

**Should I Stay or Should I Go? The Role of Individual Strivings in Shaping the Relationship
between Envy and Avoidance Behaviors at Work**

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Author Note

We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Associate Editor Brad Harris, two anonymous reviewers, Adam Grant, and the members of the OB Reading Group at the University of Zurich for their valuable feedback.

Abstract

Research on envy is dominated by a focus on approach-oriented behaviors—when envious employees take action to reduce the gap between the self and envied targets. Surprisingly little research has examined the relationship between envy and avoidance-oriented behaviors, even though emotion regulation research suggests that avoidance is a common reaction to unpleasant, painful emotions such as envy. We seek to understand envy’s consequences for workplace avoidance—namely absenteeism and turnover. Drawing on theories about how people interpret and regulate emotions according to their goals, we suggest that employees’ individual differences in motivational strivings shape the relationship between envy and avoidance behaviors. We propose that for employees high in communion or status striving, envy is associated with more absences and thereby increased turnover; for employees high in achievement striving, envy is associated with fewer absences and ultimately reduced turnover. A field study of supermarket employees shows general support for our conceptual model regarding communion and achievement strivings but a null effect for status striving. Our research expands the nomological network of envy by examining its impact on workplace avoidance, helps to shed light on contradictory findings in envy research, and offers implications for theories on work motivation, emotions, and avoidance behaviors.

Keywords: emotions; motivation; individual differences; absenteeism; turnover

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Envy is pervasive in organizational contexts (Tai et al., 2012). Many workplaces are competitive and hierarchical (Smith & Kim, 2007), and employees have regular access to information about colleagues' achievements, recognition, and social standing. This information, whether made explicit or inferred by employees, lends itself to social comparison processes between the self and coworkers (Greenberg et al., 2007). As a result, it is common for employees to experience feelings of envy, defined as an unpleasant emotion that involves "pain at another's good fortune" (Tai et al., 2012, p. 107). Envy occurs when employees lack—and want—something that others have (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Parrott & Smith, 1993). Inherent in the vast majority of research on envy is an underlying assumption that when people feel envy, they take action to reduce the gap between the self and the target(s) of envy. These *approach-oriented behaviors* can take the form of "pulling down" the envied (for example, by sabotaging them; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; van de Ven et al., 2009), or on a more positive note, "pulling up" the self (for example, by improving one's standing; Crusius & Lange, 2014).

With a few exceptions (Duffy & Shaw, 2000; Vecchio, 2000), surprisingly little research has examined the relationship between envy and *avoidance-oriented behaviors*. This is especially surprising given that pain is a defining feature of envy (Tai et al., 2012), and ample research indicates that avoidance is a common emotion regulation strategy to evade pain (Berman, 2007; Kashdan et al., 2006). In organizational life, avoidance behaviors include skipping work; this initial, temporary withdrawal often deteriorates such that avoidance eventually takes the form of turnover, with employees permanently leaving their place of employment (Grandey, 2000; Harrison et al., 2006). These actions do not involve reducing the gap between the self and envied others, but rather entail escaping from the triggers of envy (i.e., one's colleagues and place of

work) altogether. The little research that exists on the relationship between envy and avoidance-oriented behaviors suggests that envy should lead to more absences and eventually turnover (e.g., Veccio, 2000). But in light of research indicating that envy can prompt employees to engage at work (e.g., Lee & Duffy, 2019; Sterling et al., 2017), coupled with past findings that engagement is associated with less withdrawal (Blau, 1986; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Saks, 2006), there is also the possibility that envy, under certain circumstances, might actually reduce workplace withdrawal. Indeed, the envy literature as a whole then points to the possibility that envy may exacerbate or mitigate absences and subsequent turnover. Dineen et al. (2017, p. 298) acknowledge a similar “paradoxical issue that continues to puzzle envy researchers,” asking “why does envy sometimes evoke destructive, threat-based responses while at other times it evokes constructive, challenge-based responses?”

In this paper we take a step toward addressing this puzzle by integrating theories on how people interpret and regulate emotions to understand how envy affects workplace avoidance behaviors in the short term, via absences, and in the longer term, through turnover. According to feelings-as-information theory, emotions such as envy are a source of information about one’s current context; as with other types of information, people subjectively interpret emotions according to their goals and desires (Gohm & Clore, 2002; Schwarz, 2012; Schwarz & Clore, 1983). Emotion regulation theory (Gross, 2015) also indicates that an important determinant in how people react to emotions (including envy) is their personal goals. Therefore, people may choose to remain with or withdraw from an envy-eliciting stimulus depending on their goals. Though there are many possible goals individuals have at work, decades of research on motivation point to strivings for communion, status, and achievement as central goals in human life (Bakan, 1966; Barrick et al., 2002; McClelland, 1961). Thus, we build theory concerning how each motivational striving for communion, status, and achievement, respectively, is

associated with either more or less workplace avoidance when employees experience envy at work. We test the conceptual model depicted in Figure 1 in a field study of employees in high-end, competitive Indonesian supermarkets.

Our research offers several theoretical contributions to the growing body of knowledge about envy, avoidance-oriented behaviors, and work motivation. By examining avoidance-oriented reactions to envy (i.e., absenteeism in the short term and turnover in the longer run), we expand the nomological network of envy and complement prior research that has examined approach-oriented reactions to envy, such as counterproductive behaviors directed at other peers (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007) or increased effort on the part of the self (Dineen et al., 2017; van de Ven et al., 2009, 2011). We formulate new theory on how envy relates to withdrawal reactions, which is especially relevant given the inherent connection between envy, pain, and avoidance. We also answer calls to resolve discrepancies in extant empirical research on envy by identifying factors that determine when envy is more or less problematic in the workplace (Dineen et al., 2017; Tai et al., 2012)—namely individual differences in motivational strivings. Finally, our work holds implications for other strands of envy research; for example, whereas existing research suggests that feeling close to envied colleagues mitigates against the tendency to undermine them (Duffy et al., 2012), we demonstrate that a communal orientation can exacerbate avoidance-oriented behaviors. This finding complicates the notion that interpersonal connections buffer against the downsides of envy. Overall, our research reveals more nuance in the understanding of envy and its effects.

Envy, Workplace Avoidance, and Motivational Strivings

Envy is a negative emotion characterized by feelings of pain, inferiority, and often resentment, stemming from the desire to possess something valued that another entity has (Smith

& Kim, 2007).¹ It is felt “when a person lacks another’s superior quality, achievement, or possession and either desires it or wishes that the other lacked it” (Parrott & Smith, 1993, p. 906). Envy emerges from comparisons with others (Gilbert et al., 1995; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2007), being “one of the most significant hedonic consequences of upward social comparisons” (Bamberger & Belogolovsky, 2017, p. 658). Whereas envy exists at multiple levels (Duffy et al., 2012), in this paper we focus on contextual envy, as we are interested in individuals’ overall level of envy relevant to the domain of work and geared toward coworkers in aggregate (Puranik et al., 2019). Inherent in most envy work is an underlying assumption that envy prompts individuals to take action to minimize the gap between the self and the envied target, but from the perspective of emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998, 2015), more options to cope with the negative feeling of envy are available. Broadly speaking, emotion regulation refers to various processes individuals employ to influence and increase, decrease, or maintain the emotions they experience (Gross, 1998, 1999).

