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Envy Influences Interpersonal Dynamics and Team Performance: Roles of Gender Congruence and Collective Team Identification

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Our research extends past envy research by considering how envy and gender congruence shape interpersonal dynamics at the dyadic level and their bottom-up effects for team performance. Integrating social comparison theory and social identity theory, we examine when and how dyadic level envy influences team performance. Using time-lagged data from 428 dyads of 161 employees in 51 teams, our results show that envious employees are likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied team members and that envied employees are likely to seek advice from envious team members. Gender congruence further influences these relationships, with different patterns for males and females. Specifically, while envious male employees are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance toward envied male team members (i.e., male–male dyads), envied female team members are more likely to ask envious female employees for advice (i.e., female–female dyads). Interpersonal dynamics involving envy have performance implications, such that team performance is worse where envious employees are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied team members, in comparison to teams where this relationship is weaker. Finally, collective team identification mitigates the negative effect of envious employees' interpersonal deviance on team performance.

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Social comparison is pervasive in organizations. Employees often compare themselves with successful coworkers to assess their self-worth and standing in the organization (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007). Relative evaluations regarding workplace achievements, such as awards, promotions, and opportunities to lead new projects, have a significant impact on how employees feel about and behave toward successful coworkers (Fehr & Schmidt, 1999; Pfeffer & Langton, 1993). One of the most predominant reactions to unfavorable social comparisons is envy (Duffy, Shaw, & Schaubroeck, 2008)—a painful emotion arising from upward social comparisons in which an individual desires to have superior qualities, achievements, and possessions to another (Parrott & Smith, 1993; Tai et al., 2012).

Envy, as a social emotion, influences both the envier and the envied (see Duffy, Lee, & Adair, 2021, for a review). Management theory explains that interactions and relationships that connect two individuals together form the bedrock of organizational phenomena (e.g., Granovetter, 1985; Simon, 1945; Weick, 1969). For example, deference, rivalry, and helping essentially occur in dyads, and the patterns of these interactions emerge to influence team effectiveness. However, there is little empirical work examining the bottom-up effects of dyadic interactions on team dynamics (see Joshi, 2014; Joshi & Knight, 2015; Van der Vegt, Bunderson, & Oosterhof, 2006, for exceptions). We posit that envy originates at the dyadic level and exists across multiple dyads within the team to influence interpersonal dynamics and team functioning.

In our current research, we integrate social comparison theory and social identity theory to examine when and how dyadic envy influences team performance. Social comparison theory posits that people compare themselves with others when objective information is unavailable and use strategies to cope with the threat of upward social comparison (Festinger, 1954). Drawing on social comparison theory, we propose that within a dyad an envier and an envied target will cope with envy differently by engaging in different interpersonal behaviors directed toward each other. Specifically, we suggest that enviers engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied targets, while envied targets are likely to seek advice from enviers. First, interpersonal deviance refers to a specific form of workplace behavior that violates significant organizational norms and is detrimental to employee well-being (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Thus, interpersonal deviance can be a way to reduce an envied target's advantages and diminish the status gap between enviers and envied targets (Exline & Lobel, 1999; Tai et al., 2022). Second, advice seeking is a way to gather information from others for forming opinions, attitudes, and judgments (Bonaccio & Dalal, 2006). We propose that envied targets are likely to seek advice from envious individuals because advice seeking can be a useful coping strategy in organizations that employees may use to ingratiate themselves with envious coworkers and alleviate envy.

By adopting a dyadic approach, we not only examine the impact of envy directed at a particular coworker, but also identify a key dyad-specific feature that shapes the influence of envy's influence. We consider how dyadic characteristics between the envious and the

envied further affect envy's impact on interpersonal deviance and advice seeking. Social comparison theory suggests that perceived similarity not only forms the primary basis of social comparison, but also influences the degree to which social comparison matters (Festinger, 1954; Gerber, Wheeler, & Suls, 2018; Mussweiler, 2003). Building on this perspective, we introduce gender congruence—whether the envier has the same gender as the envied target—as a critical dyadic property. Despite the important role of gender in social comparison processes (Crocker & Blanton, 1999; Miller, 1984), organizational research on envy has often treated gender as a control rather than a focal variable and has paid little attention to gender effects in understanding workplace envy (e.g., Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper, & Aquino, 2012; Kim & Glomb, 2014). We choose to examine gender congruence as a moderator because gender is a fundamental surface-level characteristic that is immediately perceived (Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000), serves as a reference for social judgments (Biernat, 2003; Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1999), and is a salient basis for similarity that significantly influences the consequences of social comparison (Van Dijk, Ouwerkerk, Goslinga, Nieweg, & Gallucci, 2006). We propose gender congruence as a dyadic characteristic that strengthens envy's effects on interpersonal deviance and advice seeking.

We further draw on social identity theory to understand the bottom-up effects of envy's interpersonal consequences on team performance. Social identity theory proposes that people define and evaluate themselves in social groups where they are motivated to achieve a positive self-concept through a sense of belongingness with these groups (Hogg, 2000; Tajfel, 1972). In our context, we propose that while interpersonal deviance is a negative behavior that is socially disapproved, advice seeking is a positive ingratiating behavior that is socially encouraged. From the lens of social identity theory, in teams where envy is more strongly associated with interpersonal deviance (advice seeking), we argue that the rest of the team members are likely to categorize envious and envied members as non-prototypical outgroup (prototypical ingroup) members. As a result, team members will be less (more) likely to like them, which can negatively (positively) influence team functioning and performance.

According to social identity theory, intragroup comparisons often occur within the context of higher-order similarity (Hornsey & Hogg, 2002; Turner, 1975), suggesting that superordinate identity may shape envy's effects on team performance. Building on this perspective, we examine collective team identification—the emotional significance that team members attach to their membership in the group (Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005)—as a moderator of the bottom-up effects of an envier's interpersonal behaviors on team performance. This is because the superordinate team identity is likely to influence how team members categorize one another as in-group members, rather than as out-group members, and affect team dynamics.

Our study contributes to the envy and team literatures in three ways. First, we integrate social comparison theory and social identity theory to understand when and how dyadic envy may affect team performance. This integrative approach allows us to broaden the scope of inquiry and provide theoretical insights on the consequences of envy across different levels. Second, we contribute to the envy literature by emphasizing the role of gender in understanding envy and interpersonal behaviors in dyadic relationships. Given that gender is central to defining one's identity, it is salient for self-evaluation (Wheeler & Zuckerman, 1977), and has significant implications on the consequences of social comparison (Suls,

Gaes, & Gastorf, 1979). In particular, we demonstrate that gender congruence is a specific form of demographic similarity, which can strengthen the effects of envy on interpersonal deviance and advice seeking. Third, we answer recent calls for more bottom-up theory in organizational research (Ployhart & Hendricks, 2019). We start with envy and its associated behavioral reactions in dyads before offering an expanded view on whether and how interpersonal consequences following envy influence team performance. In doing so, we provide a more complex perspective of envy by articulating its functional and dysfunctional consequences as well as the dyadic and team characteristics that shape these outcomes. Our conceptual model is illustrated in Figure 1.

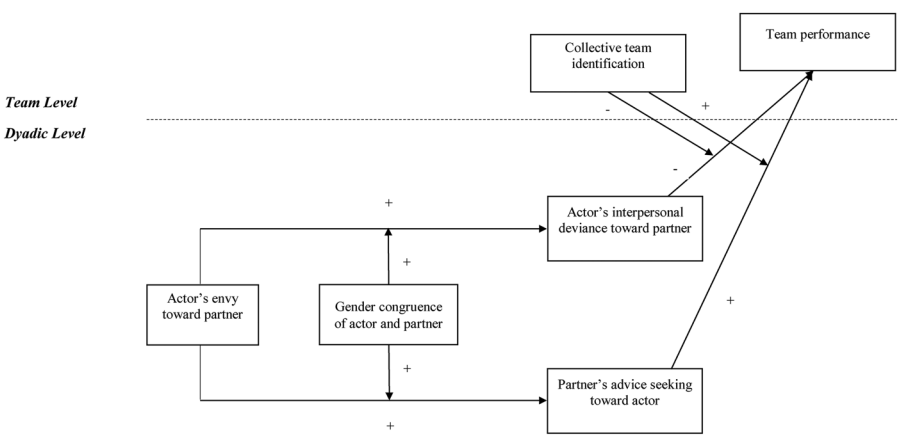
Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

Behavioral Responses to Envy: Interpersonal Deviance and Advice Seeking

Social comparison research suggests that people prefer to compare themselves with similar others whose performances are better than theirs, for the purposes of self-evaluation and self-improvement (e.g., Collins, 1996; Taylor & Lobel, 1989; Wood, 1989), even if it is threatening to their self-concept (see Gerber et al., 2018, for a review). Within the social comparison literature, one of the well-documented findings is that upward social comparison may evoke a sense of inferiority and negative emotions (e.g., Brickman & Bulman, 1977; Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Tesser, 1999). One predominant emotion that arises from these upward social comparisons is envy (Lange & Crusius, 2015; Parrott & Smith, 1993).

