

## THE EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT OF WORKPLACE ENVY ON INDIVIDUAL OUTCOMES OF COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE: THE ROLE OF SELF-CONTROL

## İŞYERİNDE KISKANÇLIK DUYGUSUNUN BİREYSEL SONUÇLAR OLARAK ÜRETKENLİĞE AYKIRI ÇALIŞMA DAVRANIŞLARI VE BAĞLAMSAL PERFORMANS ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİNİN İNCELENMESİ: ÖZ-DENETİM ALGISININ ROLÜ

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### ÖZ

*Bu çalışmada, işyerinde üretkenliğe aykırı çalışma davranışlarının (ÜAÇD) ve çalışanların bağlamsal performanslarının öncelleri bireysel psikososyal değişkenler bağlamında incelenmiştir. Literatür araştırması ve kuramsal arka plan değerlendirmeleri neticesinde, ÜAÇD'nı ve bağlamsal performansı açıklayabilecek değişkenler arasında bir psikososyal yapı olarak çalışanların işyerinde algıladığı kıskançlık duygusunun olabileceği görülmüştür. Bununla birlikte, işyerinde kıskançlık algısının ÜAÇD üzerindeki etkisinin birtakım durumsal faktörlere göre değişebileceği öne sürülerek, çalışanların öz-denetim düzeylerinin şartlı (düzenleyici) bir değişken olarak rolünün olabileceği varsayılmıştır. Araştırma İstanbul ilinde sağlık, eğitim, yüksek öğretim (akademik), satış-pazarlama ve banka-finance kurumlarında çalışmakta olan bireyler üzerinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Elde edilen verilere (N=330) keşfedici faktör analizi uygulanmış ve hipotezleri test etmek üzere çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bulgulara göre çalışanların hissettiği iş yerinde kıskançlık duygusunun (haset ve gıpta olmak üzere) üretkenlik karşıtı çalışma davranışları ve bağlamsal performansları üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi bulunmaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, bireylerin öz-denetim düzeyinin işyerinde kıskançlık duygusunun alt boyutu olan haset ile ÜAÇD üzerindeki etkisinde düzenleyici rolü olduğu, öz-denetim düzeyi yükseldikçe, haset duygusunun ÜAÇD üzerindeki etkisinin azaldığı görülmüştür.*

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Üretkenliğe Aykırı Çalışma Davranışları, Bağlamsal Performans, İş Yerinde Kıskançlık, Öz-Denetim, Duygusal Olaylar Teorisi.

**Jel Kodları:** M19

### ABSTRACT

*In this study, the predispositions of counterproductive work behaviors (CPWBs) in the workplace and contextual performance of employees were examined in terms of individual psychosocial variables. As a result of the literature research and theoretical background evaluations, it can be seen that there may be a sense of envy perceived in the workplace as a psychosocial structure among the variables that can explain the CPWBs and contextual performance. On the other hand, it is assumed that the effect of envy perception in the workplace on CPWBs and contextual performance may vary according to some situational factors and it can be assumed that degree of employees' self-control may have a contingent (moderating) role. The research was carried out on the individuals working in health, education, higher education (academic), sales-marketing and bank-finance institutions in*

*Istanbul. Exploratory factor analyses were performed on the data obtained (N = 330) and multiple regression analyses were performed to test hypotheses. According to the findings, the sense of envy (malicious and benign) at the workplace felt by the employees has a significant effect on the counterproductive work behaviors and contextual performance in the workplace. In addition, it was observed that the degree of self-control in the workplace had a moderating role on the influence of individuals' malicious feeling of envy on CPWBs. As such, it was seen that as the degree of self-control of employees increases, the influence of the sense of malicious envy on CPWBs decreases.*

**Keywords:** Counterproductive Work Behaviors, Contextual Performance, Workplace Envy, Self-Control, Affective Events Theory

**Jel Codes:** M19

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Emotions in workplace settings are one of the main topics in the literature of organizational behavior. It is a well-known fact that emotions are impulses which direct an individual's life. Therefore, it is important to understand our emotions with a view to controlling individual's reactions. Nevertheless, it is not enough to simply understand own feelings. The ability to recognize and understand the feelings of others also matters considerably. As long as we can manage the feelings of ourselves and others, we are better able to cope with the changes and challenges in organizational life. Thus, it is indubitably true that emotions in organizational life provide important insights into the way in which individuals in organizations behave (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002; Bakken, 2011). Emotions as a source of impulse are complex subjective states and can act as motivators or triggers of human activity towards a certain goal. To illustrate, some individual-based emotions such as envy, admiration or contempt can only be understood if they are reflected in one's behavior (Poggi and Germani, 2003). That is, it is quite useful to observe behaviors in order to understand our own and others' feelings. It has been argued that the emotions in organizations play an important role in many workplace behaviors and it is claimed that emotions can explain the reasons for a variety of negative behaviors (Spector, Fox and Domagalski, 2006; Penney and Spector, 2008; Bauer and Spector; 2015). Among these negative behaviors, a counterproductive work

behavior (CPWB) is the behavioral response of an employee to other employees in an organization or to the organization itself as a result of negative emotions based on a specific and meaningful unfair/unfavorable event (Barclay, Skarlicki, and Pugh, 2005). In this respect, malicious workplace envy is the antecedent suggested in order to explain CPWBs. Furthermore, self-control was also considered to be important in organizations with regard to the relationship between malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior.

It is obvious that CPWBs are an important organizational outcome that needs to be examined. In sum, the research questions of this study can be presented by the following research questions:

Question1: Do the employees in organizations show counterproductive work behaviors?

Question2: Are workplace malicious envy and self-control the factors that explain to the counterproductive work behaviors of the employees?

On the other hand, contextual performance is one of the valuable dimensions in effective organizations. Generally, contextual performance refers to activities that are not task or goal specific but that make individuals, teams and organizations more effective and successful. At this point, as being an individual factor, workplace benign envy is suggested to be an antecedent of contextual performance. An

envious employee may work harder to achieve his goal of obtaining what others have, and thus, it is expected that his work motivation is enhanced, and he is willing to learn from envied targets (Van de Ven, Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2009). Thus, since successful employees can be an inspiration to benign envious employees in an organization, such envy can be a triggering factor for improving contextual performance in organizational settings. Within this context, the research questions of this study can be presented by the following research questions:

Question3: Do employees show contextual performance behaviors?

Question4: Is benign envy the factor that is related to the contextual performance behaviors of the employees?

In sum, this research investigates the individual factors affecting individual and organizational outcomes as well as psychosocial factors.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1. The Concept of Counterproductive Work Behavior

Today, the business world has become a single market. The competition has increased as among organizations, which in turn increased the problems in working relationships, work conditions, and overall organizational life. For instance, flexibility, increased insecurity and work overload, and competitive pressures observed in social relations in a company due to fear of dismissal are among the emerging problems in this field (Çetin and Fıkrkoca, 2010; Sezici; 2015). On this basis, the relationship between employee and organization is rather important with regard to employee performance and total workplace productivity because, employees with negative attitudes towards their organizations can display behaviors undesirable for businesses, and thus, new problems arise that businesses need to deal with, and organizations have to come up

with suggestions to solve these problems. Otherwise, the negative attitudes and behaviors of the employees might cause serious problems that threaten the organizational life for both employees and the business (Polatçı and Akdoğan 2014; Demir, Ayas and Yıldız, 2018). These dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors are an expensive phenomenon for an organization, costing billions of dollars per year, as well as human-related costs such as low morale and turnover (Greenberg, 1998; Frost, 2003).