Among the options is a technique called “situation selection” (Gross, 1998). This form of emotion regulation involves avoiding particular stimuli (i.e., places and people) to prevent an undesirable emotion from arising in the first place (Elfenbein, 2008). Given that targets of envy are triggers of negative appraisals and feelings (Grandey et al., 2018; Mosquera et al., 2010), emotion regulation theory suggests that avoiding these targets is one way of coping with envy, especially since envy can be simultaneously difficult to suppress and deemed inappropriate to express according to workplace norms (Tan et al., 2016). In work life, therefore, if colleagues

¹ Some scholars have argued that different types of envy exist, such that envy can be laden with hostility versus admiration (van de Ven et al., 2009). Envy has also been conceptualized as a unitary construct that can lead to both undesirable and desirable reactions (Cohen-Charash & Larson, 2017). This idea ensures that the construct of envy is not confounded with its consequences (Tai et al., 2012) and is supported in a recent meta-analysis (Lange et al., 2018), although there is ongoing debate regarding how envy is conceptualized (Crusius et al., 2020). Fundamentally, even if envy is characterized as “benign,” it is still an unpleasant emotional state, characterized by frustration and inferiority that people wish to reduce (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020; Lieberman & Eisenberger, 2009).

evoke feelings of envy, employees may engage in situation selection and withdraw from work in order to prevent experiencing envy. Prior research supports this conclusion through linking dissatisfaction with coworkers to an increased likelihood of withdrawal behaviors (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991), but research specifically on envy has been surprisingly mute on its relationship with avoidance-oriented behaviors.

Workplace avoidance can take different forms. Here we focus on absenteeism in the short term and voluntary turnover in the longer term. Absenteeism concerns when employees fail to show up at their organization on a designated work day (Johns, 2008); turnover captures when employees choose to quit their job and thus permanently leave their current organization (Boswell et al., 2008). According to the progression of withdrawal model (Herzberg et al., 1957), absenteeism and voluntary turnover are linked such that mild forms of withdrawal like absenteeism can progress to more severe forms like turnover. Although absences and turnover can occur independently of one another (i.e., Landy, 1989; McKee et al., 1992), as the voluntary decision to quit can also be due to unique factors outside of the organization, meta-analyses on these behaviors provide support for the progression of withdrawal model in which absenteeism and turnover are connected in a causal chain (Berry et al., 2012; Griffeth et al., 2000; Koslowsky et al., 1997; Harrison et al., 2006; Mitra et al., 1992). In the context of our study, this suggests that individuals who are frequently absent from work due to envy are eventually likely to quit. Therefore, as employees realize only temporary reprieve from envy during voluntary absences, they may see their job environment as unsustainable, facilitating their decision to quit in hopes of finding a more pleasant work environment.

In support of the suggestion that envy is related to avoidance-oriented behaviors, previous research indicates that when employees experience greater envy, they contribute less to the organization (Bamberger & Belogolovsky, 2017; Duffy & Shaw, 2000) and report stronger

turnover intentions (Vecchio, 1995, 1999, 2000). In one study of student teams, group-level envy was positively associated with missing class (Duffy & Shaw, 2000). Taken together, this body of research suggests that feeling envious of coworkers should lead employees to be *absent more often* and, ultimately, be *more likely to quit* their jobs. However, scholars have also discovered some potential upsides of envy (Tai et al., 2012; van de Ven, 2017; Yu et al., 2018), including a desire for self-improvement (Cohen-Charash & Larson, 2017), increased work effort (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Sterling et al., 2017), and asking for advice from envied targets (Lee & Duffy, 2019). When considering the implications of these findings for avoidance behaviors at work, this stream of research hints to the possibility that envy may also lead employees to be diligent about showing up at work and ultimately remain with their organization to carry out their goals. Therefore, extrapolating from work on the potential motivational effects of envy, it may alternatively be the case that employees are *absent less often* when they feel envy and, consequently, *less likely to quit* their organization. To reconcile these conflicting perspectives, we draw on research about how emotions are interpreted and subsequently regulated. Guided by this work, we posit that an examination of individual differences in motivational strivings (as moderators of the relationship between envy and absences, and ultimately turnover) may help delineate when envy prompts more versus less withdrawal in the workplace.

As the name suggests, feelings-as-information theory indicates that emotions provide people with information about their situation (Schwarz, 2012; Schwarz & Clore, 1983). However, individuals do not uniformly interpret emotions like envy. Rather, similar to other forms of information, individual differences shape the way that people attend to and interpret affective signals (Côté et al., 2008). The literature on feelings-as-information theory has identified differences in motivational factors as being central to how emotions are processed (English et al., 2017; Gaddis et al., 2004, Sheppes et al., 2014). Emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998, 2002,

2015) similarly points to the important role of personal goals in shaping how people react to emotions, including envy. As stated by Gross (2002, p. 282), “when our emotions seem to be ill-matched to a given situation, we frequently try to regulate our emotional responses so that they better serve our goals.” Taken together, these related bodies of work suggest that individual differences in motivation are likely to shape how emotions like envy are regulated (Eldesouky & Gross, 2019; Grandey, 2000). In this paper, we focus on employees’ goals for communion, for status, and for achievement, which are central in several content theories of motivation (Kanfer et al., 2017) and pertinent for understanding the affective context of organizations (Grandey, 2008). These “higher-level goals depict an individual’s purposeful motivational strivings, which span relatively long time frames and are represented as general desired end states” (Barrick et al. 2013, p. 133). Thus, these strivings provide a parsimonious framework for understanding the broad goals people have at work, which are likely to shape how employees respond to various emotions including envy, with implications for whether employees select to withdraw from work in order to regulate their feelings of envy (Gross, 2002). We thus explore how dispositional communion, status, and achievement strivings can help to illuminate divergent avoidance-oriented reactions to envy in the initial form of absences, progressing to turnover.

The Moderating Role of Communion Striving

Communion striving is the motivation to develop cooperative affiliations with others (Bakan, 1966; Barrick et al., 2002). Communion strivers seek out work settings that complement their social orientation and prefer to avoid competition (Barrick et al., 2013); they pay close attention to signals about how they are getting along with others (Weinberger et al., 2010). Since envy is a negative interpersonal emotion characterized by resentment (Parrott & Smith, 1993), for communally-oriented individuals, feeling envious of others stands in contrast to their desire to be in harmony with them. As stated by Smith and Kim (2007), “envy violates social conventions

that usually require supportive rather than competitive, begrudging reactions to another person's success" (p. 48). Accordingly, we expect that experiences of envy should be particularly troubling for individuals high in communion striving.