Although some scholars view envy as having two distinct forms—benign (i.e., envy without hostility and associated with a moving-up motivation) and malicious (i.e., envy with hostility and associated with a pulling-down motivation; e.g., Lange & Crusius, 2015; Van de Ven, Zeelenberg, & Pieters, 2009)—others view envy as a singular emotion of

Figure 1
Proposed Theoretical Model



pain at another's good fortune that may result in both positive and negative outcomes (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Larson, 2017; Tai et al., 2012). Recently, Lange and colleagues (2018) suggest that envy involves pain about being inferior and can take both benign and malicious forms as it evolves. In our research, we adopt the position and conceptualization of envy as a singular emotion. This conceptualization is more parsimonious and aligned with the original view of envy since antiquity (cf. Plato, 2007/360 BCE), as well as with recent treatment of envy (e.g., Dineen, Duffy, Henle, & Lee, 2017; Lange, Weidman, & Crusius, 2018; Lee & Duffy, 2019; Puranik, Koopman, Vough, & Gamache, 2019).

Drawing on social comparison theory, we propose that enviers and envied targets cope with the threat of envy in different ways (Alicke & Zell, 2008; Johnson, 2012). When people experience threatening upward social comparisons, they are motivated to alleviate the discomfort caused by these threatening comparisons (Johnson, 2012). In our context, enviers may seek to restore balance and "let off steam" by behaving in a deviant fashion toward envied targets (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997) and diminishing the status gap. By engaging in interpersonal deviance directed toward the envied targets (e.g., spreading rumors and gossiping about them), enviers may tarnish the envied targets' reputation and reduce their status. Moreover, interpersonal deviance is a particularly attractive strategy to cope with envy because it is covert and insidious, and hence less likely to trigger negative reciprocal exchanges from the envied target, as compared to more overt negative interpersonal behaviors, such as harassment and abuse (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). In addition, interpersonal deviance can impair the target's task performance (Kluemper, DeGroot, & Choi, 2013). Overall, enviers engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward the envied targets in an attempt to bring them down and reduce the status gap, and, to that end, resolve their feelings of envy (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Tai et al., 2022). In line with past empirical work (Duffy et al., 2012; Lee & Duffy, 2019; Reh, Tröster, & Van Quaquebeke, 2018), we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: An employee's (actor) envy toward a team member (partner) is positively related to interpersonal deviance directed toward the team member (partner).

We shift our focus to consider envied targets and their behavioral reactions in response to others' envy toward them. In the current research, we focus on the socio-functional role of advice seeking and propose that envied targets are likely to seek advice from envious individuals. Specifically, we draw on the framework of sensitivity about being the target of a threatening upward comparison (STTUC) and suggest that when employees perceive themselves to be a target of upward comparison (i.e., envied target), they may be motivated to reduce their psychological discomfort by seeking advice from envious coworkers. Building on the broader social comparison theory, STTUC theory switches its focus from the comparer to the comparison target and theorizes the psychological reactions and behaviors of upward comparison targets (Exline & Lobel, 1999). It proposes that individuals who perceive themselves to be a threatening target of upward social comparison, in particular an envied target, may feel distressed and concerned about being regarded as a threat to others (Exline & Lobel, 1999; 2001).

Existing research suggests that people are likely to be aware that others envy them. According to the social monitoring system model, people scan and detect environmental cues that may interfere with belongingness needs, with envy as an example of an unpleasant

interpersonal emotion (Pickett & Gardner, 2005). For instance, people may use different cues to detect envy, such as noticing when others act less friendly, change the tone of their conversation, or even explicitly express their envy (Mosquera, Parrott, & Hurtado de Mendoza, 2010). Indeed, Lee and colleagues (2018) found that envy reported by a team member was significantly related to perceptions of being envied reported by the target team member.

According to STTUC theory, outperformers—individuals who achieve better results than others in particular tasks—may attempt to cope with the discomfort of outperforming others and the interpersonal strain that they may pose in various ways (see Zell, Exline, & Lobel, 2020, for a review). STTUC theory does not explicitly specify the behaviors that outperformers engage in to reduce the discomfort. However, existing research shows that outperformers respond in several ways. For example, outperformers may avoid the outperformed target (Exline, Zell, & Lobel, 2013) or attempt to appease the outperformed target by sharing resources and engaging in self-deprecation (Zell & Exline, 2010). We extend STTUC theory by proposing advice seeking as a proactive appeasement strategy that aims to reduce the relational threat and discomfort of being envied. Specifically, we focus on work-related advice, which involves seeking information to reformulate work issues and generate solutions for problems that lend legitimacy and credibility to the seeker's work (Cross, Borgatti, & Parker, 2001).

When envied targets—who are perceived to be more successful by enviers—seek enviers for work-related advice, it signals to the enviers that envied targets implicitly acknowledge their useful work-related expertise, wisdom, and knowledge (Borgatti & Cross, 2003; Brooks, Gino, & Schweitzer, 2015). In other words, as envied targets seek advice from enviers, they attempt to decrease interpersonal strain by acknowledging the enviers' competence and creating the perception that they are valuable and reliable team members, thereby improving interpersonal relationships (Aguinis, Nesler, Hosoda, & Tedeschi, 1994). Furthermore, being sought out for advice, similar to being praised and complimented, boosts the target's ego (Brooks et al., 2015). Indeed, research has shown that targets tend to form more positive impressions of people who seek advice from them than those who do not (Brooks et al., 2015).

In comparison to prosocial or helping behavior, advice seeking may arguably be more effective in reducing envy because enviers may perceive helping as a threat to their self-esteem (e.g., Deelstra et al., 2003; Fisher, Nadler, & Whitcher-Alagna, 1982). Moreover, enviers may attribute that envied help givers are intentionally helping them to make them appear less competent (Thompson & Bolino, 2018), which may exacerbate envy. Furthermore, envied targets have to be cautious about providing socio-emotional support because it can potentially backfire as enviers may perceive it as a deliberate and ungenuine act, and its effectiveness may depend on the relationship quality between the two parties (e.g., friendship). In contrast, work-related advice seeking is a low-risk and low-cost ingratiating strategy (Cialdini, 2001; Jones, 1964) that can reduce relational threats between the envier and the envied (Lee, Duffy, Scott, & Schippers, 2018) and the discomfort of being envied. Overall, we suggest that as envied targets seek advice from enviers, envied targets attempt to improve enviers' attitudes toward them and reduce feelings of envy as well as their own discomfort of being envied.

Hypothesis 2: An employee's (actor) envy toward a team member (partner) is positively related to advice seeking from the team member (partner) directed toward the employee (actor).

The Moderating Role of Gender Congruence

We further propose that gender congruence is an integral dyadic property that can influence enviers' and envied targets' behavioral reactions. Gender is a fundamental and observable demographic attribute (Eagly et al., 2000) that serves as a salient basis for similarity and shapes the effects of social comparison (Festinger, 1954; Major, 1994; Messick & Mackie, 1989; Van Dijk et al., 2006). Past research has found that in adolescence and childhood, people form their self-concept by comparing themselves with others of the same gender (Larson & Verma, 1999; Suls et al., 1979). Hence, when enviers are the same gender as envied targets, the social comparison is more likely to affect their self-concept and be perceived as threatening.