Human behavior is a function of the interaction between the person or individual, and his or her environment (Nadler, Hackman and Lawler, 1979). Balthazard, Cooke, and Potter (2006) have defined dysfunctional behaviors in the workplace as deviant behaviors that negatively affect employees, suppliers, and customers and which are reflected in the overall organizational performance. Dysfunctional behavior can spread from individual to team and become deleterious to organizational performance (MacKenzie, Garavan and Carbery, 2012) because such behaviors are observable on a number of levels. Besides, dysfunctional behavior refers to conduct that violates the work code of ethics and regulations, which can negatively affect work relations and the overall performance inside organizations (Peterson, 2002). Therefore, dysfunctional behavior is regarded as a serious problem that requires the awareness of management and the implementation of the proper procedures for tackling such sources of dysfunction (Van Fleet and Van Fleet, 2012; MacKenzie, et al.; Ramzy, Bedawy and Maher, 2018). Employees may signal dissatisfaction and/or engage in harmful behaviors in an organization due to various reasons, and these behaviors are costly to both individuals and organizations (Bennett and Robinson, 2003). So-called dysfunctional or destructive behaviors range from relatively mild forms (e.g., ignoring colleagues or coming in late) to relatively severe forms (e.g., physically attacking colleagues or sabotaging

equipment) and in the literature, these are the so-called counterproductive work behaviors (CPWBs).

CPWBs, often termed deviant behavior, is a component of job performance. Fox and Spector (2005) have defined CPWBs as the spectrum of actions that harm employees or organizations, and discussed it within job performance. Also, task and organizational citizenship behavior concepts are important for CPWBs. However, as a result of increasing focus on CPWBs, it has become a separate concept that needs to be discussed. These behaviors cause detrimental effects on both organizations (e.g. low productivity, increased insurance costs, lost or damaged property and increased turnover) and employees (e.g. increased dissatisfaction and job stress) (LeBlanc and Kelloway, 2002; Penney and Spector, 2002; Hafidz, Hoesni and Fatima, 2012). CPWBs is not workplace incivility, or actions that diverge from any organizational norm (Bunk and Magley, 2013). CPWBs and workplace incivility are similar in that they affect organizational citizenship behavior, organizational trust and contextual performance negatively, and both concepts increase turnover intention and turnover rates, anger and aggression, and decrease belief in self-determination and prosocial workplace behavior (Taştan, 2014). However, CPWBs has three features that separate it from workplace incivility. Firstly, CPWBs consists of volitional actions that harm or intend to harm organizations and/or their stakeholders such as clients, co-workers, customers, and supervisors. Generally, an employee performs the action with the objective of harming the organization. For instance, he or she neglects work by talking on the phone or takes an exceptionally long break (Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Fox and Spector, 1999; Conlon, Meyer and Nowakowski, 2005). Secondly, CPWBs is purposeful. This is the key characteristic of counterproductive action. Thus, it is not the same as purposeful accidents such as the unintended result of an unskilled employee's action. Thirdly, CPWBs targets

the organization (also called organizational CPWBs; e.g., sabotage) or its stakeholders (also called interpersonal CPWBs; e.g., aggression toward colleagues) (Conlon, Meyer and Nowakowski, 2005). Also, according to the meta-analysis results of Dalal (2005), interpersonal CPWBs and organizational CPWBs are significantly related. In the light of this information, CPWBs can be defined as “any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (Sackett and De Vore, 2001, p.145). Similarly, according to Spector and Fox (2002), CPWBs is defined as volitional employee behavior that is intended to harm the organization and its members, and that poses threats to effective organizational functioning (Spector and Fox, 2002).

The deviant behaviors which are known as dysfunctional or out of norm, are pervasive and costly both to organizations and to employees. In a lot of research, CPWBs is considered to be work behavior characteristics that are deliberate, intended to cause harm to the organization and its employees, and in some cases can result in workplace homicide (Gruys and Sackett, 2003; Spector and Fox, 2005; Campbell, 2012). In the literature, there are various definitions and conceptualizations that evaluate this perspective in a broad sense: antisocial behavior (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1997); workplace deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 1995); employee vice (Moberg, 1997); organizational misbehavior (Vardi and Wiener, 1996); workplace aggression (Baron and Neuman, 1996), organizational retaliation behavior (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997); noncompliant behavior (Puffer, 1987); organization-motivated aggression (O’Leary- Kelly, Griffin and Glew, 1996); organizational delinquency (Hogan and Hogan, 1989); abusive (Keashly Trott, and MacLean 1994); mobbing/bullying (Mathisen, Einarsen and Mykletun, 2011). In both domestic and foreign literature, these kinds of behaviors have been defined as CPWBs in recent years. The common idea in all

definitions is that these antisocial behaviors are intended, conscious and planned. Furthermore, the reasons for these behaviors which contain hostility or aggression, stem from negative emotions such as frustration and anger in the social-psychological environment of the person.

Moreover, according to social cognitive theory, anticipated consequences are at the heart of the self-regulatory mechanisms that determine transgressive actions. It means that an individual predicts to what extent the envisaged behavior would violate the moral standards of significant others, so-called anticipated social sanctions, and their own moral standard, so-called anticipated self-sanction, before the individual attempts a behavior (Bandura, 1991a, 1991b). Due to social sanction, the individual will abstain from behaviors that may lead to social censure or other undesirable social consequences. Also, due to self-sanction, people will refrain from behaviors that they think will violate their own internalized, moral standards, through the prediction of decreased self-respect and increased self-reproach. Hence, Social cognitive theory helps us to clarify the nature of CPWBs by means of anticipated social and self-sanctions (Warren and Smith-Crowe, 2008; Zimmerman, 2008).

At the same time, Lazarus (1991) supports an emotion-centered model in his cognitive appraisal model of emotions and claims that CPWBs is an employee's behavioral response to the negative emotions (e.g. anger, shame, guilt) that result from a specific and meaningful unfair/unfavorable event, such as a layoff decision (Barclay et al., 2005). Spector and Fox (2005) point out that the stressor-emotion model explains that CPWBs is based on integrating human aggression and occupational stress and this model claims that CPWBs are a response to emotion-arousing situations in organizations. Moreover, the stressor-emotion model also states that both anger and many forms of negative emotions play a causal role in unfolding of CPWBs (Khan, Peretti and Quratulain, 2009).

Further, employees can exhibit malicious, harmful or dysfunctional behaviors towards organization or stakeholders, consistent with social exchange studies. Social exchange can be defined as deliberate actions that are performed by individuals or groups with the expectation that other parties will act in a similar fashion (Blau, 1964). In social interactions, it is argued that individuals are inclined to feel an obligation to reciprocate in a manner that they were confronted with (Song, Tsui and Law, 2009). Therefore, CPWBs may be understood within the framework of Social Exchange Theory (SET). An employee who confronts negative events in turn has a tendency to negative behavior and this causes CPWBs. In addition, an employee's feeling of equity and approach of restorative justice is a cause of CPWBs.

According to the CPWBs typology of Robinson and Bennett (1995), such behaviors are divided into interpersonal CPWBs and organizational CPWBs. Firstly, organizational-CPWBs is toward organization and aims to damage the goals, norms, and itself of organization in terms of costs by way of fraud, failure to meet deadlines, and poor quality work (Aube, Rousseau, Mama, and Morin, 2009). Secondly, individual-CPWBs are observed in an individual's actions such as retaliation, sabotage, revenge, personal theft, and aggression (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). Also, less helpful behaviors, less volunteering for tasks and less supportive behavior towards a co-worker or team may even be accepted as interpersonal-CPWBs (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998).

CPWBs is a cluster of behaviors that include various kinds of dysfunctional, damaging or destructive behaviors. In this context, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) identify almost 64 types of such workplace behaviors under the umbrella of CPWBs and classify them into five chief categories (Spector et al., 2006). According to Spector and his associates, the first category is abuse against others. The second category is production deviance, which refers to

intentionally performing one's assigned tasks incorrectly or allowing an error to occur. The third category is sabotage, which aims to disrupt the organizational function/order or mislead it by deliberately destroying the property belonging to the organization or employer. The fourth category is theft, or act of stealing. It refers to illegally taking the personal goods or possessions of another. Finally, the fifth category is withdrawal, which is related to avoiding work, being late, or absent (Spector et al., 2006).