Envy reduces relationship quality and tends to drive people apart, as it is an "incongruent" emotion, with the envied target and envious individual experiencing positive versus negative affect, respectively (Ganegoda & Bordia, 2019). According to feelings-as-information theory (Schwarz, 2012), negative emotions like envy typically signal that something is wrong or undesirable in the environment, and for communion strivers, envy is likely to be interpreted through the lens of their interpersonal goals. Envy should thus serve as a negative relational signal at work. Envy may leave communion strivers feeling separated from their core goal of connecting. Because "individuals high in affiliation motivation cannot bear discord with others" (Schultheiss, 2008, p. 605), communion strivers are particularly likely to feel uncomfortable in a workplace where they feel envy. As communion strivers continually experience this unpleasant emotion, they may make negative attributions about themselves and their relationships at work (Eberly et al., 2011, 2017). In turn, they may attempt to regulate this aversive emotion by escaping the workplace and staying home, a form of situation selection (Gross, 2002). By missing work, the immediate triggers of envy in the work environment and awareness of lacking communion with others are temporarily avoided.

Although being absent from work is likely to provide reprieve, it is unlikely to minimize one's level of contextual envy upon returning to work. Because disengaging from work does very little to reduce the gap between the self and the envied target, the feelings of envy likely persist at work (Parrott, 1991). Over time, when communion strivers continue to miss work in the face of envy, self-perception theory (Bem, 1973) suggests that they are likely to reflect on their avoidance-oriented behaviors and infer that their current workplace fails to meet their communal

values. This perception of misfit may become a reason to exit (Jiang et al., 2012; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). As noted in research on the progression of withdrawal, when milder forms of withdrawal like absences “fail to serve as adaptive mechanisms,” avoidance takes on the more severe form of turnover (Krausz et al., 1998, p. 59). We therefore predict that employees who experience envy are more likely to intentionally avoid work by being absent, and ultimately leave the organization, when they are high in communion striving.

Hypothesis 1: When communion striving is high, envy has (a) a positive direct relationship with voluntary absences and (b) a positive indirect relationship with voluntary turnover, through voluntary absences.

The Moderating Role of Status Striving

Status striving refers to the desire for hierarchical advancement, prestige, and influence over others (Barrick et al., 2002; Winter, 1973). Like communion striving, status striving is social in nature, but it hinges on wanting to be in control and “above” (rather than in harmony) with others (Fodor, 2010; McClelland, 1987). Individuals high in status striving may find feelings of envy threatening, and we therefore predict that it prompts them to avoid work and eventually quit.

Deriving from upward social comparison processes, feelings of envy make others’ superiority salient (Lange et al., 2019). Indeed, envy has even been characterized as a “status emotion” (Crusius & Lange, 2017). According to research on feelings-as-information (Schwarz, 2012), this should be especially problematic for employees high in status striving, as they are likely to perceive envy as an indication of their subpar status. As stated by Barrick et al. (2013), “feedback from others can inform individuals about their position within a status hierarchy and, hence, fulfill or frustrate the intention to get ahead of others” (p. 143). For status strivers, envy may operate akin to a source of negative feedback and serve as a signal that they have failed to

achieve their goal of “having it better” than others. Employees high in status striving like being looked up to, as they desire respect from others (Foulk et al., 2019). Thus, while they may enjoy being the target of envy (Vecchio, 2005), they are likely to respond negatively if they themselves are envious of coworkers. Although they may desire to take steps to reduce the gap between themselves and their peers, ongoing envy at the contextual level may prompt status strivers to see their colleagues as a recurring reminder of their inferiority. As a result, employees high in status striving may feel threatened in the face of envy (Lange et al., 2019).

Given the painful and threatening nature of envy (Lange et al., 2018; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Tai et al., 2012), we expect that envious employees who are high in status striving will regulate this emotion by avoiding their colleagues and skipping work. After experiencing relief from envy by missing work, but being unable to adequately minimize this negative emotion, we suggest that they will eventually engage in a more permanent form of situation selection—leaving their organization with the aim of finding a new job that does not threaten their self-esteem, and where they can dominate and ascend the organizational hierarchy. Indeed, a mild form of avoidance like absenteeism can transform into a more absolute form when “the motivational problems causing the milder form continue to persist” (Krausz et al., 1998, p. 69). In sum, we predict that status striving is associated with increased absences among employees experiencing envy, and in line with prior work, that increased absences are positively related to turnover.

Hypothesis 2: When status striving is high, envy has (a) a positive direct relationship with voluntary absences and (b) a positive indirect relationship with voluntary turnover, through voluntary absences.

The Moderating Role of Achievement Striving

Whereas communion and status strivings are relational in nature, achievement striving

concerns an employee's motivation to succeed in work-related tasks and responsibilities (Barrick et al., 2003). Achievement striving refers to a desire for mastery and excellence (Allport, 1955; Atkinson, 1957; Barrick et al., 2013; McClelland, 1951; White, 1959). Those high in achievement striving have a goal of doing things better, implying a standard of comparison (McClelland, 1987). Achievement strivers enjoy opportunities to improve their competence (Allport, 1955; McClelland, 1951; White 1959), so for them, envy may indicate a need to do better at work and thus minimize avoidance behaviors.

In line with feelings-as-information theory (Schwarz, 2012), when employees high in achievement striving are envious of their coworkers, we expect that they will process this information according to their task-oriented goals. Feelings of envy can make salient a higher standard of excellence or mastery that colleagues have been able to achieve (van de Ven et al., 2009), and feelings of envy may signal to achievement-oriented individuals that they should be able to accomplish more (Hill et al., 2011; Tesser, 1988). Although envy is still likely to be painful for achievement strivers, emotion regulation strategies other than situation selection (avoiding the source of envy) may be preferred for these individuals given that achievement strivers have an ongoing desire to improve their performance (McClelland et al., 1953) and respond positively to challenges (Major et al., 2006; McClelland, 1987). In the face of envy then, they are less likely to have an avoidance-oriented response. This should reduce the tendency for envious individuals to engage in situation selection and voluntarily miss work, as being absent would act against their goal of heightened performance (McClelland, 1961) and potentially put them at an even greater disadvantage in terms of workplace productivity after missing work. Thus, if they were to skip work, this would prevent them from enacting their ongoing tendency to improve their abilities. Further, because they are "fiercely independent-minded" (Schultheiss,

2008, p. 603), achievement strivers have little reason to avoid the coworkers they envy. In turn, achievement strivers are likely to avoid missing work.