Within the envy literature, there are only a handful of studies examining how perceived similarity moderates the effects of envy on affective and behavioral outcomes. More specifically, Duffy and colleagues (2012) report that perceived similarity, operationalized as social identification, weakens the effect of envy on social undermining via moral disengagement. However, departing from the findings of Duffy and colleagues (2012), Van Dijk and colleagues (2006) showed that envy predicts schadenfreude when the envied target is the same gender as the envious individual, but not when they are different genders. Our research provides more nuanced insights into this stream of work by highlighting that the type of perceived similarity matters in determining the consequences of envy. Specifically, we propose that envy is more strongly associated with enviers' interpersonal deviance and envied targets' advice seeking when enviers are the same (vs. different) gender as envied targets.

Social comparison research suggests that assimilative (contrastive) effects occur when people perceive themselves to be more (less) similar to the superior target and experience social comparison-based emotions (Buunk, Zurriaga, Peiró, Nauta, & Gosalvez, 2005; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997). Extending this observation, we propose that perceived similarity may also influence whether people have assimilative or contrastive reactions to envy. According to social categorization theory, people generally assume and expect that others who share similar surface-level characteristics (e.g., gender) will also share more similar deep-level characteristics (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, and performance levels) as themselves (Phillips & Loyd, 2006). When this belief is violated (as in the case of an envy situation), people tend to respond more negatively to others who share similar (vs. dissimilar) surface-level characteristics (Phillips, 2003; Phillips & Loyd, 2006). In our context, this suggests that when people are of the same gender as comparison targets, they expect themselves to possess a similar level of work success, a deep-level characteristic, as the comparison targets, which should engender assimilative reactions. However, when this expectation is violated as in an envy situation, they experience more contrastive reactions to envy and engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward the envied targets. Supporting our arguments, balance theory proposes that people expect that similar individuals "ought" to receive similar advantages and this expectation is violated when similar others receive an advantage that they do not (Heider, 1958). Overall, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: Gender congruence moderates the positive relationship between an employee's (actor) envy and interpersonal deviance directed toward a team member (partner), such that

the positive relationship is stronger when the employee (actor) is the same gender as the team member (partner).

To reiterate, the STTUC framework proposes that envied team members experience psychological discomfort when they perceive that they are targets of threatening upward comparison, and are concerned about potential negative reactions (Exline & Lobel, 1999, 2001). When enviers and envied targets are the same gender, targets are more likely to perceive that their superior advantages will evoke envy (Heider, 1958), which exacerbates their psychological discomfort (Exline & Lobel, 1999; Miner & Longino, 1987). Specifically, we argue that since people tend to compare themselves with similar others who are superior to them (Festinger, 1954; Mussweiler, 2003), it may be the case that people perceive similar others to be viewing them as upward comparison targets. Building on STTUC, we suggest that when enviers are of the same (vs. different) gender as envied targets, envied targets are more likely to think that enviers view them as a threat and thus experience heightened discomfort. For example, in a study in which college students recalled a past incident of outperformance, those who outperformed someone of the same gender were more likely to experience relationship strain than those who outperformed someone of the opposite gender (Exline & Lobel, 1997). To cope with this discomfort, envied targets attempt to appease the enviers by seeking advice from them. In summary, we argue that the psychological discomfort exacerbated by gender congruence further increases the likelihood that envied targets (partners) will seek advice from enviers (actors) as envied targets are more motivated to counter envy and reduce relationship strain.

Hypothesis 4: Gender congruence moderates the positive relationship between an employee's (actor) envy and advice seeking from a team member (partner) directed toward the employee (actor), such that the positive relationship is stronger when the employee (actor) is the same gender as the team member (partner).

Bottom-Up Effects of Envy-Interpersonal Dynamics Link on Team Performance

Next, we argue that interpersonal dynamics shaped by envy have implications for team performance. We examine bottom-up effects for team performance (cf. Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007), and, more specifically, develop predictions about how team performance is influenced where employees engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied targets and envied targets ask enviers for advice.

We predict that teams perform worse where envious individuals are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied team members, in comparison to teams where this relationship is weaker. According to social identity theory, in groups, the basis of evaluations of and feelings for team members is transformed from personal identity to group identity which is based on group prototypicality (i.e., the extent to which a member is perceived to be similar to the group prototype; Hogg, 1993; see Hogg & Terry, 2000, for a review). From this standpoint, in teams where envious individuals are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied team members, team members are more likely to perceive envious and envied members as being non-prototypical members, which decreases intragroup liking. Indeed, Hogg and Hardie (1991) show that the less team members perceive one another as being prototypical of the group, the lower the group-based liking for fellow members. Because of such self-categorization processes, team

dynamics may be adversely affected (Turner & Reynolds, 2010), which can have a negative impact on team performance (Mesmer-Magnus, Asencio, Seely, & DeChurch, 2018). In line with this observation, past research has found that when two or more members of a team evaluate one another with heightened focus on and perceptions of their non-group prototypicality and non-shared membership, team members will have unfavorable attitudes and outlook of the team (see Hogg, 1993, for a review).

Hypothesis 5: Team performance will be lower in teams where envious individuals are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied team members, as compared to teams where this relationship is weaker.

In contrast, we predict that teams perform better where envied team members ask envious individuals for advice as compared to other teams where this relationship is weaker. Envied targets are likely to have higher status and stronger influence on team members (Lange et al., 2018). When they solicit advice, they convey confidence to anyone they consult (Spreitzer, 1995). Furthermore, people generally have overall positive self-images (e.g., Taylor & Brown, 1988) and enjoy even insincere flattery (e.g., Chan & Sengupta, 2010; Merkle & Weber, 2011). Hence, advice seeking can be a complimenting, ingratiating tactic (Jones, 1964) that promotes stronger interpersonal relationships (Aguinis et al., 1994), cooperation (Rico, Sánchez-Manzanares, Gil, & Gibson, 2008; Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007), and positive reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) between the envious team member and the envied target. Therefore, based on social identity theory, in teams where envied team members are more likely to solicit envious individuals for advice, team members are likely to perceive them as prototypical ingroup members of the team, which increases intragroup liking. Consequently, higher levels of intragroup liking are likely to translate to positive team functioning and dynamics (see Hogg, 1993 and Hogg & Terry, 2000, for reviews), resulting in higher team performance.

Hypothesis 6: Team performance will be higher in teams where envied team members are more likely to seek advice from envious individuals, as compared to teams where this relationship is weaker.

The Moderating Role of Collective Team Identification

Thus far, we have considered how the interpersonal dynamics of dyadic envy may differentially affect team performance. Drawing on social identity theory, collective team identification plays a critical role in shaping how team members categorize one another as in-group members and influences intragroup liking (see Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Flynn, 2005; Hogg, 2000; Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). Therefore, collective team identification is likely to affect team members' perceptions of and feelings toward enviers who engage in interpersonal deviance and envied targets who engage in advice seeking, which ultimately influences team performance. Given the importance of identification among team members in influencing the consequences of dyadic comparisons in work teams (Buunk et al., 2005), we propose collective team identification as a moderator of the negative (positive) bottom-up effect of interpersonal deviance (advice seeking) formed through envy on team performance. In line with previous research, we conceptualized collective team identification to be an emergent, team-

level construct, reflecting the degree to which team members attach emotional significance to their team membership (Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005).

When collective team identification is higher, there is greater psychological merging of self and team, such that team members are likely to perceive themselves as psychologically intertwined with the team's fate (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In other words, team members have stronger feelings of attachment and belongingness to the team (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). In our context, in teams where envious team members engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied targets, collective team identification will mitigate its negative bottom-up impact on team performance. This is because when collective team identification is higher, members have a stronger superordinate identity that increases the likelihood of them categorizing non-prototypical team members as in-group members, rather than as out-group members (Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). In other words, higher collective team identification is likely to intensify the focus on team members—rather than on the self—as the referent, and increase intragroup liking to promote positive interpersonal connections (Demirtas, Hannah, Gok, Arslan, & Capar, 2017). As a result, team members' evaluations of envious members who engage in interpersonal deviance become less negative (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Consequently, it is less likely to prompt dysfunctional team dynamics and negatively affect team performance.

Hypothesis 7: Collective team identification moderates the negative bottom-up effect of interpersonal deviance formed through envy on team performance, such that when collective team identification is higher, the negative effect becomes weaker.