## 2.2. The Concept of Contextual Performance

In recent years, contextual performance has become desirable behavioral pattern in the workplace because of improving to organization. To date, a number of studies have examined job performance (E.g., Murphy, 1989; Campbell, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager, 1993; Conway, 1999) and researchers agree that performance has to be considered a multi-dimensional concept. Basically, job performance is divided into two aspects: a process aspect of performance (i.e., behavioral) and an outcome aspect of performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, et al., 1993; Roe, 1999) and has two dimensions called task performance and contextual performance. In sum, the behavioral aspect refers to what people do while at work, the action itself (Campbell, 1990). Performance encompasses specific behavior (e.g., sales conversations with customers, teaching statistics to undergraduate students, programming computer software, assembling parts of a product). This conceptualization implies that only actions that can be scaled (i.e., counted) are regarded as performance (Campbell et al., 1993). Moreover, this performance concept explicitly only describes as performance, behavior which is goal-oriented, i.e. behavior which the organization hires the employee to do well (Campbell et al., 1993). On the other hand, the outcome aspect refers to the result of the individual's behavior. The actions described above

might result in contracts or selling numbers, students' knowledge in statistical procedures, a software product, or numbers of products assembled (Sonntag, Volmer and Spsychala, 2010). Also, task performance can be defined as the tasks mentioned in the job description and necessary to accomplish the duties. Accordingly, all work to be done by the employees on the requirements of the job is defined as in-role performance behavior (Williams and Anderson, 1991). In light of this information, contextual performance is different from these performance dimensions, with behaviors such as volunteering, helping, persisting predicted by personality factors related to individual differences in motivational characteristics and tendency (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Contextual activities include volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job and helping and cooperating with others in the organization to get tasks accomplished (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). According to another definition, contextual performance is defined as the act of doing a job while interacting with coworkers, supervisors and customers, as well as demonstrating self-disciplined behavior, persistence to work and willingness to put more effort on the job voluntarily (Aniefiok, Vongsinsirikul, Suwande and Jabutay, 2018).

It has been demonstrated that contextual performance could be influenced by three antecedent concepts. Initially, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) introduced a concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). It refers to a set of discretionary workplace behaviors that exceed one's basic job requirements. This extra-role discretionary behavior is intended to help others in the organization or to demonstrate conscientiousness in support of the organization (Organ, 1988). Especially, the dimension of altruism of OCB is neither prescribed nor required; yet it contributes to the smooth functioning of the organization (Jahangir, Akbar and Haq, 2004). Secondly, prosocial organizational behavior (POB)

was illustrated by Katz (1964). In general, it is a positive discretionary behavior which describes the willingness of workers to both fulfil and go beyond formal job requirements, such as volunteering for activities outside the usual job role; putting in extra effort, representing the organizational favorably, helping customers with personal matters, etc. (Hyde, Harris, and Boaden, 2013). In this perspective, prosocial behaviors encompass role-prescribed and extra-role behaviors (Hazzi and Maldaon, 2012). Thirdly, a model of soldier effectiveness was developed by Borman, Motowidlo, Rose and Hanser (1987). Soldier effectiveness is not directly related to task performance but related instead to a broader conception of job performance. According to them, being a good soldier from the Army's perspective means more than just performing the job in a technically proficient manner. As a result, contextual performance is based on these concepts and is similar to them: organizational citizenship behavior, prosocial organizational behavior and the model of soldier effectiveness.

While Borman and Motowidlo (1993) are examining this concept, they enumerate five categories of contextual performance. First, they emphasize volunteering for activities beyond a person's formal job requirements. Second, they highlight persistent enthusiasm and application from an organization's members when needing to complete important task requirements. Third, it is important to help and cooperate with others in the organization. Fourth, employees have to follow organizational rules and prescribed procedures even when it is inconvenient. Finally, organization's members are expected to endorse, support, and openly defend organization objectives.

Basically, contextual performance, which involves behaviors that deviate from an employee's job description, consists of two types of behaviors, namely, interpersonal facilitation behavior and job dedication behavior (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). First, interpersonal facilitation behaviors, such as altruism, sportsmanship

and civil behaviors are connected with interpersonal orientation of an employee and the connection has directly an impact on contribution to an organization's goal achievement. Besides, such interpersonal acts will lead to the job satisfaction of an employee. Incidentally, social exchange theory supports this relationship. According to the theory, if an employee finds a balance between what they give and receive in a social exchange, he or she will be satisfied with his or her job and thus, they will "give back" by supporting co-workers with tasks, encouraging others to overcome difficulties, praising coworkers and volunteering to help. Second, job dedication is another type of behavior of contextual performance. Such types of behavior are related to the self-discipline of the individual. According to Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), job dedication is the inspirational underpinning of job performance. Employees whose level of job dedication is at high level promote the organization's best interests.

### **2.3. The Concept of Workplace Envy**

Human beings are the most complex entities on the face of the earth. Undoubtedly, what makes them so complex is their emotions, feelings and cognitions. All these play a role in determining the life conditions of humans because different emotions, feelings and cognitions are what trigger behaviors (Hussain, Shafi, Saeed, Abbas, Awan, Nadeem and Rahman, 2017). Generally, emotions are intense feelings that are directed at someone or something and they lead to reactions to a person (seeing a friend at work may make you feel glad) or event (dealing with a rude client may make you feel angry). The emotions that come about as a result of a specific event are very brief in duration (seconds or minutes) and specific and numerous in nature (many specific emotions such as anger, fear, sadness, happiness, disgust, surprise). Usually, they have distinct facial expressions and are action-oriented in nature (Robbins and Judge; 2005, cited in Erdem, 2015). Here, envy is one of those emotions that lead to certain behavioral

outcomes. Envy refers to a painful emotion. Many philosophers thought on the nature of envy, and Immanuel Kant described it as the “tendency to perceive with displeasure the good of others.” (Immanuel Kant). Similarly, Aristotle, Aquinas, Adam Smith, Schopenhauer and Nietzsche thought along similar lines with Kant on envy. They claimed that envy is a destructive and diseased state of mind that harms not only the envier, but those whom the envy is directed towards, and society as a whole. Moreover, envy is an insidious emotion because it is difficult to admit even to oneself (Epstein, 2003). It is also not easy for individuals to manage this denied emotion because it is socially unacceptable. Therefore, this discomforting emotion leads to attempts of concealment and denial (Menon and Thompson, 2010). In fact, it is an emotion based on social comparison with others and typically, comes from a feeling of deprivation on the part of the person. The individual asks for a material or spiritual favor that someone else enjoys (Miceli and Castelfranchi, 2007; Smith and Kim, 2007). In addition, the psychoanalytic perspective, which was the first to develop a psychological theory of envy, maintains that envy includes angry feeling of frustrated longing, and this emotion can lead to the impulse to take the desired object away or to spoil it (Klein, 1957). This natural, human emotion is commonly experienced (Apthorpe, Bernard, Bock, Brogger, Brown and Freeman, 1972).

Similarly, strong emotions like envy have a powerful effect on employees in the contemporary workplace (Vecchio, 2000; Patient, Lawrence and Maitlis, 2003) since most people spend a very large part of their lives at work. Thus, there is a frequent interaction among employees and high levels of interdependence with each other beyond work or task boundaries (Horn and Horn 1982; Frost, 2003). In an organization, each employee has his or her own personality characteristics, emotions, norms, and values. While positive emotions among employees play an important role in organizational outcome such as higher

motivation, better performance, organizational citizenship, organizational trust, and loyalty (Denison, 1996), negative ones lead to fear, hatred, grudge, envy, stress, burnout, mobbing, job leaving, etc. Envy, which is one of the negative feelings in an organizational setting, creates work related outcomes in the organizational attitudes and behaviors of employees both theoretically and empirically. Employee envy is a mental, sensual, and behavioral pattern that is the result of lacking self-esteem or disappointing social comparisons in the workplace (Tesser, 1991; Vecchio, 2000). In the workplace, employees compare benefits and salaries via formal and informal mechanisms. If there are differences between one and others, the employee feels envy towards colleagues (Erdil and Muceldili, 2014). Indeed, while employees are physically and mentally close to each other, social comparisons and envy will be inevitable.