Over time, being present at work and seeing their coworkers possess something they desire, achievement strivers may interpret envy as a signal that this is a workplace in which excellence is attainable if effort is invested, strengthening their expectancy beliefs (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996; Vroom, 1964) and reducing their likelihood of leaving as a more permanent form of emotion regulation. Indeed, achievement striving is associated with remaining committed to a course of action despite negative information (Moon, 2001). We therefore predict that when employees feel envy, high achievement striving is associated with fewer voluntary absences, and that reduced absenteeism in turn is associated with reduced voluntary turnover (Harrison et al., 2006).

Hypothesis 3: When achievement striving is high, envy has (a) a negative direct relationship with voluntary absences and (b) a negative indirect relationship with voluntary turnover, through voluntary absences.

Method

Participants and Procedure

We conducted this study with employees of high-end supermarkets in Indonesia that offer exclusive shopping experiences and provide a competitive environment for employees working to please affluent customers. The employees operate across different sections within each supermarket (e.g., butchery, seafood, and delicatessen; fruits and vegetables; groceries; cashier). While at work, they have frequent interactions and can observe each other, which increases the likelihood of social comparisons to occur (Vecchio, 2005).

In the first phase of data collection, we administered surveys to the staff in training rooms of the supermarkets during normal work hours. Respondents were seated separately, and a

research assistant was present at all times to observe the survey completion process. This “exam-style” procedure was chosen to assure respondents of the confidentiality of their answers and to encourage them to respond frankly to sensitive envy questions relating to coworkers. Three months later, we obtained archival data from the company’s monitoring system.

Prior to data collection, we obtained a copy of the employee roster from the HR department to select the store staff members that we wanted to include in the study. First, we made sure that the selection of participants resembled the workforce composition of the supermarkets along demographic criteria such as gender and age. Second, to avoid the influence of spurious factors that may arise from changes of team leadership (Hollander & Offermann, 1990), we included only store staff members who had worked for three months or more for the same supervisor. Third, we selected only employees who were scheduled to work on the day that the survey was administered. Based on these criteria, we invited 692 store staff members (out of a total of 1,973 employees) to participate in the study.

We received completed surveys for 676 store staff members for a response rate among the selected employees of 97.7%. There was no financial incentive for participating, but most respondents indicated that they enjoyed the time off from work. The respondents worked across 147 teams in 23 stores (average store size = 85 employees, $SD = 33.02$, $Min = 39$, $Max = 189$). We received information regarding gender from 630 employees (430 male, 200 female), age from 628 employees ($M = 24$ years, $SD = 4.44$), and tenure from 626 employees ($M = 2.74$ years, $SD = 2.55$). There were 111 pre-selected employees who were not present on the day of data collection; they submitted their surveys via mail.²

² We compared participants that responded on the day of data collection with the participants that responded by mail. There was no difference between on-site respondents and mail-respondents regarding any study variables of interest. We also examined differences in the variables of interest between respondents who answered all demographic questions and those who provided no or incomplete answers to questions concerning gender, age, and tenure (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). We found that those who provided no or incomplete demographic information had higher scores on envy, voluntary absences, and turnover.

Measures

The items were translated from English to Bahasa Indonesian, following established procedures to check for semantic equivalence by way of back-translation (Brislin, 1986; Schaffer & Riordan, 2003).

Envy

We used Vecchio's (2005) measure of employee envy to assess contextual feelings of being envious. This measure has been extensively used in previous studies of envy in the workplace (e.g., Demirtas et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2012). Employees responded to five items (e.g., "Most of my coworkers have it better than I do") on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 7 = *always* ($\alpha = .74$).

Communion, Status, and Achievement Strivings

We assessed strivings with the Motivation Orientation Inventory (MOI; Barrick et al., 2002), using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. The communion striving scale consists of nine items, including "I focus my attention on getting along with others at work" ($\alpha = .79$). The status striving scale consists of eleven items, such as "I frequently think about ways to advance and obtain better pay or working conditions" ($\alpha = .88$). The achievement striving scale consists of eleven items, including "I try hard to get things done in my job" ($\alpha = .83$).

Voluntary Absenteeism and Turnover

Following the survey study, the HR department provided us with an account of absence days for each employee and the reason recorded for why the employee was absent over a period of three months. The record showed whether absenteeism was involuntary or voluntary (Hammer et al., 1981). Employees' absences are counted as voluntary when employees take time off or do not show up for work for any reason that is not related to work regulations or illness. We formed

a count for voluntary absences by summing up the days of voluntary absenteeism for each employee.³ The HR department also indicated who left the company during this time period. In sum, 87 participants⁴ (12.9%) voluntarily left the company—a rate that can be deemed usual given relevant industry reports for the specific industry and country of this study (Deloitte, 2019; Mercer, 2020a, 2020b).

Data Analyses

Employees were nested within teams and supermarkets, so we checked whether multilevel analyses were necessary. We found that the values for ICC(1) for envy (.03), communion striving (.01), status striving (.03), and accomplishment striving (.01) were below the threshold of .05 (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The ICC(1) values for voluntary absences and turnover were .16 and .14, respectively. These latter values warrant that we use moderated multilevel modeling (Hox, 2010)—specifically the MSEM framework by Preacher et al. (2011)—to test our hypotheses. Because the sample size at the store level was small ($N = 23$), we conducted two-level analyses at the team level ($N = 147$) as our main analyses, examining the effects at the individual level while controlling for any team-level effects to avoid biases in the variance estimates (Maas & Hox, 2005). Still, we also considered influences at the store level in further robustness checks.

Next, we examined whether we needed to include both fixed effects and random effects in our models at the team level, or whether fixed effects were sufficient. To do so, we followed established procedures (Hox, 2010; Snijders & Bosker, 2012) to calculate deviance scores that serve as indicators of model fit. When the random effects models show significantly lower

³ Employees' absences are counted as involuntary when they cannot go to work because they are sick, have surpassed the maximum amount of legal work hours, are on compulsory maternity leave, are attending a work-related training, or when force majeure prevents them from coming to work (e.g., store closed for inspection by Public Health officials, flooding, equipment malfunction, etc.).

⁴ Two additional participants left the company involuntarily—that is, the company terminated their work contract.

deviance scores than the fixed effects models, then the random effects models, which include both fixed and random effects, provide a better fit and should be used in further analyses. First, we entered envy, the three motivational strivings, and the corresponding two-way interactions as random effects in multilevel models; then we entered these variables as fixed effects only. The analyses of the differences of deviance scores showed that the model including random effects did not yield significant increases in model fit ($\chi^2[14] = 8.47, p = .864$), supporting the use of fixed effects only. In addition, we separately estimated slope variances at the three levels of analysis (individual, team, and store) for each of the model variables. For all variables, slope variances at the team level ($p \geq .201$) and store level ($p \geq .686$) were not significant, again supporting the use of fixed effects. Thus, our analyses focus on fixed effects only, and the results we report below are based on random intercept models with fixed slopes.