In contrast, we suggest that in teams where envied team members seek advice from envious individuals, collective team identification will strengthen the positive bottom-up impact on team performance. In teams with higher collective team identification, team members' greater feelings of attachment and belongingness to the team are likely to strengthen the positive bottom-up effect of advice seeking as a function of envy on team performance. This is because teams with higher collective team identification are likely to extend the positive relational dynamics between an envier and an envied target to other team members and prompt other team members to view them as positive embodiments of the team prototype, which should increase positive team functioning (Schaeffner et al., 2015). In other words, collective team identification will amplify the positive bottom-up effect of advice seeking formed through envy on team performance. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: Collective team identification moderates the positive bottom-up effect of advice seeking formed through envy on team performance, such that when collective team identification is higher, the positive effect becomes stronger.

Method

Participants were recruited from a government agency that handles public transportation, health, and business services in a large metropolitan area in South Korea. We invited all employees via flyers, organization-wide emails, and team supervisor meetings (178 teams/902 employees) and collected survey data across three time points. Seventy-eight teams/

250 employees expressed interest and completed the consent form. At Time 1, we collected data on gender and collective team identification from 70 teams/213 employees. Approximately 3 to 5 weeks later, at Time 2, we gathered data regarding envy, interpersonal deviance, and advice seeking among team members. Given that roster-based surveys require high response rates to capture within-team relationships accurately, we excluded teams with a less than 80% participation rate from Time 1 when they were invited to participate in Time 2 survey (see Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001 for a similar approach). We invited 60 teams/187 employees to participate in the second survey. Approximately 6 weeks later, at Time 3, the seven department directors rated team performance in their departments (three to 11 teams in each department). After we matched the ratings of department leaders and team members, the final sample consisted of 51 teams/161 members that included 428 dyads (response rate 18% = 161/902; within-group response rate = 94%). Team members were paid 30,000 Korean Won (about $30 USD); supervisors were paid 10,000 Korean Won (about $10 USD).

The Time 2 survey used the roster-based survey to measure interpersonal feelings and behaviors, a common approach in studies on interpersonal perceptions and social networks research (Kenny, 1994; Wasserman & Faust, 1994). Roster-based surveys are lengthy, so researchers tend to use single-item measures (e.g., Borgatti & Cross, 2003; Joshi & Knight, 2015) to minimize respondents' fatigue and maximize response rates. Similarly, we used single-item measures to assess envy, interpersonal deviance, and advice seeking.

Measures

The surveys were originally written in English and then translated into Korean using the back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980). Two bilingual individuals independently translated the survey items from English to Korean. A third bilingual individual translated the survey back into English. Inexact matches were modified. Unless otherwise stated, participants reflected on their experiences and psychological states over the past 6 months for the measures of envy, interpersonal deviance, advice seeking, and team performance.

Gender congruence (Time 1). We coded 1 when the actor and partner were the same gender, and 0 when they were opposite genders.

Collective team identification (Time 1). We measured collective team identification using five items from the 6-item scale of Mael and Ashforth (1992). We modified the scale to reflect the team context.[1] Sample items include "When someone criticizes this work group, it feels like a personal insult," and "The successes of the people in this work group are my successes" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) (α = .85). Aggregation was justified by rwg (j) = .88, ICC(1) = .46, and the group mean, ICC (2) = .73, which is comparable to acceptable values in organizational behavior research (Bliese, 2000).

Envy from actor to partner (Time 2). We assessed envy from actor to partner with a single-item network question. To increase clarity and reduce ambiguity, we provided specific examples from established scales (see Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006; Kim & Glomb, 2014, for similar approaches). Specifically, participants responded to a single-item network question and indicated the extent to which he/she felt envious of the partner. The single-item is "I envy this person's task performance. For example, (1) it is so frustrating to see this person succeed so easily; (2) feelings of envy toward this person constantly torment me; (3) I

generally feel inferior to this person's success; or (4) this person's success makes me resent this person." The response option was anchored on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). These examples were adapted from Schaubroeck and Lam (2004).

Interpersonal deviance from actor to partner (Time 2). We measured interpersonal deviance with a single-item network question. The partner rated the extent to which he/she perceived whether the actor had engaged in interpersonal deviance directed toward him/her. Similar to the envy measure, we provided examples from an established scale: "How frequently has this person acted in a condescending manner toward you? For example, this person has (1) put you down or patronized you; (2) belittled you or your ideas; or (3) ignored you." The examples were adapted from Duffy and colleagues (2002). The item was anchored on a 5-point scale (1 = never to 5 = very often). This variable reflects how frequently the actor engaged in interpersonal deviance directed toward the partner.

Advice seeking from partner to actor (Time 2). We assessed the frequency of advice seeking with a single-item network question. The partner responded to the single item and indicated the extent to which he/she asked the actor for advice. The single-item is "How frequently do you go to this person for work-related advice?" (Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004), anchored on a 5-point scale (1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*). This variable reflects how frequently the partner asked the actor for advice.

Team performance (Time 3). Department leaders rated team performance with four items (Shaw et al., 2011), including "quality of work," "getting work done efficiently," "flexibility in dealing with unexpected changes," and "overall performance" ($\alpha = .97$), anchored on a 7-point scale (1 = very poor to 7 = outstanding). Results from a one-way ANOVA indicated no systematic differences in team performance ratings across departments ($F = .50, p = .80$).

Control variables. We chose our control variables based on prior research that has demonstrated theoretically meaningful relationships between each control variable and our dependent variables. Specifically, at the individual level, we controlled for core self-evaluations (CSE; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003) because recent research finds that enviers who have higher CSE are less likely to behave in a deviant manner toward envied targets and are more likely to seek advice from them (Lee & Duffy, 2019). We assessed CSE using the Core Self-Evaluation scale (Judge et al., 2003) that consisted of 12 items (e.g., "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life," "When I try, I generally succeed" [1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree]; $\alpha = .70$). At the dyadic level, we controlled for friendship between the actor and the partner because friendship has implications for team performance (Hood, Cruz, & Bachrach, 2017). We measured friendship with a single item: "This person is a good friend of yours" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). At the team level, to account for the mixed findings on types of diversity and team performance,[2] we controlled for gender and tenure diversity to tease out their potential effects on team performance. We used mean Euclidean distance index to measure gender and tenure diversity. In addition, given that past research shows that team-level interpersonal deviance and advice seeking predict team performance (Duffy & Shaw, 2000; Zhang & Peterson, 2011), we controlled for team-level interpersonal deviance and advice seeking to demonstrate that our effects still hold over and beyond these interpersonal behaviors at the team-level. We note that the significance levels dropped for our results in Hypotheses 4 and 7 when we excluded control variables.[3] However, the pattern of the effects reported in our main analyses were virtually the same with and without control variables. Thus, we reported our main analyses with control variables.

Analytical Strategy

Our roster-based survey data have a complex structure in which individuals are nested within dyads that are again nested within teams. Statistical dependence occurs from this nested structure (i.e., the group, the individual, and the dyad level) and needs to be accounted for to accurately examine relationships at dyadic levels. Therefore, we tested our hypotheses using a specific hierarchical linear modeling application of Kenny's (1994) social relations model (SRM; Goldstein et al., 1998; for examples, see Joshi & Knight, 2015; Lam, Van der Vegt, Walter, & Huang, 2011; Van der Vegt et al., 2006).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among individual-level study variables. The correlations are based on non-independent dyad-level observations (Kenny, 1994), so we report only the magnitude of the dyad-level correlations rather than level of significance (e.g., Joshi & Knight, 2015). Consistent with our expectations, envy from actor to partner was positively related to interpersonal deviance from actor to partner ($r = .18$) and advice seeking from partner to actor ($r = .13$). Table 2 shows descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among team-level study variables. In line with our predictions, interpersonal deviance based on envy was negatively related to team performance ($r = -.30$, $p = .03$) and advice seeking based on envy was positively related to team performance ($r = .28$, $p = .04$).