Envy may be clarified by several theories. The supporting theory for envy is Festinger’s Social Comparison Theory. Leon Festinger, a social psychologist, published his article “A Theory of Social Comparison Processes” in the *Journal of Human Relations* in 1954. He asserts that each person naturally experiences social influence processes and some kind of competitive behavior. In the meantime, each person has a drive to evaluate his or her opinions and abilities (self-evaluation) by comparing with other persons around them. That is, individuals try to assess their social and personal value based on how they stack up against others. Here, the direction of comparison is rather important; it can be either upward or downward. Festinger’s theory states that downward comparison happens when he compares himself with others who are worse than him, while upward comparison happens when the person compares himself with others who are better than him. It is such upward comparisons in particular that often lead to the emotional experience of envy. There is a gap between oneself and the other. The person desires to reduce this gap

by narrowing it since he or she has a desire to equal, imitate or surpass the excellence attained by the other person (McGrath, 2011). This can be achieved by moving oneself up to the level of the other, or by pulling the other down to one's own position. Otherwise, this conflict can turn into envy because of a feeling of lack or dissatisfaction. An unsuccessful upward social comparison which leads to destructive intrapersonal emotions decreases well-being and is a threat to self-esteem and self-worth (Wheeler and Miyake, 1992; Suls, Wheeler and Martin, 2002). Ultimately, one of the destructive intrapersonal emotions can be envy (Vecchio, 2000; Bagozzi, 2006).

Further, envy can be explained by Affect Events Theory (AET). AET explains how emotions have an effect on employees' behavior. AET demonstrates that employees react emotionally to things that happen to them at work and that this reaction influences their job performance and satisfaction (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Glomb, Steel and Arvey, 2002). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggest that work events trigger cognitive assessments, which then influence the intensity of the effective reaction to the event. For this reason, the events in the workplace lead to positive and negative influences on employees. The emotional experiences of employees in the past or the recent past determine their organizational behaviors in the present. Besides, Lazarus (1966) argues in "The Approach of Cognitive Assessment" that AET involves emotional reactions in the workplace that will affect attitudes and behaviors (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996; Basch and Fisher, 2000). For instance, if the perception of an employee's managerial support is less than a colleague's, the employee's emotions or moods will be shaped in this context. In summary, AET offers two important messages. Firstly, emotions provide valuable insights into understanding employee behavior. The AET model demonstrates how workplace hassles and uplifts have an impact on employee

performance and satisfaction. Secondly, employees' emotions and the events that cause them shouldn't be ignored because they accumulate even minor ones. Then, according to this theory, envy, which is a destructive emotion, has an important role in an employee's psychological wellbeing at work.

In summary, there are many reasons why an employee might envy another employee such as competing for scarce resources, desiring important projects, wishing employee had the personal characteristics or skills of another that employee may lack, or losing a promotion to someone else (Duffy, Shaw and Schaubroeck 2008; Menon and Thompson, 2010; Veiga, Baldrige and Markóczy, 2014).

So far, envy has been explained as a maladaptive, dark or hostile emotion but conceptually, envy has two types of origin: "Benign" and "Malicious". Similarly, Gershman has also categorized it as competitive and destructive (Eslami and Arshadi, 2016). While envy in the workplace has been primarily thought to lead to negative organizational outcomes and destructive workplace behaviors according to researchers who accept the psychological perspective, those who accept the social comparison perspective have claimed that envy in the form of an admiration emotion can lead to more positive, brighter, constructive and productive workplace behaviors. However, ideas about two types of envy differ in relevant aspects. Benign envy is free of ill will (Smith and Kim, 2007). Employees who experience benign envy show some positive feelings and respect others' achievements and, are willing to learn (Shu and Lazatkhan, 2017).

Especially psychological theorists do not accept that the distinction between types of envy is based upon the presence or absence of hostility. According to them, envy is already a component of hostility and so, it cannot be thought without hostility (Rawls, 1971; Foster, Apthorpe, Bernard, Bock, Brogger, Brown and Freeman, 1972; Neu,

1980, Smith and Kim, 2007). Even if envy without hostility sees another person's superiority with pleasure and admiration, despite this lack of hostility, benign or competitive envy also still contains the pain or frustration caused by another's superiority (Van de Ven et al., 2009).

On the other hand, social comparison theorists have discussed the subject in terms of motivation. Envy in the workplace acts in two ways: "moving-up" and "pulling-down" motivation. Benign or competitive envy refers to improving one's own position. An envious employee works harder to achieve his goal of obtaining what others have and thus, it is expected that his work motivation will improve and he will be willing to learn from envied targets (Van de Ven et al., 2009). That is, benign or competitive envy leads to a "moving-up" motivation. Conversely, malicious envy leads to a "pulling-down" motivation because of willingness to harm the envied person. An envious employee is displeased due to the success or goodwill of the envied person. The employee is concerned with the other's failure rather than his own success (Tai, Narayanan and McAllister, 2012; Wobker, 2015).

According to Spielman's theory (1971), envy comprises four affect states, which include benign and malicious emotions. The first effect state of envy is 'emulation' and a feeling of admiration. Here, the employee desires to equal, imitate or surpass the excellence attained by other employee/s (Spielman, 1971). It can be referred that benign envy with this aspect. The second effect state is a 'narcissistic wound' which is expressed in varying degrees of intensity, dominated by feelings of inferiority, injured self-esteem, disappointment and humiliation. It is considered to be the most consistent and crucial aspect of envy (Spielman, 1971). It has the potential to turn into malicious envy if it is not controlled. The third effect is 'a longing for the desired possession'. It provides moving-up or pulling-down motivation to the employee according to his personality (Spielman, 1971). The fourth

effect is the most variable 'ingredient' in envy because it contains anger. It can be said that this is a completely malicious type of envy. Anger progressively transforms into discontent, ill will, spite, hatred, malevolence or a wish to harm towards co-workers (Spielman, 1971).

In sum, envy might be classified according to two theoretical perspectives. The social comparison perspective asserts that envy can be a form of benign emotion, in which the envied person is admired or emulated. But, the psychological perspective claims that envy is a more maladaptive, hostile and dark emotion and it can be associated with a desire to spoil and harm others who are better than oneself.

#### **2.4. The Concept of Self-Control**

Self-control is associated with a person's consideration of future consequences before satisfying his or her needs. The General Theory of Crime helps to explain criminal behaviors based on the theory of self-control (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). According to the theory, self-control indicates how the developmental and environmental conditions, such as nurturing and limit setting, shape individuals' impulsivity, low frustration tolerance and need for immediate gratification. Hence, low self-control results from an individual's poor history of nurturing, limit setting and moral framework, which promotes impulsivity and frustration associated with criminal behavior. Therefore, there is a relationship between high self-control and crime avoidance (Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990).

According to various studies, self-control represents a personality trait that can play a central role in the development of well-being since it is a general ability to make a mental effort to bridge the gaps between one's deliberation, decision and voluntary bodily action when one encounters resistance from one's inclinations. Furthermore, self-control protects a person against rebellious desires because it is an inspection mechanism (Henden, 2008).

### **3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES**

#### **3.1. The Relationship between Counterproductive Work Behavior and Workplace Malicious Envy**

Counterproductive work behaviors are discussed in the literature as an antisocial behavior, and the factors that pave the way for the emergence of such behaviors have been investigated. It is observed that studies on this concept primarily focus on the dimensions and measurement of the concept. At the same time, attempts are made to determine the various individual, contextual and organizational factors in seeing these behaviors. On the other hand, it is also emphasized that there may be a solution for understanding the factors affecting these behaviors by reducing and preventing them. In this framework, the theoretical backgrounds that explain the reasons for this concept are social commitment (Hirschi, 1996), Vroom's expectation theory (Vroom, 1964), psychological empowerment (Skinner, 1971), social learning (Bandura, 1978), social information processing (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978) and these theories aid in clarifying these anti-social behaviors at the level of individuals, groups and organizations (Spector and Fox, 2010; Demir and Tütüncü, 2010; Jensen and Patel, 2011; Spector, 2011; Özkalp, Aydın and Tekeli, 2012; Jung and Yoon, 2012).