We used multilevel regression models for voluntary absences, and multilevel logistic regression models for voluntary turnover in Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). All models are fully saturated; thus, the χ^2 value and the degrees of freedom are zero. As effect sizes, we provide R^2 values for voluntary absences, and *Pseudo- R^2* values for voluntary turnover. Prior to the analyses, we grand-mean centered independent and moderator variables to avoid artificial multicollinearity (Cohen et al., 2003). As Mplus does not allow for latent variance decomposition of variables in logistic multilevel regression (for voluntary turnover), we group-mean centered voluntary absences in our analyses to reduce the impact of group-level dependence. Furthermore, Mplus does not allow for bootstrapping in multilevel models. Thus, we probed the conditional indirect effects using Monte-Carlo simulations with 20,000 repetitions to compute 95% confidence intervals (95% *CI*; Selig & Preacher, 2008). Interactions are plotted using a tool by Preacher et al. (2006) at values of 1 *SD* above and below the mean. In addition, we provide regions of significance at which the slope of envy turns significant.

Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliability estimates for all variables. We ran confirmatory factor analyses that supported the expected factor structure of motivational strivings and envy. Based on the factorial structure of underlying dimensions of the MOI (attention and direction, intensity and persistence, and arousal; Barrick et al., 2002), we built three-item parcels (Bandalos, 2002) for each striving (communion, achievement, and status striving). As several dimensions of all strivings only had two items, any correct model identification would be impossible (for a related argument see Credé, 2018). By parceling the items, we keep the dimensional structure of the MOI while also making the model fit evaluable. As envy does not have a dimensional structure, we used the five items. The fit indices of the four-factor model were excellent, $\chi^2(71) = 348.09$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .94, SRMR = .04, and significantly exceeded plausible alternative models where we collapsed different factors. It also exceeded fit of a one-factor model, where we collapsed all items to load onto one factor ($\chi^2[77] = 1243.94$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .15, CFI = .73, SRMR = .12): $\Delta\chi^2(6) = 895.85$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 1a indicated that the relationship between envy and voluntary absences is moderated by communion striving. As Table 2 shows, we found a significant two-way interaction of envy and communion striving in predicting voluntary absences (Model 1: estimate = .63, $SE = .19$, $\gamma = .20$, $p = .001$). As shown in Figure 2, when communion striving was high, there was a positive relationship between envy and voluntary absences ($b = .53$, $SE = .20$, $p = .007$). Regions of significance indicate that the positive slope of envy becomes significant at values of communion striving equal to and above 5.62 (0.49 SD above the mean). But when communion striving was low, envy was negatively related to voluntary absences ($b = -.50$, $SE = .18$, $p = .006$). Regions of significance indicate that the negative slope of envy becomes significant at

values of communion striving equal to and below 4.81 (0.51 *SD* below the mean). This finding supports Hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 1b suggested a first-stage moderated mediation model: communion striving strengthens the relationship between envy and voluntary absences, which contributes directly to turnover. Indeed, we found that voluntary absences were positively related to voluntary turnover (Table 2, Model 2b: estimate = .15, *SE* = .05, odds ratio = 1.16, *p* = .005). The conditional indirect effect was significant and positive when communion striving was high (estimate = .09, 95% CI [.02, .19]), in line with our theory and thus supporting Hypothesis 1b. We also found a negative envy-turnover relationship (through absences) when communion striving was low (estimate = -.09, 95% CI [-.19, -.02]).

Hypothesis 2a stated that the relationship between envy and voluntary absences is moderated by status striving. Table 2 shows that there was no significant two-way interaction between envy and status striving in predicting voluntary absences (Model 1: estimate = .16, *SE* = .17, $\gamma = .06$, *p* = .337). Thus, Hypothesis 2a is not supported by our results. In consequence, we also do not find support for Hypothesis 2b.

Hypothesis 3a suggested that the relationship between envy and voluntary absences is moderated by achievement striving. Table 2 shows that there was a significant two-way interaction between envy and achievement striving in predicting voluntary absences (Model 1: estimate = -.82, *SE* = .26, $\gamma = -.21$, *p* = .001). The interaction is shown in Figure 3. As expected, when achievement striving was high, envy was negatively related to voluntary absences (*b* = -.56, *SE* = .22, *p* = .010). Therefore, our initial analyses point to support for Hypothesis 3a; however, supplementary analyses, which we present in the next section, suggest some caution should be given to this interpretation. Regions of significance indicate that the negative slope of envy becomes significant at values of accomplishment striving equal to and above 6.12 (0.54 *SD* above

the mean). When achievement striving was low, we observed a positive relationship between envy and voluntary absences ($b = .59, SE = .20, p = .003$). Regions of significance indicate that the positive slope of envy becomes significant at values of accomplishment striving equal to and below 5.47 (0.38 *SD* below the mean).

In Hypothesis 3b, we predicted that the indirect effect of envy on voluntary turnover, as mediated by voluntary absences, is moderated by achievement striving. Resembling the pattern of findings for the test of Hypothesis 3a, the conditional indirect effect was significant and negative when achievement striving was high (estimate = $-.10$, 95% CI [$-.21, -.02$]), and significant and positive when achievement striving was low (estimate = $.11$, 95% CI [$.03, .21$]). In support of Hypothesis 3b, the findings are consistent with our predictions for high achievement striving.

Supplementary Analyses

As shown in the supplementary materials, to check the robustness of our results (Becker et al., 2016), we also evaluated the individual effects of each striving on the relationship between envy and absences in isolation (i.e., without controlling for the effects of the other strivings; Supplementary Table 1). Separate moderated multilevel regression analyses showed that the moderating effect for envy of communion striving was also significant and in the same direction when tested in isolation (Model 3a: estimate = $.35, SE = .15, \gamma = .11, p = .019$), whereas the moderating effect of achievement striving (Model 3c: estimate = $-.20, SE = .17, \gamma = -.05, p = .244$) was only significant in the presence of the effects of the other strivings. Therefore, the finding that when achievement striving was high, envy was negatively related to voluntary absences, as reported above, needs to be interpreted with caution.

Next, we included demographic covariates for gender, age, and organizational tenure (Supplementary Table 2). The moderating effects for envy of both communion striving (Model

4a: estimate = .68, $SE = .20$, $\gamma = .21$, $p = .001$) and achievement striving (Model 4a: estimate = -.77, $SE = .25$, $\gamma = -.20$, $p = .002$) were significant, in the same direction, and comparable in size.

Also, to exclude the possibility that our interaction effects actually capture non-linear relationships (Cortina, 1993), we included quadratic terms for our focal variables (Supplementary Table 3). The moderating effects for envy of both communion striving (Model 5a: estimate = .65, $SE = .19$, $\gamma = .20$, $p = .001$) and achievement striving (Model 5a: estimate = -.82, $SE = .25$, $\gamma = -.21$, $p = .001$) were still significant, in the same direction, and comparable in size, and these quadratic terms had no effect on voluntary absences or turnover.