Variance Partitioning

Before testing our hypotheses, we partitioned the variance in envy, interpersonal deviance, and advice seeking. Table 3 presents the percentage of the variance in envy from actor to partner, interpersonal deviance from actor to partner, and advice seeking from partner to

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Coefficients, and Correlations for Individual and Dyadic-Level Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
Individual-level variables								
1. Core self-evaluation	3.34	0.30	(.70)					
Dyadic-level variables								
2. Friendship from actor to partner	3.88	1.04	.17					
3. Gender congruence	0.48	0.50	.05	−.03				
4. Envy from actor to partner	1.83	1.09	−.12	−.09	−.01			
5. Interpersonal deviance from actor to partner	1.26	0.68	−.05	−.29	−.03	.18	(.92)	
6. Advice seeking from partner to actor	3.08	1.23	.14	.59	.02	.13	−.13	(.97)

Note: $N = 428$ dyads. Cronbach's alpha on the diagonal.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Coefficients, and Correlations for Team-Level Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Tenure diversity	1.23	1.30								
2. Gender diversity	0.44	0.32	.19							
3. Team level interpersonal deviance	1.24	0.21	−.11	.16						
4. Team level advice seeking	3.31	0.79	.05	−.10	−.08					
5. Interpersonal deviance based on envy	0.01	0.13	.44*	.09	−.04	−.16				
6. Advice seeking based on envy	0.01	0.32	−.02	−.05	.02	.95**	−.27†			
7. Team collective identification	3.62	0.55	−.04	−.14	.16	.17	−.31	.21	(.85)	
8. Team performance	5.13	1.00	.13	.01	.00	.30*	−.30*	.28*	.16	(.97)

Note: $N = 51$ teams. Cronbach's alpha on the diagonal.
†$p < .10$.
*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.

Table 3
Variance Partitioning for the Study Variables

	Variables					
	Envy		Interpersonal Deviance From Actor to Partner		Advice Seeking From Partner to Actor	
Source of Variance	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Group variance	.08 (6%)	.08	.00 (0%)	.00	.27 (17%)	.12
Actor variance	.82 (68%)	.13	.15 (33%)	.03	.49 (31%)	.10
Partner variance	.02 (2%)	.02	.06 (14%)	.02	.29 (18%)	.08
Dyadic variance	.29 (24%)	.03	.23 (53%)	.02	.53 (33%)	.06
Deviance	1061.60		814.92		1289.81	

Note: $N = 428$ dyads.

actor that is explained by characteristics of actors, targets, dyads, and groups. Of the total variance in envy from actor to partner, 6% was attributed to differences between groups, 68% was attributed to differences between actors, 2% was attributed to characteristics of partners, and 24% was attributed to dyadic characteristics, respectively. For interpersonal deviance from actor to partner and advice seeking from partner to actor, 0% and 17% of the variance was explained by differences between groups, 33% and 31% by differences between actors, 14% and 18% by differences between partners, and 53% and 33% by unique dyadic characteristics, respectively. In sum, the actor/partner dyadic relationship explains considerable amounts of the variance in envy from actor to partner, interpersonal deviance from actor to partner, and advice seeking from partner to actor. Thus, it is meaningful and appropriate to use SRM to analyze our model at the dyadic level.

Hypotheses Tests

Hypothesis 1 predicted that an actor's envy toward a partner is positively associated with the actor's interpersonal deviance directed toward the partner; Hypothesis 2 predicted that an actor's envy toward a partner is positively associated with advice seeking from the partner directed toward the actor. As Table 4 (Models 2 and 6) shows, consistent with our expectations, the higher the actor's envy, the greater the levels of interpersonal deviance directed toward the partner ($B = .07$, $p = .04$) and advice seeking from the partner directed toward the actor ($B = .18$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

Hypothesis 3 stated that gender congruence moderates the positive relationship between an actor's envy and interpersonal deviance directed toward a partner, such that a stronger positive relationship occurs when the actor is of the same gender as the partner. As Table 4 (Model 4) shows, the coefficient for the two-way interaction of envy and gender congruence was trending toward significance ($B = -.09$, $p = .07$). Hence, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 indicated that gender congruence moderates the positive relationship between an actor's envy and advice seeking from a partner directed toward the actor, such that a stronger positive relationship occurs when the actor is of the same gender as the

Table 4
Social Relations Model for Dyad-Level Hypotheses Testing

	DV = Interpersonal Deviance From Actor to Partner							
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Variables	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Core self-evaluation	.01	.13	.03	.13	.03	.13	.03	.13
Friendship from actor to partner	−.20**	.03	−.19**	.03	−.20**	.13	−.20**	.03
Envy from actor to partner			.07*	.03	.07*	.03	.11*	.04
Gender congruence					−.03	.06	.14	.11
Envy x Gender congruence							−.09†	.05
Deviance	777.36		773.26		773.00		769.60	
	DV = Advice Seeking From Partner to Actor							
	Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8	
Variables	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Core self-evaluation	.19	.22	.25	.21	.24	.21	.24	.21
Friendship from actor to partner	.67**	.05	.67**	.05	.67**	.05	.67**	.05
Envy from actor to partner			.18**	.05	.18**	.05	.24**	.06
Gender congruence					.06	.08	.32	.15
Envy x Gender congruence							−.14*	.07
Deviance	1093.61		1080.08		1079.48		1074.28	

Note: $N = 428$ dyads.
†$p < .10$.
*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$. Two-tailed test.

partner. As Table 4 (Model 8) shows, the two-way interaction of envy and gender congruence was significant ($B = -.14$, $p = .04$). As Figure 2 shows, envy had a significant and more pronounced positive effect on advice seeking for gender congruent dyads (simple slope = .24, $p < .001$) as compared to gender incongruent dyads (simple slope = .10, $p = .09$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Hypothesis 5 indicated that team performance would be lower in teams where envious individuals are more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied team members, as compared to teams where this relationship is weaker. Adopting past research examining the bottom-up effect within teams (see Joshi & Knight, 2015; Van der Vegt et al., 2006), we tested our hypothesis by first computing the within-group regression coefficients between envy and interpersonal deviance. We then ran team-level analyses by regressing leader-rated team performance on the within-group regression coefficients. Supporting Hypothesis 5, we found a negative and significant coefficient for interpersonal deviance from envy ($B = -3.35$, $p = .005$, see Model 3 of Table 5). The more positive the relationship between envy and interpersonal deviance in a team, the lower the team's performance. Hypothesis 6 indicated that team performance will be higher in teams where envied team members are more likely to seek envious individuals for advice, as compared to teams where this relationship is weaker. We followed the same procedure used to examine the bottom-up effect in Hypothesis 5. As Model 5 of Table 5 shows, the coefficient for advice seeking from envy was not significant ($B = .11$, $p = .94$). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Figure 2
Interaction Effect of Envy From Actor to Partner and Gender Congruence on Advice Seeking From Partner to Actor

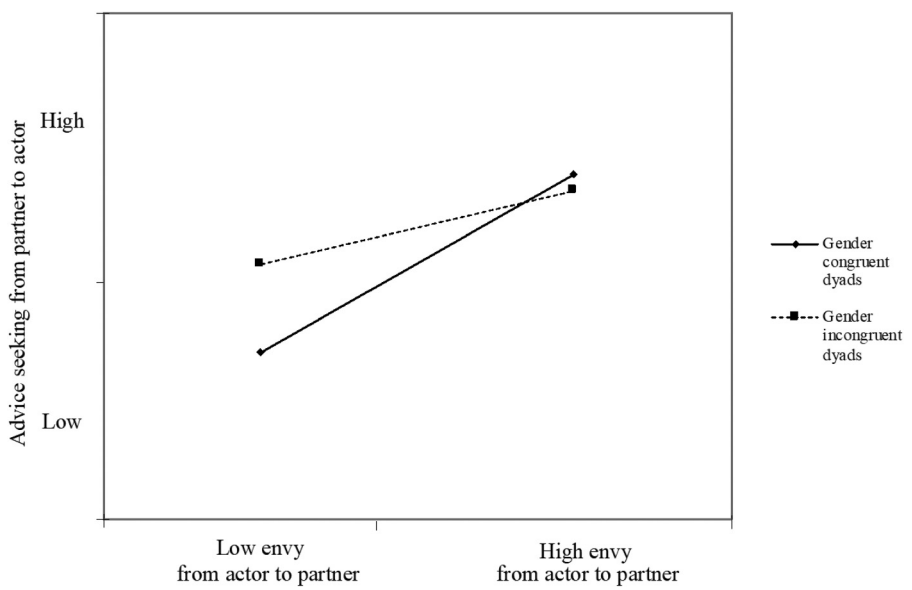


Table 5
Regression Analysis for Team-Level Hypotheses Testing

	DV = Team Performance											
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
Variables	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	5.13**	.14	5.75**	.35	5.13**	.13	5.23**	.14	5.13**	.14	5.15**	.14
Tenure diversity	.10	.11	.09	.10	.26*	.12	.27*	.12	.09	.11	.10	.12
Gender diversity	−.05	.47	.03	.42	−.04	.44	−.27	.45	.06	.46	.03	.49
Team average advice seeking									.33	.63	.34	.64
Team average interpersonal deviance					.12	.66	.33	.67				
Interpersonal deviance based on envy					−3.35*	1.12	−2.08	1.30				
Advice seeking based on envy									.11	1.52	−.06	1.56
Collective team identification (CI)							.05	.26			.22	.27
Interpersonal deviance based on Envy x CI							4.38*	2.11				
Advice seeking based on Envy x CI											−.58	.91
R square	.02		.16		.18		.25		.10		.13	

Note: $N = 51$ teams.
*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$. Two-tailed test.