Emotions, in general, can take a dispositional or state form and so, they are an antecedent for behaviors at work. In this context, envy is also an important emotion that negatively affects individuals, groups and organizations on both a material and a moral basis. Basically, envy is "wanting what someone else has" (Lazarus, 1999) and is both a negative emotion partially defined by a sense of ill will toward the envied (Smith and Kim, 2007) and a positive emotion that the envied person is admired or emulated (Parrott and Smith 1993). Further, emotions can also influence the incidence of interpersonal CPWBs

(Levine, 2010). Feelings of malicious envy, thought to motivate the envious to lessen the perceived inequality between the envious and the envied (i.e., approach motivation), have been associated with aggression and CPWBs (Miner, 1990; Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). This is because malicious envy can arise in situations where a comparison with another's success in a self-relevant domain threatens the identity or self-esteem of the envying person (Tesser, 1988; Tesser and Collins, 1988; DeSteno and Salovey, 1996; Rustemeyer and Wilbert, 2001). The self-evaluation maintenance model supports this conclusion (Tesser, 1988). According to the theory, people try to keep their self-motivation according to the performance of others close to them. A very good performance by a close person who is similar to them in terms of performance can downgrade their personality, whereas a bad performance can move them up. While a similar other has an outstanding performance, one of the possible consequences is malicious envy (Tesser, 1988; Malone, 2006). It stems from the employee's desire to protect their personal resource bases by searching for an external cause for their own perceived inadequacies (Eslami and Arshadi, 2016).

Another theory for explaining the relationship between malicious envy and CPWBs is equity theory. An employee's perception of equity is based on a comparison of the ratio of their input to their output to the perceived ratio of input and output of other people. If the employee believes that his/her co-workers are underpaid or overpaid compared to him or her, that is, if the ratio is unequal, employees show affective and coping responses such as malicious envy. Thus, one of these coping responses can be to reduce prosocial behaviors and increase anti-social ones such as CPWBs (Vecchio, 2005). In doing so, the main aim of the employee is inducing balance and achieving fairness within the organization (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). To illustrate, employee anger and frustration that is

rooted in inequity often leads to retaliation in the form of CPWBs (Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas, 2002).

The events and situations which cause negative feelings are more likely to support aggressiveness (Berkowitz, 1989). Sometimes, envious employees try to harm their envied coworkers by suppressing prosocial behaviors. This might be the easiest way to restore balance and protect their self-esteem from being damaged. Threats to self-esteem are more apt to be perceived as unjustified if one's self-concept is negative (Baumeister et al., 1998). Unjustified threats are more likely to prompt anger. An individual's self-esteem can be fragile or secure. Fragile self-esteem is conceptualized as being defensive, unstable, and discrepant with true feelings of self-worth (Kernis, 2003). Therefore, low trait self-esteem is especially likely to employ hostile strategies in order to avoid the loss of their seemingly precious self-esteem resources following unpleasant upward social comparisons (Vrabel, Zeigler-Hill and Southard, 2018).

In sum, envy is an emotion that constantly reminds people of a feeling of lack as a result of social comparison. The feeling of lack may nourish the person's negative emotions. Thus, it triggers aggressive behaviors because of the growth of the seeds of hate within the human being as well as damaging him or her psychosocially. However, the manifestation of this malicious emotion differs from employee to employee based on their personality factors. For this reason, an employee's target will not always be another person or group. The employee can choose any material at work as a target for discharging his or her negative emotions. This means that workplace envy manifests itself differently according to each employee (Duffy et al., 2008; Smith and Kim, 2007). Envious employees will engage in CPWBs because they develop malicious feelings, and, as a consequence, seek ways to harm their environment (Cohen-Charash and Mueller 2007; Van de Ven et al., 2009; Duffy et al., 2008).

Research has shown that workplace envy has been linked to a greater tendency to manifest counterproductive behaviors at work (e.g., Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007). Other researches supports the idea that employees who experience malicious (vs. benign) envy tend to display more counterproductive work behaviors. For instance, Braun, Aydın, Frey and Peus (2018) have found in their study that malicious envy was positively related to the manifestation of counterproductive behaviors, finding a negative association for benign envy. Based on these findings, envy is a feeling that can be felt, but hard to prove and it can be expected that the experience of this type of envy may lead to more CPWBs.

Consequently, the following hypothesis has been set based on the literature examined:

H<sub>1</sub>: Workplace malicious envy has a positive impact on counterproductive work behavior.

### 3.2. The Moderating Role of Self-control

The concept of self-control has been researched in terms of its moderating role as regards the malicious envy of employees and the tendency of CPWBs. Spector, Fox and Domogalsky (2006) demonstrate in their study that individual differences and personality traits constitute an important explanation for undesirable work behaviors like CPWBs. When self-control of employees is low, they lack the ability to effectively manage their negative emotions. Instead, they react impulsively or aggressively due to people they envy by harming their surroundings in the workplace (Douglas and Martinko, 2001). Additionally, as the degree of self-control of an employee decreases, the employee experiencing high levels of envy is more likely to engage in counterproductive behavior, including undermining co-workers, spreading negative gossip, acting with aggression, and withdrawing from the workplace. In this way, they alleviate the stress caused by envy (Sternlig and Labianca, 2015).

It is well known that malicious envy occurs as a result of negative social comparison. This negative social comparison may lead to many negative outcomes, such as sabotaging a rival's work, back-stabbing a competitor, harassment or ostracism of a rival (Khan et al., 2009). CPWBs will not always dominate employees who may engage in emotion regulation and may have self-control, using a variety of methods. Thus, self-control will prohibit the negative effects of situations that may potentially give rise to envy.

According to various studies, self-control represents a personality trait that can play a central role in the development of well-being since it is a general ability to make a mental effort to bridge the gaps between one's deliberation, decision and voluntary bodily action when one encounters resistance from one's own inclinations. Furthermore, self-control protects a person against rebellious desires because it is an inspection mechanism (Henden, 2008). Otherwise, employees are unable to control deviant and aggressive impulses when their self-control is diminished (DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, and Gailliot, 2007).

Traditionally, self-control consumes an individual's psychological resources, and naturally, as these important resources are depleted, it is more difficult for the person to control subsequent behavior (Muraven and Baumeister, 2000). In this context, when investigating the impact of self-control on CPWBs on 356 workers, Yan, Zhou, Long and Ji (2014) have found a positive significant relationship between workplace ostracism and both organizational and interpersonal employee CPWBs and self-control as mediators. Bechtold, Welk, Harting, and Zapf, (2007) have conducted a study which also emphasizes the effect of self-control on the relation between job demands and causes of deviant behaviors at work. They pointed out that the most influential variable in their research model was self-control.

In his work where he collects data from studies in other disciplines including

developmental and social psychology, Spector (2011) examines how different personality variables (hostile attribution bias, narcissism, negative affectivity and trait anger) relating to CPWBs might affect various steps in the process linking behavior to precipitating environmental conditions or events. The results of his study indicate that self-control also has a CPWBs inhibiting role.

Situ, Li and Dou (2016) have also conducted a study in China. Participants consisted of three samples: sample 1 consisted of 885 adolescents recruited from Guangdong Province in China; sample 2 consisted of 671 university students from three provinces (i.e. Guangdong, Jiangxi and Hunan) in China, and sample 3 consisted of 500 Chinese full-time employees. The results of their study indicate that self-control was significantly linked with CPWBs. Additionally, their findings demonstrate that there are significant quadratic effects of self-control on emotional and behavioral problems in adolescents and on behavioral problems in employees. At the same time, they investigated the effect of over control. But, they suggest in the study that too much self-control may have the reverse effect and that the positive effect of self-control diminishes after a threshold. This means that as the self-control effort of the employees' increases, the psychological and physical health problems of the employees are re-exposed and this can lead to deviant behaviors.