We also confirmed that the significance and direction of the two-way interaction effects did not change when including the store level and store size as additional controls (Supplementary Table 4). Including the store level did not change our results. In addition, store size neither affected voluntary absences (Model 6a: estimate = -.00, $SE = .01$, $\gamma = -.03$, $p = .881$) nor voluntary turnover (Model 6b: estimate = -.00, $SE = .00$, $p = .660$).

Finally, we considered an alternative conceptual model with voluntary absences and turnover as two separate dependent variables rather than being linked in a mediational chain. As can be seen in Table 2 (Model 2a), we reviewed the direct interactive effects of envy and motivational strivings on turnover before entering voluntary absences as a predictor in the model. Interestingly, we found a positive relationship between envy and turnover (estimate = .27, $SE = .12$, odds ratio = 1.30, $p = .026$), but no significant direct interactive effects, supporting our conceptual model which casts motivational strivings as shaping the effect of envy on turnover indirectly, through absences.

Discussion

Our research highlights motivational strivings as important individual differences that shape the effects of envy on avoidance-oriented behaviors. We find that envy is associated with

increased absenteeism and ultimately turnover among those high in communion striving. For achievement strivers, we find that those who experience envy tend to be absent less often, which is associated with a reduced likelihood of quitting; however, this finding was less stable in additional robustness checks and should be interpreted with caution. Contrary to our predictions, status striving does not moderate the relationship between envy and avoidance behaviors. Our theory and findings offer several contributions to the growing literature on envy.

Theoretical Implications

First, we expand the nomological network of envy by examining its relationship with avoidance-oriented behaviors. The focus of extant work has been on “approach-oriented” (Gable et al., 2003) consequences of envy in which the envious individual acts in an agentic manner to minimize the discrepancy between the self and envied other, such as sabotage, social undermining, and on a more positive note, increased effort (Dineen et al., 2017; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006; Vecchio, 2007). Less is known about avoidance-oriented responses to envy, which do little to change the envious or envied person’s standing, such as avoiding colleagues or quitting work. Our examination of an outcome beyond “pulling down” the target(s) of envy or “moving up” the self (van de Ven et al., 2009, 2011) challenges the underlying notion pervasive across envy research that it prompts behavior to reduce the gap between the self and the envied. We thus build on the dominant perspective by examining *avoiding* the envied (via withdrawal) as an alternative behavioral response to envy. In this case, no explicit action is taken to reduce the gap between the self and envied other. Rather, individuals cope with the emotion by distancing themselves from the source. To our knowledge, the only extant evidence explicitly on envy and avoidance-oriented outcomes are Vecchio’s (1995, 1999, 2000) findings, each based on a single item, that envy was associated with propensity to quit, and Duffy and Shaw’s (2000) finding that envy among undergraduate team members was indirectly associated with missing class. Yet

research on emotion regulation points to situation selection as a possible way to cope with envy (Gross, 1998, 2015), such that employees withdraw and find an alternative setting for work (Grandey, 2000). We find that this avoidant response is particularly likely among those motivated to have harmonious relationships with their colleagues.

Second, most of the extant research has examined the detrimental consequences of feeling envy. Indeed, we find that envy is associated with more workplace withdrawal for some individuals. At the same time, by finding tentative evidence that envy may be associated with reduced absences, and ultimately turnover, among achievement strivers, our paper contributes to an emerging body of research on the complex nature of envy (Tai et al., 2012; van de Ven et al., 2009; van de Ven, 2017). Although scholars have noted that envy can lead to both positive and negative outcomes, few studies clarify *when* being envious of others is problematic (Brooks et al., 2019; Ganegoda & Bordia, 2019; Yu et al., 2018). As stated by Lee and Duffy (2019), “a critical step for advancing theory on envy is to understand conditions that promote constructive responses and curb destructive ones” (p. 1088). We thus respond to the latter part of this call for additional research to identify factors that dampen envy’s pernicious effects. This balanced view of envy is especially important in line with the social functional perspective of emotions (Keltner & Haidt, 1999), which indicates that envy can coordinate interpersonal interactions in adaptive ways (Crusius & Lange, 2017; Lee & Duffy, 2019).

Beyond these core contributions, our research holds several further implications for the literature on envy. For instance, we identify an interesting tension for communion strivers. Extant research suggests that a communal orientation can buffer against negative effects of envy, as high social identification with coworkers mitigates the (positive) relationship between envy and social undermining (Duffy et al., 2012), and a shared sense of group identity mitigates feelings of envy toward high performers (Kim & Glomb, 2014). Yet in our research, we find that those with a

communal orientation have a problematic response to envy when it comes to avoidance behaviors. Although emotion regulation in general can induce strain (Côté, 2005), avoidance strategies are particularly deleterious for one's psychological health (De Castella et al., 2018). To the extent that absenteeism mostly hurts the employee feeling envy, in contrast to sabotage, which harms the envied, the integration of our findings with existing envy research starts to reveal an interesting pattern: for communally-oriented individuals, envy harms the self but not necessarily the envied. This paradox suggests that the bifurcation of threat- and challenge-based responses to envy becomes more complicated when considering avoidance outcomes.

More broadly, we highlight the critical role of individual differences among employees experiencing envy, adding to previous studies that have focused on features of the targets of envy or perceptions of the work environment (e.g., Dineen et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2012; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006). The role of individual differences has been largely ignored or downplayed in existing research on workplace envy (Ganegoda & Bordia, 2019), as well as in emotional regulation research (Eldesouky & Gross, 2019). This is surprising given that emotional experiences are filtered and appraised through one's motives and goals (Conroy et al., 2017; Yih et al., 2019). By integrating the study of emotions with research on individual differences, we open up new avenues to better understand varied effects of emotions at work.

Limitations and Future Directions

A limitation of this research is the cross-sectional nature of the data. Although we received archival data directly from the company pertaining to avoidance behaviors, employees provided self-reports for the other constructs. Thus, common method variance bias is a concern (Podsakoff et al., 2012). The magnitude of this issue is somewhat reduced given different sources for our predictor/moderator variables and the behavioral outcomes (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Furthermore, interaction effects are typically less likely (rather than more likely) to reach

significance when there is common method variance bias, mitigating concerns about our results involving moderation (Siemsen et al., 2010). Still, because envy and motivational strivings were reported at the same point in time, we are unable to ascertain how motivational strivings shape the development of envy in the first place. For example, it may be that individuals who are communally-oriented are less likely to feel envy, but once they do, its implications for workplace avoidance behaviors are more deleterious. Consequently, we cannot infer causality from the identified relationships, nor can we assert that envy and strivings are completely orthogonal (the correlation between envy and each striving is relatively low, ranging from .03 to .13). Thus, future research should further investigate the interplay of feeling envious and various strivings at work. We believe that additional research with other methods, such as experimental and longitudinal designs, would bolster our understanding around the causal relationship between envy and motivational strivings.