To test Hypotheses 7 and 8 we ran team-level analyses by regressing leader-rated team performance on the within-group regression coefficients/slopes, team-level moderator (collective team identification), and their interaction terms. Hypothesis 7 stated that collective team identification moderates the negative bottom-up effect of interpersonal deviance based on envy on team performance, such that when collective team identification is higher, the negative relationship becomes weaker. As Table 5 (Model 4) shows, the coefficient for the two-way interaction of interpersonal deviance based on envy and collective team identification was significant ($B = 4.38$, $p = .04$). As Figure 3 shows, when collective team identification was higher, interpersonal deviance based on envy was not related to team performance (simple slope test: $B = .33$, $p = .88$.). However, when collective team identification was lower, interpersonal deviance based on envy related negatively to team performance (simple slope test: $B = -4.49$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 8 reflected that collective team identification moderates the positive bottom-up effect of advice seeking based on envy on team performance, such that when collective team identification is higher, the positive relationship becomes stronger. As Table 5 (Model 6) shows, the two-way interaction of advice seeking based on envy and collective team identification was non-significant ($B = -.58$, $p = .53$). Hence, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Supplementary Analyses

To provide more granularity for the moderating role of gender congruence on the relationship between envy and interpersonal deviance (Hypothesis 3), we conducted

Figure 3
Interaction Effect of Interpersonal Deviance Based on Envy and Collective Team Identification on Team Performance

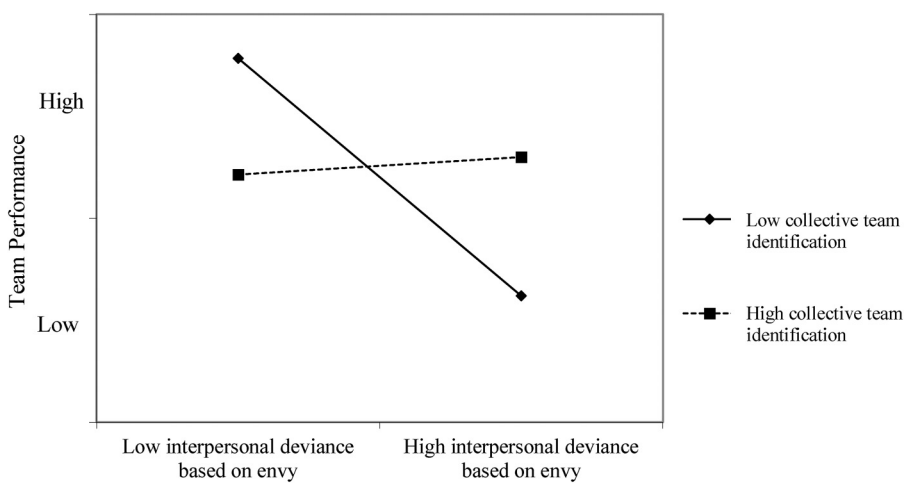


Table 6
Social Relations Model for Dyad-Level Hypotheses Testing

	DV = Interpersonal Deviance From Actor to Partner		DV = Advice Seeking From Partner to Actor	
	Model 1		Model 2	
Variables	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Core self-evaluation	.03	.13	.22	.21
Friendship from actor to partner	−.19**	.03	.67**	.05
Envy from actor to partner	.02	.04	.10	.06
Male dyad dummy	−.10	.14	−.31	.19
Female dyad dummy	−.18	.06	−.35	.19
Envy x Male dyad	.12*	.07	.09	.09
Envy x Female dyad	.06	.45	.21*	.09
Deviance	764.82		1072.41	

Note: $N = 428$ dyads.
*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$. Two-tailed test.

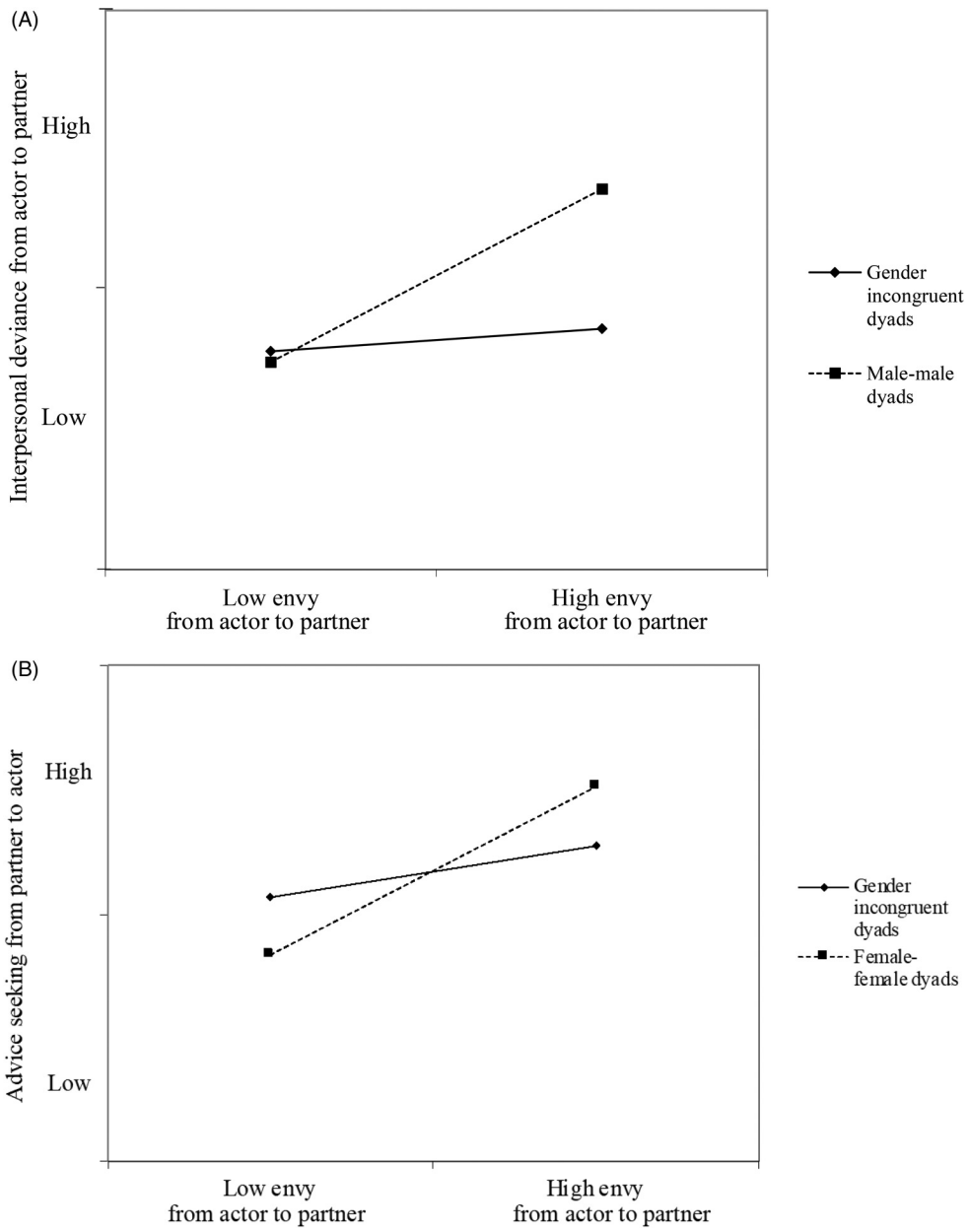
supplementary analyses to examine whether gender congruence has a stronger moderating effect for male–male dyads or female–female dyads compared with gender incongruent dyads. To test our prediction, we created two dummy variables (male–male dyads and female–female dyads, each coded for 1 if congruent and 0 if incongruent) and their respective interaction terms with envy to compare interpersonal deviance with gender incongruent dyads. As Table 6 (Model 1) shows, when actors and partners were both male, envy had a more pronounced positive relationship with interpersonal deviance as compared to gender incongruent dyads ($B = .12$, $p = .04$; simple slope test for male-male dyads: $B = .15$, $p = .007$; simple slope test for gender incongruent dyads: $B = .03$, $p = .53$; see Figure 4A).