Furthermore, Galić and Ružojčić (2017) have collected data obtained from 1674 employees in various organizations for examining the effect of implicit aggression and dispositional self-control on counterproductive work behaviors. In their study, they confirmed the moderating effect of self-control between implicit aggression and self-reported CPWBs. More importantly, their findings indicate that the expression of undesirable behaviors in organizations depends on the interplay between the implicit urge to aggress and inhibitory forces of self-control. Indeed,

they find that high self-control can prevent aggressive inclinations that stem from an implicit and unconscious personality.

As discussed above, numerous studies have clearly revealed the beneficial effects of self-control both within and outside the organizational field, and there is enough evidence to support the moderating role of self-control in the literature. Accordingly, it can be hypothesized that the degree of self-control of the employees may affect the relation between workplace envy and counterproductive work behaviors. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been set:

H<sub>2</sub>: Self-control has a moderating role on the impact of perceived workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work behavior.

### **3.1. The Relationship between Contextual Performance and Workplace Benign Envy**

The effect of benign envy on contextual performance has been examined by few studies. Because envy shapes the behavior of the employees, it is expected that in feeling benign envy, employees are likely to show attitudes and behaviors resulting in a higher level of contextual performance (Galliani and Vianello, 2012; Yıldız, 2017). Furthermore, there is a positive relation of contextual performance with extrinsic motivation, and benign envy is a source of extrinsic motivation. Employees with high levels of extrinsic motivation perform more extra-role performance behaviors, because there is evidence that individual incentives, merit pay and bonuses, and gain-sharing can contribute to high performance (Gerhart, Milkovich and Murray, 1992). In workplace settings, extrinsically motivated employees are affected by both implicit and explicit rewards (i.e. salary, promotion) from the organization (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). Thus, employees may envy other employees who have obtained organizational rewards, and be motivated to display more performance. Thus, benign envy can contribute to the contextual performance of the employee.

On the other hand, admiration also affects the contextual performance of the employees. Admiration is a social, other-directed emotion, and the motivational effects of admiration easily extend to the individual, group and, social system. Within organizations, the desire to improve, achieve goals, and strengthen work relationships elicited by admiration could easily extend to colleagues. An employee may be moved by inspiring role models, and he or she will be motivated to emulate them. If admiration is elicited by a successful employee who demonstrates great competence in performing his or her job, then it will influence the amount of effort, care, and commitment other employees decide to invest in the general functioning of their organization. Hence, it is hypothesized that the effects of admiration in work contexts will directly affect contextual performance. Since benign envy involves admiration, it can be a triggering factor (Buck, 1985; Ortony, Clore and Collins, 1988; Galliani and Vianello, 2012). An envious employee works harder to achieve his goal of obtaining what others have and thus, it is expected that his work motivation will improve, and he will be willing to learn from envied targets (Van de Ven et al., 2009).

Within this framework, it is obvious that benign envy can lead to displaying more performance by motivating employees to volunteer to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Thus, demonstrating abilities or other attributes that lead to exemplary behavior on the job allows employees to improve their self-belief. Due to self-belief, employees may overcome emotional barriers such as shyness, lack of confidence, or the manifestation of anger in the workplace that is preventing an employee from functioning at optimum efficiency.

In the light of the foregoing evidence and conceptualizations, it can be concluded that benign envy is related to motivation, admiration and self-belief. Therefore, it can

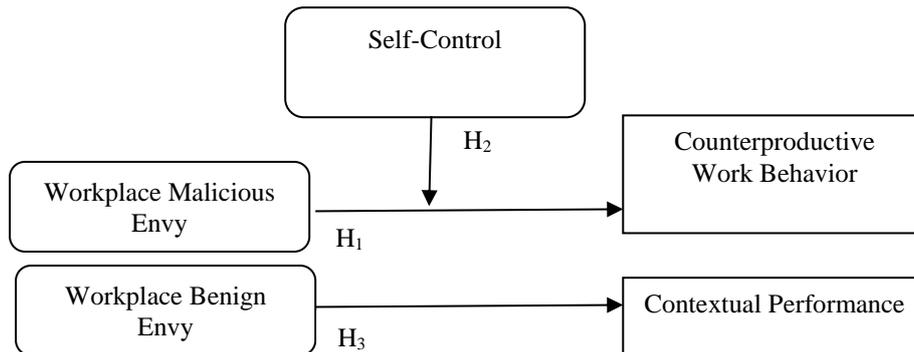
be anticipated that successful employees will be an inspiration to benign envious employees in an organization by creating a psychological influence, and will give rise to a high level of performance. It is also expected that benign envy may affect an employee's contextual performance

behaviors in a positive way. Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been set:

H<sub>3</sub>: Workplace benign envy has a positive impact on contextual performance

The theoretical framework has been presented, as in Figure 1.

Figure 1: The theoretical framework



## 4. METHOD

### 4.1. Sample and Data Collection

The data in this study has been collected from a sample of 330 participants from various public and private sectors in Turkey. Given the importance of employees' behaviors, it is important to understand the reasons for their behavior. In this context, the study has focused on helping organizations by seeking reasons for employee attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, the sample of this study includes employees who had been employed in various organizations in public/private sector companies located in İstanbul. The participants consisted of middle level or lower level managers and employees who did not have managerial position. Upper level managers were not included in the sample group because the participants were expected to evaluate their superiors.

As a data collection method, online and paper-based surveys were used in the study. Of the 330 responses, 252 questionnaires were obtained as online, and 78 surveys were obtained as paper-based. The participants were 46.7% women and 48.8%

of the participations were married. In terms of age, 0.3% of the participants were between 18 and 20 years old, 52.1% were between 20 and 29, 33.6% were between 30-39, 12.4% were between 40 and 49, 1.2% were between 50-59, 0.3% were between 60-69 years old. The average age of the employees was 31.7 years, ranging from 18 to 69 years ( $SD = .77$ ). The graduation degree of the participants was; 24.2% from associate degree, 53.6% from university, 19.1% from master's degree and 3.1% PhD degree. While it was analyzed the distribution of the work experience years of the participants; 13.9% of the participants had a work experience of 1 year and below, 39.6% between 1 and 5 years, 20.9% had an experience of 6 to 10 years, 11.6% has an experience of 11 to 15 years, 5.8% has an experience of 16 to 20, 6.1% has an experience of 21 to 25, 2.1% has an experience of 26 to above. Besides, 70.9% of the participants had a company experience of 5 years and below, 16.4% between 6 and 10 years, 5.8% between 11 and 15 years, 2.7% between 16-20 years and 4.2% between more than 21 years.

#### 4.2. Survey Instruments

In the study, a total of four different scales was used to measure all the variables. All the scales were answered by the employees and the items were rated on a 6-point scale ranging from 1="totally disagree" to 6="totally agree".

The level of counterproductive work behaviors of the employees in the organizations was measured by means of Robinson and Bennett's (1995) Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C), which has 30 items. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was done by Özcan (2006) and the Cronbach alpha value of the scale was found to be .97. Also, the Cronbach alpha values of the scale were found to be .97 in Örmeci's (2013) thesis study. The scale, whose reliability analysis and construct validity was determined, has been re-evaluated by the researchers of this study and adaptations have been made as necessary on the items. CPWBs-Checklist consists of four subscales, which are production deviance, property deviance, political deviance and personal aggression. "Purposely, I worked slowly when things needed to get done" is one example from the production deviance subscale. "Purposely, I damaged a piece of equipment or property" is another example item for property deviance subscale. Finally, "I blamed someone at work for error I made" is an example item for political deviance, whereas "I insulted or made fun of someone at work" is an item which reflects personal aggression. In the present study, all the items had factor loadings of  $\geq 0.50$  so none of the items were excluded from the scale. However, in the study, the 30 items had uni-dimensional factor instead of the 4 factors of Robinson and Bennett (1995). This finding can result from local cultural perception because differentiation among dimensions can be interpreted on only one level by employees.