Although we found as hypothesized that absences mediate the moderated relationship between envy and turnover (contingent upon strivings), our analyses also showed that envy unexpectedly has a direct, positive association with turnover. Turnover is a more extreme type of situation selection than being absent, as it reflects a definitive and permanent decision to part with one's organization (Herzberg et al., 1957). Given the painful nature of envy, it is perhaps not surprising that this negative emotion prompts employees to quit; likely, some employees engage in affective forecasting when they feel envy, anticipating that leaving the organization is the most viable option for relieving their pain permanently (Elfenbein, 2008). Interestingly, the direct envy-turnover relationship was not moderated by motivational strivings, suggesting that employees quit work when they feel envious even if this emotion is coupled with achievement goals. As Gross (2015) points out, individuals actively monitor emotion regulation efforts, changing their tactic if a given strategy fails to facilitate desired outcomes. Hence, if employees

notice that envy persists, they may come to see that their initial emotion regulation strategy has failed, prompting them to exit no matter what they strive for. Also, it is likely that the decision to leave entails other factors that affect envy, but without the influence of motivational strivings. When envy is an ongoing source of pain for employees, it may push their withdrawal cognitions to prompt turnover regardless of their goals (Griffeth et al., 2000). Additional research would help shed light on the unique mechanisms that link envy directly to turnover.

Our research also does not examine the micro-mechanisms behind the divergent reactions to envy. The aim of our work was to understand when envy is associated with more or less workplace avoidance, and additional work is needed to specify precisely why communion and achievement strivers respond differently. It may be that communion strivers engage in hedonic emotion regulation to reduce the intensity of this unpleasant emotion, whereas achievement strivers are more instrumentally focused and actually feel motivated to work harder. A deeper look into the appraisal patterns of employees who feel envy based on their underlying strivings, including the psychological processes behind threat- versus challenge-based responses, is a fruitful avenue for future work. Given that the absence of withdrawal does not, *ipso facto*, constitute a constructive response, this would further delineate when and why envy prompts avoidance- versus approach-oriented behaviors.

In contrast to our predictions, status striving does not affect the relationship between envy and absences. One possible explanation for these null findings is that envy could elicit competing reactions from status strivers, as envy may be simultaneously threatening and motivating to those who desire respect and rank. Therefore, our null findings may actually reflect a tension of wanting to withdraw to restore one's self-esteem but also stay engaged in an attempt to gain status. It is also possible that envy did not interact with status striving due to the nature of our particular sample or our focus on avoidance behaviors. Status striving may be a more potent force

in highly competitive organizations and/or national cultures or when outcomes relate to undermining others' standing. Interestingly, envy can prompt individuals to provide dependency-oriented help to their envied targets in a way to maintain the target's reliance on them (Montal-Rosenberg & Moran, in press). Given that status strivers seek admiration from and control over others, it would be interesting to explore the relationship between envy and status striving on power-laden outcomes such as helping and mentoring.

Another important point relates to the interplay of communion and achievement strivings in affecting the relationship between envy and voluntary absences. Our analyses showed that communion striving and achievement striving had a significant moderating effect (and status striving had no effect) when the interactions between envy and all strivings were included in the model. Follow-up analyses that looked at the moderating effect of each striving separately showed that the moderating effect of communion striving was again significant and the moderating effect of status striving was again not significant. The moderating effect of achievement striving, however, changed such that it was no longer significant. This could indicate that there is a risk that the significant moderating effect of achievement striving is due to a statistical suppression effect that occurs when two positively correlated factors have opposite effects on the dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2003). For the future, we encourage scholars to study in more detail how strivings relate to one another in shaping a variety of workplace behaviors.

Additionally, experiences of envy vary by culture (Salovey & Rothman, 1991). In our study, the supermarket employees worked in a cultural context that deviates from Western contexts prevalent in much organizational behavior research (Shenkar & Von Glinow, 1994). Yet, the Indonesian population makes up a significant portion of the workforce. In terms of population, Indonesia is the fourth largest country in the world, and in terms of GDP adjusted to

purchasing power parity, it is the seventh largest economy (International Monetary Fund, 2019). Yet, despite Indonesia's significance to the world economy, the country has received scant attention from scholars. Therefore, we believe our Indonesian context helps broaden the cultural scope of managerial research, though we recognize the generalizability of our findings may be limited (Johns, 2006). We encourage additional research to better understand cultural differences in the extent to which people feel envious of others in the first place and avoidance-oriented reactions to envy. Because Indonesian culture tends to be collectivistic (Hofstede Insights, 2018), as opposed to the individualistic culture in Western societies like the United States (Earley, 1993; Kim et al., 1990), one fruitful avenue for future work is to examine how envy affects avoidance behaviors in individualistic cultures, in which feelings of envy may be more threatening to self-esteem. In a related sense, we encourage additional research on the extent to which employees attempt to hide their envy from others based on motivational strivings and cultural norms, as ongoing emotional suppression increases employees' intentions to quit (Côté & Morgan, 2002).

Practical Implications

Our findings suggest that envy is associated with absenteeism, and eventually turnover, for communion strivers and achievement strivers—but in opposite directions. Given how costly turnover is for organizations (Podsakoff et al., 2007), it is imperative for managers to think critically about structures and practices that are likely to stimulate social comparison processes (Grandey et al., 2018). For example, although “employee of the month” designations and peer recognition awards are intended to reward outstanding employees (Duffy et al., 2008), they may also become a source of envy, especially if they are highly public, individualistic, or come with additional rewards like a monetary bonus (Ganegoda & Bordia, 2019; Luthans, 2000; Puranik et al., 2019). For those who strive for communion at work, our research suggests that they may withdraw and quit if recognition awards evoke envy and jeopardize their relationships in the

workplace. Depending on the strivings of their employees, managers should thus carefully consider how to leverage organizational practices involving social comparison processes for the benefit of, rather than at the expense of, encouraging employees to show up for and stay in their jobs. Especially for jobs involving high levels of task interdependence or team work, to which communally-oriented individuals are drawn (McClelland, 1987), managers should be careful about setting up zero-sum or competitive atmospheres, as experiences of envy in these situations should be especially threatening to communal goals (Barrick et al., 2002; Duffy et al., 2008). Individuals and organizations may be well served by setting interdependent goals, such that employees come to see their coworkers' successes as their own successes (Dogan & Vecchio, 2001; Vecchio, 2007).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the concept of envy has captured the attention of philosophers, leaders of religious organizations, and society at large (Vecchio, 1995), and it will continue to be pertinent to organizational life as the nature of work evolves. Our study suggests that envy is a "green-eyed monster" for communion strivers in the workplace, who respond to envy with more absenteeism and ultimately turnover. The monster seems less banishing for those who seek to excel at work, as our findings suggest that achievement strivers are less likely to enact avoidance behaviors when they experience envy. In contrast, status striving does not moderate the relationship between envy and avoidance behaviors. If our research has one overriding message, it is thus that envy affects people differently depending on the goals for which they strive.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Cronbach's Alpha Reliabilities