Similarly, we examined whether gender congruence has a stronger moderating effect on the relationship between envy and advice seeking from the partner directed toward the actor (Hypothesis 4) for male–male dyads or female–female dyads compared with gender incongruent dyads. We tested whether envied female partners are more likely to seek advice from envious female actors. As Table 6 (Model 2) shows, when actors and partners were both female, envy had a more pronounced positive relationship with advice seeking as compared to gender incongruent dyads ($B = .21$, $p = .02$; simple slope test for female-female dyads: $B = .32$, $p = .001$; simple slope test for gender incongruent dyads: $B = .10$, $p = .17$; see Figure 4B).

Discussion

Our research takes a distinctive approach to studying envy in teams by identifying how and when envy affects interpersonal dynamics across dyads, and the bottom-up effects of these

Figure 4
(A) Interaction Effect of Envy From Actor to Partner and Male-Male Dyads in Comparison With Gender Incongruent Dyads on Interpersonal Deviance From Actor to Partner, (B) Interaction Effect of Envy From Actor to Partner and Female-Female Dyads in Comparison With Gender Incongruent Dyads on Advice Seeking From Partner to Actor



interpersonal dynamics for team performance. We gathered multi-wave, multi-source, and multi-level data to test our proposed model and found general support. Consistent with past research (Duffy et al., 2012; Lee & Duffy, 2019; Reh et al., 2018), our results showed that enviers were more likely to engage in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied targets. In addition, we found that envied targets were more likely to ask enviers for advice. Furthermore, when enviers and envied targets were the same rather than different genders, envied targets were more likely to seek advice from envious individuals. Our supplementary analyses revealed that male and female gender configuration moderates the relationship between envy and interpersonal behaviors in different ways. Specifically, while envious male employees were more likely to behave in a deviant manner toward envied male team members, envied female team members were more likely to ask envious female employees for advice. Furthermore, team performance was lower in teams where envy was more likely to prompt interpersonal deviance. Finally, collective team identification buffered the negative bottom-up effect of interpersonal deviance formed through envy on team performance.

We did not find support for some of our hypotheses. Specifically, our results did not support the hypothesis regarding the moderating role of gender congruence on the effect of envy on interpersonal deviance, albeit the effect was trending toward significance. Our supplementary findings show that the moderating effect of gender congruence was specific to particular dyadic configurations, thus highlighting the role of specific dyadic gender configurations (i.e., male–male and female–female dyads) in understanding envy's interpersonal consequences. In addition, we predicted the bottom-up effect of advice seeking as a function of envy on team performance as well as the moderating role of collective team identification on this relationship. However, the results did not support these predictions. Although advice seeking tends to be positively associated with team performance (see Lim, Tai, Bamberger, & Morrison, 2020, for a review), these effects may depend on the characteristics of the advice network within and outside of the team. For example, teams with leaders who are more central in an advice network (i.e., those who seek and receive more advice from subordinates) perform better than teams whose leaders are less central (Balkundi, Kilduff, & Harrison, 2011). Another study shows that advice network density positively predicts team performance (Zhang & Peterson, 2011). In our context, this suggests that the bottom-up effect of advice seeking formed through envy on team performance may be contingent on the enviers' and/or the envied targets' centrality within the advice network as well as the advice network density.

Theoretical Contributions

Our research makes several major contributions to the workplace envy literature. First, the integration of social comparison theory and social identity theory represents a significant theoretical contribution that allows us to provide nuanced insights into the consequences of envy across different levels. At the dyadic level, we offer a more holistic perspective by jointly considering how both enviers and envied targets behave. Recent research has examined positive and negative interpersonal behaviors following the experience of envy (e.g., Lee & Duffy, 2019; Yu, Duffy, & Tepper, 2018). Paralleling the research on envy, some studies have explored positive and negative consequences following the experience of being envied (e.g., Lee et al., 2018; Mosquera et al., 2010). However, these studies focused on either positive or negative consequences of envy or being envied, but not both in tandem. We provide a

more complete and balanced picture depicting active attempts by both parties to manage the discomfort associated with envy in a dyadic context. Although enviers may seek advice from their envied targets to obtain valuable information and strategies for success (Lee & Duffy, 2019; Yu et al., 2018), we focus on an alternative perspective to show that envied targets are likely to ask enviers for advice. Our findings also extend the advice seeking literature to the context of envy by suggesting that envied targets' advice seeking serves as an ingratiation and flattery strategy to reduce feelings of envy, cultivate better relationships, and counteract potential interpersonal mistreatment (Cialdini, 2001).

Our research also expands the envy literature by highlighting gender congruence as a critical dyadic characteristic that modulates behavioral responses to envy. Although past empirical studies suggest that perceived similarity to the envied target may potentially attenuate the negative effects of envy (Duffy et al., 2012; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004), we note that perceived similarity is conceptualized differently across these studies and it is important to consider what constitutes similarity. Specifically, while Duffy and colleagues (2012) operationalized social identification as perceived interpersonal similarity, Schaubroeck and Lam (2004) measured perceived similarity on work-related dimensions, such as work experience, work attitudes, and work performance. In our context, gender congruence is a surface-level characteristic and a specific type of demographic similarity. When the envier has higher perceived work-related similarity with the envied, the envier may be more motivated to improve him/herself and/or less motivated to harm the envied. This is because perceived work-related similarity provides self-relevant and direct social comparison information indicating to the envier that he/she may also attain the envied target's superior achievements (Lockwood & Kunda, 1997: 2000). Although gender congruence also represents self-relevant social comparison information, it is comparatively less informative to the envier regarding whether he/she can attain the envied target's superior work accomplishments. Our findings suggest that when enviers are of the same gender as envied targets, they are more likely to display contrastive reactions to envy, which focuses on restoring balance through pulling down the envied target instead of raising the self (Van de Ven et al., 2009; Tai et al., 2012). Overall, our research provides valuable insights by suggesting that the types and specific forms of similarity matter in determining whether envy results in positive or negative outcomes.

Our supplementary results show that whereas the effect of envy on interpersonal deviance is stronger for male–male dyads, the effect of envy on advice seeking is stronger for female–female dyads. From an evolutionary perspective, envious males should react more strongly to envied male targets because aggressiveness, risk-taking, and status-seeking presumably evolved as selected traits that fostered male dominance and helped mate attraction (Buss, 1999). Similarly, envious females should respond to envied female targets in a more sensitive manner because nurturance and other-orientation evolved as selected traits that fostered women's success and survival (Lippa, 2010).

Furthermore, our supplementary findings also accord with gender role theory, which argues that men are expected to be agentic, while women are expected to be communal (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Wood, 1991). From this standpoint, envious males may perceive that interpersonal deviance aligns with normative expectations of competitiveness and assertiveness in dealing with other men. Consequently, engaging in interpersonal deviance to reduce the superior advantages of envied male targets will be perceived as

being more acceptable because open competition is more likely to be tolerated in male–male relationships (Miner & Longino, 1987). In contrast, envied female targets may be more likely to ask envious female employees for advice as compared to other gender incongruent dyads because women are socialized to inhibit aggressive and competitive impulses (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996) and to display affiliative and empathetic behaviors (Lang-Takac & Osterweil, 1992). Higher performing women may experience more intense outperformance-related distress when they compare their performance with other women because affiliative concerns tend to be central and highly valued between women (Lang-Takac & Osterweil, 1992; Mooney & Omoto, 1990). Thus, higher performing women are more motivated to reduce relationship strain and alleviate the discomfort of being envied by other women (Exline & Lobel, 1999) by seeking their advice.