The contextual performance of employees was measured by 17 items. 3 items were selected from Borman and Motowidlo's (2006) "Contextual Performance Scale".

The scale, which was adapted by Tuna and Yahyagil (2014) has one factor as one-dimensional construct which explained 83.1% of the variance. Cronbach alpha value was found to be 0.87 in their study. "I volunteer to complete extra tasks." is an example item for the contextual performance dimension. In addition, 14 items were added from Motowidlo and Van Scotter's (1994) scale and the Turkish translation was done by the researcher and thesis advisor of this study from Marmara University. "I support and encourage a co-worker with a problem." is another example item for the contextual performance scale. In the present study, all the items had factor loadings of  $\geq 0.50$  so none of the items were excluded from the scale.

Lange and Crusius' (2015) "The Benign and Malicious Envy Scale (BeMaS)", which has 10 items, was used to measure the envy feelings of the employees in the workplace. 5 items of the scale measure the benign envy feelings of the employees, whereas the other 5 items measure the malicious envy feelings of the employees. The Turkish adaptation was done by Çırpan and Özdoğru (2017) and the Cronbach alpha values of .85 for benign envy feelings of employees and .89 for malicious envy feelings of employees in their study. "When I envy others, I focus on how I can become equally successful in the future." is one example from the benign envy scale. "I feel ill will towards people I envy." is another example item for the malicious envy scale.

Tangney et al., (2004) "Self-Control Scale" was used to measure the self-control level of the employees, which has 21 items in total. In addition, the short version of the scale (a 12-item) showed the same structure by including items of each of the factors. The Turkish adaptation was conducted by Nebioğlu et al., (2012), and the Cronbach alpha values of .89 in their study. In addition, in the study of Unger, Bi, Xiao and Ybarra (2016), the Cronbach alpha value was found .75 for Tangney and colleagues' (2004) "Self-Control Scale". In this study, the translation was checked and the 12-item short version was selected from

a total of 21 items. "I have a hard time breaking bad habits." is an example item for the self-control scale. In the present study, all the items had factor loadings of  $\geq 0.50$  so none of the items were excluded from the scale.

## 5. THE STUDY FINDINGS

### 5.1. Descriptive, Factor and Reliability Analyses

The statistical analysis of the study was analyzed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 22). Firstly, the

factor analysis and the Cronbach Alpha values of the scales were carried out for testing the relationship among variables. According to the results, the Cronbach  $\alpha$  value of the scales represented the high internal reliability coefficient and KMO coefficient of the scales was also on a significant level. According to the analysis, mean and standard deviations values of the variables are presented in Table 1, factor loadings and reliability values are presented in Table 2.

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of Variables

	Mean(M)	Standard Deviations (SD)
Counterproductive Work Behavior	4,90	1,56
Contextual Performance	2,98	1,55
Workplace Malicious Envy	4,52	1,72
Workplace Benign Envy	3,69	1,30
Self-Control	3,12	1,29

Table 2: Factor Loadings and Cronbach  $\alpha$  Values of Scale

	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach $\alpha$	KMO
Counterproductive Work Behavior	88,294	,977	,954	,981
Contextual Performance	83,156	,887	,987	,975
Workplace Malicious Envy	55,110	,957	,849	,889
Workplace Benign Envy	24,773	,784	,792	,889
Self-Control	70,199	,879	,957	,948

### 5.2. Findings

In the study, the correlation analysis was applied by Pearson Correlation test to reveal the level of relations between all the dependent, independent, and moderating variables of the study. According to the Pearson correlation results (N=330;  $p < 0,05$ ), a strong positive correlation ( $r=0.822$ ) between counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy

( $p=.000$ ); a weak positive correlation ( $r=0.307$ ) between contextual performance and workplace benign envy ( $p=.000$ ); a weak negative correlation ( $r=0.469$ ) between workplace malicious envy and self-control ( $p=.000$ ); a moderate negative correlation ( $r=-0.580$ ) between counterproductive work behavior and self-control ( $p=.000$ ) were found as presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Correlation Results of the Variables

	M	SS	1	2	3	4	5
1. CPWBs	4.90	1,56	1	-,640*	,822*	-.010	-,580*
2. Contextual P.	2.98	1,55		1	-,531*	,307*	,821*
3. W.Malicious E.	4,52	1,72			1	,158*	-,469*
4.W. Benign E.	3,69	1,30				1	,266*
5. Self-Control	3,12	1,29					1

N= 330; \*  $p < 0.05$

According to correlation results, it was seen that there were significant correlations among counterproductive work behavior, workplace malicious envy and self-control. Besides, there was a significant correlation between contextual performance and workplace benign envy. Then, the results of the regression analyses indicated that the workplace malicious envy coefficient is both positive and significant ( $\beta = 0.822$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $F = 681.664$ ). These results indicated that workplace malicious envy has significant incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior. In other words, as employees feel more malicious envy towards other employees in their organization, they exhibit more counterproductive work behavior. Therefore, the first hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) in the study is supported. Moreover, for testing the moderation effect, workplace malicious envy was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, workplace malicious envy and self-control both entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Thirdly, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed. According to the Table 5. regression model was statistically significant ( $R = .895$ ;  $R^2 = .801$ ;  $F = 437.76$ ;  $p = 0.0000$ ) and workplace malicious envy appeared to be a statistically significant predictor of counterproductive work behavior ( $\beta = -.1409$ ;  $t = -1.825$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ). Also, as seen that the effect of workplace malicious envy on counterproductive work

behavior was significant in case self-control was included in model. The Table 5. showed that the interaction effect was significant ( $\beta = .219$ ;  $t = 11.464$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .0802. For this reason, self-control had a full moderator effect on the relationship between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior. In this context, the feeling of workplace malicious envy of employees with low ( $\beta = .298$ ;  $t = 6.895$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ), moderate ( $\beta = .489$ ;  $t = 15.52$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) and high self-control ( $\beta = .901$ ;  $t = 28.25$ ;  $p < 0.0001$ ) is statistically significant on counterproductive work behavior. Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of malicious envy feeling on counterproductive work behavior increases. Accordingly, Hypothesis  $H_2$  was supported. Finally, the workplace benign envy coefficient is both positive and significant ( $\beta = 0.397$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $F = 34.057$ ). These results indicated that workplace benign envy has significant incremental explanatory power over contextual performance. In other words, as employees feel more benign envy towards other employees in their organization, envious employees work harder to achieve their goal of obtaining what others have and thus, they exhibit more contextual performance. Therefore, the third hypothesis ( $H_3$ ) in the study is supported.

Table 4: The Effect of Workplace Malicious Envy on Counterproductive Work Behavior

Variable	$\beta$	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.261	.141	8.922	.000***
Workplace Malicious Envy	.822	.030	26.109	.000***
<b>R<sup>2</sup>= .674; F= 681.664; P&lt;.001</b>				
<b>a. *p&lt;0.05; **p&lt;0.01*** p&lt;.001</b>				
<b>b. Dependent Variable: Counterproductive Work Behavior</b>				
<b>c. Independent Variable: Workplace Malicious Envy</b>				

Table 5: The Moderator Role of Self-Control between Workplace Malicious Envy and Counterproductive Work Behavior

WME	$\beta$	Std. Error	t	p
<b>CWB</b>				
Constant	6.713	.403	16.663	.0000****
Workplace Malicious Envy	-.140	.077	-1.825	.0688
Self-Control	-1.32	.095	-13.93	.0000****
Self-Control x Workplace Malicious Envy	.219	.0191	11.464	.0000****
Self-Control	Moderator Effect ( $\beta$ )	Std. Error	t	p
<b>Moderator Effect of Self-Control= M<math>\pm</math> 1SD</b>				
M- 1SS (2.000) Low	.298	.043	6.895	.0000****
M (2.975) Moderate	.489	.031	15.52	.0000****
M+1SS (4.750) High	.901	.032	28.25	.0000****
Model Summary	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	p
	.895	.801	437.76	.0000****
Increased R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> Change	F	Sd.	p
	.0802	131.42	326	.0000****

\* \*P<0.05; \*\*p<0.01; \*\*\*p<0.001; \*\*\*\*p<0.0001

Table 6: The Effect of Workplace Benign Envy on Contextual Performance

Variable	$\beta$	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.754	.252	6.955	.000***
<b>Workplace Benign Envy</b>	.397	.065	5.836	.000***

**R<sup>2</sup>= .091; F= 34.057; P<.001**

a. \*p<0.05; \*\*p<0.01\*\*\* p<.001  
b. **Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance**  
c. **Independent Variable: Workplace Benign Envy**

## 6. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The study concentrates on the impacts of workplace envy on counterproductive work behavior and contextual performance. Moreover, the moderating role of self-control was also studied herewith. It is well known that there are so many organizational dynamics that is encountered between employee & employee, manager & employee or employees & organization. Therefore, to understand overall organizational structure has gained wide importance in recent years because it helps business to understand human at organizational level and to solve employees' problems. In this context, the sample of this study included individuals working in various public and private sectors without differentiating between sectors.