	<i>N_{within}</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Gender	630	1.32	0.47								
2 Age	628	23.68	4.44	-.09*							
3 Organizational Tenure	626	32.93	30.65	.03	.73**						
4 Envy	676	2.42	1.01	-.06	-.00	.03	(.74)				
5 Communion Striving	676	5.28	0.81	-.13**	-.12**	-.12**	.10**	(.79)			
6 Status Striving	676	5.22	0.93	-.07	-.02	-.00	.13**	.66**	(.88)		
7 Achievement Striving	676	5.74	0.70	.02	-.04	-.05	.03	.65**	.65**	(.83)	
8 Voluntary Absences	676	2.50	2.83	-.07	.14**	.13**	.02	.02	-.05	-.04	
9 Voluntary Turnover	676	0.13	0.34	.02	-.06	-.04	.09*	-.01	-.02	-.01	.12**

Note. *N_{between}* = 147; gender (1 = male, 2 = female); age in years; organizational tenure in months; **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

Table 2

Moderated Multilevel Regression Analyses on Voluntary Absences

	Voluntary Absences		Voluntary Turnover			
	Model 1		Model 2a		Model 2b	
	Est. (s.e.)	γ	Est. (s.e.)	OR	Est. (s.e.)	OR
<i>Within-level</i>						
Intercept/Threshold	2.46** (.13)		2.14** (.18)		2.19** (.19)	
Voluntary Absences					.15** (.05)	1.16
Envy	.01 (.11)	.01	.27* (.12)	1.30	.27* (.12)	1.31
Communion Striving (CoS)	.27 (.24)	.08	-.06 (.22)	.94	-.09 (.21)	.92
Status Striving (StS)	-.18 (.20)	-.06	-.11 (.18)	.90	-.08 (.18)	.93
Achievement Striving (AcS)	-.23 (.24)	-.06	.11 (.29)	1.12	.15 (.29)	1.16
Envy x CoS	.63** (.19)	.20	.19 (.23)	1.21	.11 (.22)	1.11
Envy x StS	.16 (.17)	.06	-.00 (.22)	1.00	-.02 (.22)	.99
Envy x AcS	-.82** (.26)	-.21	-.34 (.26)	.71	-.26 (.26)	.77
R^2		.04*		.03		.07*
ΔR^2						.04**

Note. $N_{within} = 676$; $N_{between} = 147$, between-level information has been omitted; predictor variables have been grand-mean centered; in Model 2b, voluntary absences has been group-mean centered; values of R^2 for voluntary absences and *Pseudo-R*² for voluntary turnover are reported; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Conceptual Model

Figure 2. Simple Slopes of Envy x Communion Striving for Voluntary Absences

Figure 3. Simple Slopes of Envy x Achievement Striving for Voluntary Absences

Figure 1
Conceptual Model

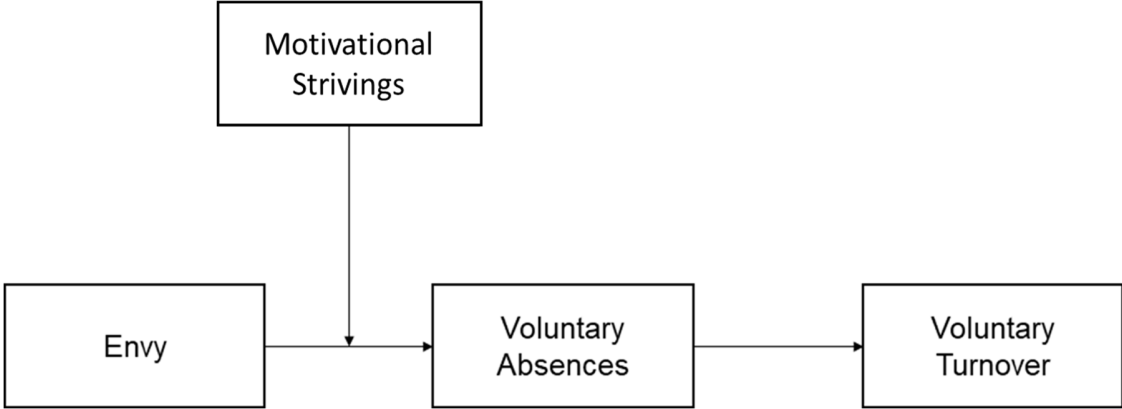


Figure 2

Simple Slopes of Envy x Communion Striving for Voluntary Absences

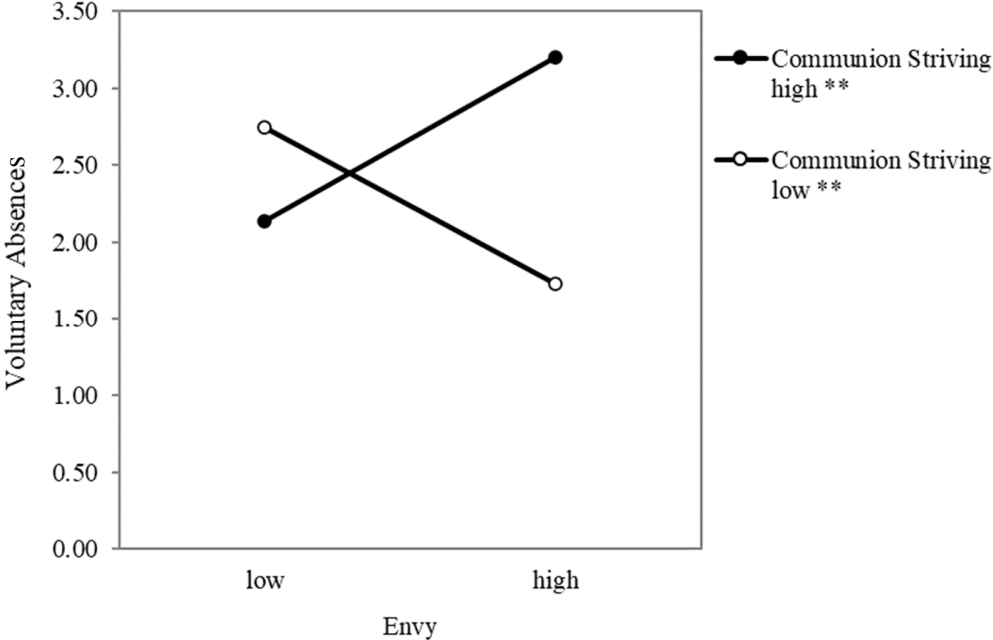


Figure 3

Simple Slopes of Envy x Achievement Striving for Voluntary Absences