In addition, our research contributes more broadly to the teams literature by demonstrating that team performance worsened in teams where envy is more strongly associated with interpersonal deviance than advice seeking. Importantly, we show that collective team identification buffered the negative bottom-up effect of interpersonal deviance based on envy on team performance. From the perspective of social identity theory, our results suggest that having a shared, superordinate identity among team members may promote stronger affiliative bonds and team functioning, which tempers the dysfunctional consequences of interpersonal deviance as a function of envy on team performance. In doing so, we expand our theoretical insights on the emergent team-level boundary conditions that may mitigate the interpersonal costs of envy on team performance.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite the strengths of our research design (i.e., round-robin design, time-lagged design, the use of department leader-rated team performance data), our study has limitations that point to promising ideas for future research. Our total survey response rate was relatively low. However, we had to consider the trade-off between high within-group response rate (94%) and low total response rate (18%). Given that envy, interpersonal deviance, and advice seeking variables based on network methods require high response rates, we excluded work groups with less than 80% participation at Time 1 in our Time 2 survey administration (e.g., Sparrowe et al., 2001). To mitigate the concern of a low response rate, we compared the demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, organizational, and group tenure) of the final sample to the sample with insufficient response rates and found no systematic differences on these demographic variables between these two samples. Therefore, a low total response rate does not necessarily nullify our findings (see Newman, 2009).

Although our research focuses on whether envied targets ask enviers for advice, we did not examine whether enviers seek advice from envied targets, which Lee and Duffy (2019) have found. We conducted supplementary analyses and found that an actor's envy directed toward the partner was not associated with advice seeking toward the same partner ($B = -.09$, $p = n.s.$). Although our finding appears to be inconsistent with Lee and Duffy (2019), we are hesitant to conclude as such as we are only aware of two studies that show that envious individuals are more likely to seek advice from others (Lee & Duffy, 2019; Yu et al., 2018). We speculate that one possible reason for our null finding could be contextual differences that prompt employees to capitalize on envy for improvement. Lee and Duffy (2019) examined

sales employees working at a cosmetic company (Study 1) and employees working at a bank and an insurance company (Study 2). In both studies, the organizational settings were highly competitive contexts in which employees performed similar jobs and performance was evaluated frequently and reflected in rewards. In these competitive settings, employees are more likely to value learning opportunities from envied targets and capitalize on them for self-improvement through advice seeking. In contrast, employees in government agencies in South Korea face less competition. Therefore, envious employees may be less motivated to seek advice and improve their performance. In sum, future studies can investigate different interpersonal dynamics between enviers and envied targets and the conditions under which these responses are likely to occur.

In addition, future studies can explore factors that prompt people to perceive that they are the envied target and how these perceptions further influence their behavioral responses toward envious individuals. According to STTUC theory, one experiences discomfort when one perceives that another person is engaging in upward comparison against oneself and that person feels threatened by the upward comparison (Exline & Lobel, 1999). However, STTUC theory is not explicit on the criteria or bases of upward comparison. In other words, it does not specify whom people focus their attention on and perceive to view themselves as upward comparison targets. Given that people are likely to compare themselves with similar others who are superior to them (Festinger, 1954; Mussweiler, 2003), it is possible that people perceive similar others as viewing them as upward comparison targets. Since gender congruence is a salient form of demographic similarity, this suggests that people may perceive others who are of the same gender as viewing them as upward comparison targets, and hence perceive themselves to be envied by these targets. Therefore, future research could examine whether gender congruence or other types of demographic similarity (e.g., age, race, etc.) heighten perceptions of being envied and prompt envied targets to engage in behaviors to reduce the discomfort of being envied.

Although we theorize that envied targets seek advice from enviers as an ingratiation strategy to alleviate envy, we cannot conclude whether this is indeed the case. We based our theoretical reasoning on STTUC, which posits that people who perceive themselves to be upward comparison targets experience interpersonal strain and are motivated to reduce it (Exline & Lobel, 1999). It is possible that these individuals experience interpersonal strain as they are subjected to deviance from those whom they perceive that they pose a threat toward (e.g., perceptions of being envied). However, in our data, interpersonal deviance from actor to partner is not associated with advice seeking from partner to actor ($B = .10$, $p = n.s$). If envied targets sought advice from enviers in response to interpersonal deviance enacted by enviers as an appeasement strategy, then we should expect a positive correlation. The non-significant relationship suggests that perception of being envied alone may be sufficient and may not necessitate interpersonal deviance to prompt envied targets' advice seeking, which is in line with STTUC theory. Nonetheless, we cannot infer causality because we measured envy, deviance, and advice seeking at the same time point in our study. Therefore, we cannot ascertain whether envied targets sought advice from enviers in response to interpersonal cues that they are being envied or in response to interpersonal deviance enacted by enviers. Future research could provide deeper insights on the psychological mechanisms by directly measuring envied targets' attributions and/or motivations underlying their advice-seeking behaviors directed toward the enviers.

Relatedly, over time, we expect envied targets to seek less advice from enviers if they perceive enviers to be less envious of them. Although we do not preclude the possibility that envied targets may continue to seek advice from envious coworkers who may treat them in a deviant manner in order to reduce interpersonal strain, envied targets may stop seeking advice if they experience repeated and sustained interpersonal deviance from envious coworkers. In fact, envied targets may either avoid envious coworkers or even behave aggressively toward the envious coworkers in return (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Thus, although engaging in interpersonal deviance directed toward envied targets may help to reduce the status gap in the short term, enviers may jeopardize their own social capital in the long term. We encourage future research to adopt a longitudinal design and examine whether enviers experience less envy after envied targets seek advice from them and whether envied targets reduce their advice seeking when they perceive themselves to be less envied. Future studies could also investigate whether envied targets harm the envious coworkers back in kind after being treated in a deviant fashion. In doing so, this also answers the call for future studies to investigate whether different coping strategies may affect the relationship between the envier and the envied target (Duffy et al., 2021).

Managerial Implications

Social comparison opportunities abound in organizations, and these comparisons are even more salient for teams (Duffy et al., 2008; Spence, Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2011). Mismanaged envy can spread within workgroups and negatively affect team performance (Duffy & Shaw, 2000; Menon & Thompson, 2010). Envy may motivate advice seeking that potentially improves interpersonal dynamics, such that envied team members ask envious employees for advice, which signals to envious employees that their opinions, expertise, and contributions are valued. Given that our results show that particular dyadic configurations have different implications on the effects of envy, managers should be cautious about highlighting the superior achievements of exemplary male employees to other male employees and curb the potential negative occurrence of interpersonal deviance (Duffy et al., 2021). In contrast, managers may communicate the noteworthy accomplishments of outstanding female employees to other female employees to promote advice seeking among female dyads.

Importantly, managers can cultivate stronger collective team identification to mitigate the negative effect of interpersonal deviance as a function of envy on team performance, for instance, by supporting and recognizing the team, and by creating opportunities for teams to develop a shared history (e.g., Scott, 1997).

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Notes

1. We dropped one item—"If a story in the media criticized the school, I would feel embarrassed"—because it was deemed irrelevant in the team context.

2. Some studies suggest that tenure and gender diversity are not related to team performance because team members may focus more on superordinate goals, such as team achievement and competitive goals, rather than on their differences (e.g., Bell, Villado, Lukasik, Belau, & Briggs, 2011; Shin, Kim, Lee, & Bian, 2012). In contrast, other studies suggest that tenure and gender diversity are positively related to team performance because of unique cognitive attributes that members bring to the team, which ultimately promotes team performance (for meta-analytical reviews, see Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Joshi & Roh, 2009).

3. For Hypothesis 4, the coefficient for the two-way interaction of envy and gender congruence was trending toward significance ($B = -.14$, $p = .09$). Similarly, for Hypothesis 7, the coefficient for the two-way interaction of interpersonal deviance as a function of envy and collective team identification was approaching traditional levels of statistical significance ($B = 3.93$, $p = .06$).

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