The first finding related to the hypothesis of the study was that workplace malicious envy had a positive effect on counterproductive work behavior. The mean score of workplace malicious envy scale was 4.30, which represented the high workplace malicious envy feel of the employees. Also, workplace malicious envy had significant incremental explanatory power over counterproductive work behavior ( $\beta = 0.822$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $F = 681.664$ ).

It means that, as employees feel more malicious envy towards other employees in their organization, they exhibit more counterproductive work behavior. Thus, the result supported first hypothesis ( $H_1$ ). This finding was in line with the literature review as in Khan et al., (2009), also confirmed the effect of the workplace malicious envy on the counterproductive work behavior in their study. Similarly, Navarro, Llorens, Olateju and Insa (2018) were confirmed the relationship between envy and counterproductive work behavior in public organizations in their study. Moreover, the recent study of Ghadi (2018) which was performed on 169 employees working in several jobs at four organizations in Jordan has demonstrated that workplace malicious envy significantly predicts counterproductive behaviors. Consequently, although the workplace malicious envy was measured with different instrument, our result was consistent with prior empirical findings.

Then, the moderating role of self-control was confirmed as significant between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior. The statistical analysis confirmed that self-control had a full moderator effect on the relationship between workplace malicious

envy and counterproductive work behavior. In other words, the feeling of workplace malicious envy of employees with low ( $\beta=.298$ ;  $t= 6.895$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ), moderate ( $\beta=.489$ ;  $t= 15.52$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ) and high self-control ( $\beta=.901$ ;  $t= 28.25$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ) is statistically significant on counterproductive work behavior, supporting Hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>. Besides, in the study, the mean score for self-control was 3.17, which represents the moderate level of self-control of the employees. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that the degree of self-control of the employees increases, the effect of malicious envy feeling on counterproductive work behavior increases. It can be concluded that the high self-control degree enables employees to remain calm themselves, thus self-control prevents the feelings of malicious envy from turning to counterproductive work behavior. Either, employees with low self-control degree tend to display more counterproductive action in case of malicious envy. Namely, self-control degree affects the relationship between workplace malicious envy and counterproductive work behavior positive manner. Consequently, this finding was consistent with the literature of Galić and Ružojčić (2017), who also confirmed the moderating role of self-control in the relationship between implicit aggression and self-reported counterproductive work behavior.

Hypothesis H<sub>3</sub> regarding the positive effect of workplace benign envy were represented in this study with incremental explanatory power over contextual performance ( $\beta = 0.397$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $F= 34.057$ ). In the study, workplace benign envy mean score was found as 3.67, which reflects the moderate benign envy feelings of the employees. In consequence, it can be expressed that feeling of benign envy among employees increases the contextual performance level of the employees. Similarly, the findings of this study were in line with the literature review as Yıldız 's study (2017). According to results of Yıldız's research, benign envy has a positive effect on contextual

performance ( $\beta=-.313$ ;  $p<0.001$ ). Namely, when employees' benign envy feeling was high, they exhibited greater contextual performance behavior. Furthermore, Sterling, Ven and Smith (2016) confirmed that benign envy is associated with increased effort while malicious envy is associated with greater acts of deviance and a higher tendency to turnover in their study. This result shows that both H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>3</sub> are supported by Sterling et. al's study.

It is known that malicious envy is a phenomenon with negative emotions in its nature and leads to increased undesirable behaviors. Employee feels envy towards others in an environment as a result of comparing oneself with others. The feeling of lack can nourish the employee's negative emotions. Thus, aggressive behaviors can be triggered because of the growth of the seeds of hate within the human being as well as damaging him or her psychosocially. The study showed that the emotion of malicious envy is manifested in both as towards the individual and towards the organization.

Similarly, workplace benign envy positively impacts on contextual performance and the result was also parallel to the literature. The association between contextual performance and workplace benign envy can explain social identity theory which refers to individuals recognize their own membership in groups by defining the social boundaries surrounding particular groups, and then self-categorizing themselves as either belonging or not belonging to them (Gundlach, Zivnuska, and Stoner, 2006). It is known that social identity leads to perceived similarity, interpersonal liking, proximity, frequency of interaction, and other factors traditionally associated with group development. By means of group identification, employees can believe their internal power in case of co-worker's successful in organization. Thus, they may display extra performance in order to succeed as others. Besides, being successful in organization can be source of motivation for other employees, especially if the

successful employee is rewarded by top management. On the other hand, it can be claimed that the association between variables can be clarified with horizontal individualism in organization. Employees with horizontal individualistic consider their self as an autonomous, self-reliant and independent entity. They emphasize equity in group. They pay more attention to personal goals and the self-confidence of individual is quite high. Therefore, they can be competitive in group (Uçar, 2017). Competition among employees can increase their contextual performance because of displaying extra role behaviors. Additionally, the term agency can be a predictor while explaining the relationship between contextual performance and workplace benign envy because, agency refers to “motivated action, with a sense of efficacy, toward a desired outcome” (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). At the same time, employees act extra performance willingly, without a sense of coercion. For our sample, contextual performance of employees with high benign envy can be explained with these concepts.

Furthermore, the moderating role of self-control between counterproductive work behavior and workplace malicious envy was confirmed, which was also supported by the literature. If feeling of employee’s workplace malicious envy can be controlled by self, such malicious feeling would not transform into counterproductive work behavior. It may be due to decreasing impulsive behaviors and enabling to healthy decision-making process mentally. The opposite is true. Employees with the degree of low self-control are more likely to engage in counterproductivity because it can be harder to control emotions.

This research also includes some major managerial implications. Firstly, according to obtained findings, behaviors and attitudes related to organization can play a crucial role for employees in engaging in counterproductive work behavior. Therefore, the management department should focus on organizational issues, roles, function and policies &

procedures while dealing with problems. Besides, democratic principles in organizations can help supporting to organizational structure. Thus, counterproductive actions can be avoided.

The current study makes important contributions to organizational behavior literature although it has also several limitations, just as with any empirical research.

The largest limitation of the current research is that by assuming all employees who were at the same level were measured. However, each of them has different responsibility. In addition, it was ignored employee’s personal characteristics which have an important role in their perceptions. Because of this, in future researches, it can be added personality based on scales. All the data was collected by the participants individually as self-reports. However, participants may have been affected by social desirability response bias. So, while answering items of scales, participants may be made social desirability mistake. Therefore, it should be conducted these measurements with different methods such as scenario techniques in future studies. Additionally, the effects of culture are highly specific and so, this study must not be generalized. National or organizational culture is factors which should not be overlooked. In this study, quantitative research method was used. However, qualitative data research could be incorporated to study. In the future studies, if it is used the combination of these two different methods, researchers could obtain precise results by decreasing bias.

Nevertheless, these findings in the current research are valuable as it was tried to explain counterproductive work behavior, contextual performance, workplace envy and self-control, and relationships between them.

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