research literature. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, *44*(2), 297-314. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2006.02.004

Cooper, C. L., Dewe, P. J., & O'Driscoll, M. P. (2001). *Organizational stress: A review and critique of theory, research, and applications*. Sage.

Curry, J. P., Wakefield, D. S., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). On the causal ordering of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(4), 847-858. doi:10.2307/255951

DeFrank, R. S., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1998). Stress on the job: An executive update. The Academy of Management Executive, 12(3), 55-66.

Dogan, K., & Vecchio, R. P. (2001). Managing envy and jealousy in the workplace. *Compensation & Benefits Review*, *33*(2), 57-64.

Duffy, M. K., Scott, K. L., Shaw, J. D., Tepper, B. J., & Aquino, K. (2012). A social context model of envy and social undermining. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(3), 643-666. doi:10.5465/amj.2009.0804

Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2000). The Salieri Syndrome: Consequences of envy in groups. *Small Group Research*, *31*(1), 3-23. doi:10.1177/104649640003100101

Erdil, O., & Müceldili, B. (2014). The Effects of Envy on Job Engagement and Turnover Intention. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *150*, 447-454.

Fang, Y. (2001). Turnover propensity and its causes among Singapore nurses: An empirical study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *12*(5), 859-871. doi:10.1080/09585190110047875

Feldman, P. J., Cohen, S., Lepore, S., Matthews, K., Kamarck, T. W., & Marsland, A. L. (1999). Negative emotions and acute physiological responses to stress. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, *21*(3), 216-222. doi:10.1007/BF02884836

Fried, Y., Shirom, A., Gilboa, S., & Cooper, C. L. (2008). The mediating effects of job satisfaction and propensity to leave on role stress-job performance relationships: Combining meta-analysis and structural equation modeling. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *15*(4), 305.

Gatz, M., & Hurwicz, M. (1990). Are old people more depressed? Cross-sectional

data on Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale factors. *Psychology And Aging*, *5*(2), 284-290. doi:10.1037/0882-7974.5.2.284

Hair, Jr. J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, J. B., & Anderson, R. E (2014). *Multivariate data analysis.* Pearson Education Limited. 7th edition. Edinburgh.

Hellman, C. M. (1997). Job satisfaction and intent to leave. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *137*(6), 677-689.

Hom, P. W., Griffeth, R. W., & Sellaro, C. L. (1984). The validity of Mobley's (1977) model of employee turnover. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, *34*(2), 141-174.

Judge, T. A.. (1994). Review of *Job Satisfaction: How People Feel about Their Jobs and How It Affects Their Performance*. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *39*(1), 186–189. http://doi.org.ezproxy.library.bi.no/10.2307/2393502

Landau, J., & Hammer, T. H. (1986). Clerical employees' perceptions of intraorganizational career opportunities. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(2), 385-404. doi:10.2307/256194

Lazarus, R. S. (1990). Theory-based stress measurement. *Psychological Inquiry*, *1*(1), 3-13. doi:10.1207/s15327965pli0101_1

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. *American psychologist*, 46(8), 819.

Lazarus, R. S. (1993). From psychological stress to the emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *44*1-21. doi:10.1146/annurev.ps.44.020193.000245

Lazarus, R. S. (1998). From psychological stress to the emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Personality: Critical Concepts in Psychology*, 4, 179.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The Nature and Consequences of Job Satisfaction. *M. Dunnette (De). Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Rand Mc Nally*.

Mark, G. M., & Smith, A. P. (2008). Stress models: A review and suggested new direction. *Occupational health psychology*, 3, 111-144.

Matteson, M. T., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1987). *Controlling work stress.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Miceli, M., & Castelfranchi, C. (2007). The envious mind. *Cognition and emotion*, 21(3), 449-479.

Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of applied psychology*, *62*(2), 237.

Parrott, W. G., & Smith, R. H. (1993). Distinguishing the experiences of envy and jealousy. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, *64*(6), 906-920. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.64.6.906

Selye, H. (1976). *The stress of life.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Shields, M. A., & Ward, M. (2001). Improving nurse retention in the National Health Service in England: the impact of job satisfaction on intentions to quit. *Journal of health economics*, *20*(5), 677-701.

Smith, R. H., & Kim, S. H. (2007). Comprehending envy. *Psychological Bulletin*, *133*(1), 46-64. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.133.1.46

Smith, R. H., Parrott, W. G., Diener, E. F., Hoyle, R. H., & Kim, S. H. (1999). Dispositional envy. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25(8), 1007-1020.

Stranks, J. (2005). "*Stress at Work: Management and prevention*". Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. Personnel psychology, 46(2), 259-293

Thompson, G., Glasø, L., & Martinsen, Ø. (2015a). Antecedents and Consequences of Envy. *The Journal of social psychology*, (just-accepted).

Thompson, G., Glasø, L., & Martinsen, Ø. (2015b). The relationships between

envy and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes at work. *Scandinavian Journal of Organizational Psychology*, *7*(1).

Tziner, A., Rabenu, E., Radomski, R., & Belkin, A. (2015). Work stress and turnover intentions among hospital physicians: The mediating role of burnout and work satisfaction. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*. Netanya Academic College, Israel, 31(3), 207-213.

Vecchio, R. P. (1995). It's not easy being green: Jealousy and envy in the workplace. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management.* Volume 13. 201-244. Stanford, CT: JAI Press Inc.

Vecchio, R. P. (2000). Negative emotion in the workplace: Employee jealousy and envy. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *7*(3), 161-179.

Vecchio, R. (2005). Explorations in employee envy: Feeling envious and feeling envied. *Cognition & Emotion*, *19*(1), 69-81.

Vecchio, R. P. (2007). Cinderella and salieri in the workplace: The envied and the envier. In: S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, and D. P. Skarlicki (eds.), *Managing social and ethical issues in organizations*, pp. 109-134. Information Age.

Veiga, J. F., Baldridge, D. C., & Markóczy, L. (2014). Toward greater understanding of the pernicious effects of workplace envy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*(17), 2364-2381. doi:10.1080/09585192.2013.877057

Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. Journal of occupational Psychology, 63(3), 193-210.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. Journal of personality and social psychology, 54(6), 1063.

Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2013). *Business Research Methods.* Cengage learning.