Justice, Jealousy and Performance: Evidence from Neo-Feudal Pakistan

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ABSTRACT

Although jealousy is one of the most frequent emotions felt by employees at workplace with far-reaching consequences, empirical research understanding this discrete emotion remains scant, especially in frontline services. Drawing on justice theory, this research investigates the unexplored mediating role of workplace jealousy in the relationship between perceived injustice and a key frontline employee outcome, job performance, in service-setting in Pakistan. The moderating role of employee self-efficacy is also examined in the jealousy – performance relationship. Multi-source and multi-level data collected across two studies in frontline settings demonstrate that, as an outcome of perceived injustice, jealously can be deleterious for frontline performance. The study further offers useful insights into regulating jealousy at workplace by demonstrating that self-efficacy attenuates the deleterious effect of jealousy on frontline job performance.

Key words: workplace jealousy; inequality; frontline employee; job performance; organisational injustice

1. INTRODUCTION

There has been growing scholarly interest in the relationship between inequality and perceived material injustices (Andersen et al., 2021), an associated tendency towards greater social division on horizontal lines, and how this plays out at organizational level (Antonio, 2019; Suddaby et al., 2018; Haack & Siewecke, 2018). In other words, objective social (and workplace) injustices seem capable of sustaining and strengthening themselves given, whether by accident or design, a deflection of feelings of insecurity and outright anger towards others in equally or more precarious positions, as aversion to societal 'betters' takes place (De Sousa, Grau & Smuts 2017). Hence, injustice does not always lead to pressures to remedy it, but rather to surges of negative emotions towards those who might potentially usurp existing positions (De Sousa, Grau & Smuts, 2017; Clanton, 2006).

Emotion is held to be a key mechanism through which a sense of (in)justice is translated into subsequent behaviours (Barclay et al. 2005; Colquitt et al. 2013; Zapata-Phelan et al. 2009). In this context, studies understanding the role of employee emotions have mainly used composite 'overall' measures for emotions, thus limiting our understanding of how a specific, discrete emotion, such as jealousy, influences behavioral outcomes (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020; Khan et al, 2013). More research has been repeatedly called for to explore the role of discrete emotions experienced by employees, especially frontline employees (FLEs) in service organisations (Kraemer, Gouthier & Heidenreich 2017; Rafaeli et al., 2017).

Extant research demonstrates that frontline employees (FLEs) are critical for the success of service organizations as their attitudes and behaviors can significantly impact customer satisfaction and loyalty, which, in turn affect profitability and success of the firm (Brown & Lam 2008; Kraemer, Gouthier & Heidenreich 2017; Jung, Yoo & Arnold, 2021). As such,

emotions experienced by FLEs are important and play a crucial role because emotions can be a strong predictor of individual behavioral reactions (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014), and thus could determine FLE attitudes and behaviors (Barclay, Skarlicki & Pugh, 2005). In this respect, jealousy, which is defined as "the negative emotional state generated in response to a threatened or actual loss of a valued relationship due to the presence of a real or imagined rival" (DeSteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett 2006, p. 627), is attracting research attention. This is because besides being the most common negative emotion experienced by employees, it can have far-reaching consequences for organisations. For instance, jealousy has been found to adversely impact employee's work motivation and consequently lead to withdrawal of effort (Thompson et al., 2018). Further, studies have found that workplace jealousy negatively impacts employee citizenship behaviour (Bani-Melhem et al, 2023; Wang & Sung, 2016) and positively impacts deviant behaviour (Kim et al., 2013). Workplace jealousy has also been found to increase employee burnout and negative vigour (Arli et al, 2019). As compared to other negative emotions, it is suggested that jealousy produces distress, and may lead to more hostile and abusive behaviours (de Weerth & Kalma, 1993; Shackelford, 2001; Andiappan & Dufour, 2020; Suddaby et al., 2018). As such, work environments that breed workplace jealousy may not be conducive to effective service delivery in frontline service settings given that FLE emotions affect their attitudes and behaviors, which can directly impact customer evaluations of the firm. However, little is done to understand what triggers workplace jealousy, and its implications for FLEs in a frontline context.

Jealousy is not the same as feelings of injustice. The former involves a view that another party disrupts or endangers the position of an individual in a relationship such as in marriage or employment (Clanton, 2006; DeSteno & Salovey, 1996a). Meanwhile, the latter concerns perceived unfairness around the distribution of wealth, status, and power (Clanton, 2006). Why

this distinction matters is that jealousy is not necessarily inimical to a prevailing social order, whilst rising feelings of injustice are. When the two correspond, this may lead to challenges to authority, or divert this into horizontal struggles (De Sousa, Grau & Smuts, 2017). Against this background, drawing on the principles of organisational justice theory (Cropanzano et al., 2007), this study develops and tests a conceptual framework (see Figure 1) to investigate the role of workplace jealousy in the relationship between perceptions of injustice and subsequent FLE job performance in Pakistan - a cultural context characterised by unique structural constraints, societal values, cultural patterns of behaviour, and belief systems (Shah, 2009).

This study contributes to the extant literature in three significant ways. First, despite jealousy being one of the most studied social emotions in the past two decades (DeSteno, 2004; Salovey, 1991) and its potential far-reaching consequences in the workplace, it has received little attention in the organisational context (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020). While a few studies highlight the deleterious effects of jealousy on key employee outcomes such as turnover intentions (Vecchio, 2000), citizenship (Wang & Sung, 2016), and aggressive behaviours (DeSteno et al., 2006), little is known about how jealousy influences job performance, especially of FLEs, which can significantly impact on the sustainability of a service organisation (Brown & Lam, 2008; Rafaeli et al., 2017). We fill this key gap in the literature.

Second, little is known about how the effects of workplace jealousy can be regulated (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020), which seems to be of both practical as well as theoretical significance considering that workplace jealousy is one of the most frequent negative emotions experienced by employees that can have serious consequences (Vecchio, 2000). In this respect, researchers (Abbas, Raja, Darr & Bouckenooghe, 2014; Bandura & Locke, 2003; Lightsey et al., 2013) utilising social cognitive theory (SCT; Bandura, 1991) argue that personality traits

and self-beliefs, such as self-efficacy, could help in emotion regulation (Gross, 1998), which may regulate how negative emotions lead to consequences. Hence, we extend the limited research in this area by investigating the moderating role of self-efficacy to understand if self-efficacy could attenuate the negative influence of jealousy on FLE job performance, which to the best of our knowledge has not been tested previously.

Finally, our understanding of the specific events that could trigger jealousy at workplace remains scant. Despite a theoretical association noted between perceived injustice and jealousy (Miner, 1990; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), no previous research has empirically studied jealousy as an outcome of perceived injustice. Addressing this oversight in the literature, this study posits the negative emotion of jealousy as a key mechanism that explicates why and how perceived injustice at workplace leads to undesirable employee outcomes. In this respect, researchers have emphasized the need to examine the relationship between all facets of (in) justice and emotions for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship (Ambrose, Hess & Ganesan, 2007; Barclay & Kiefer, 2014). Thus, we explore the relative and differential effects of all facets of organisational injustice on jealousy, which can reflect a more accurate picture of FLEs' injustice experiences and their reactions in terms of jealousy as compared to studying a specific injustice dimension.

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2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

2.1 ***Workplace Jealousy***

Jealousy is a common social emotion, and, indeed, a central feature of social life (DeSteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett, 2006). Lazarus (1991) in his seminal work has categorized jealousy around the generation of negative emotions resulting from harm, losses, and threats. Jealousy not only exists in romantic relationships but can occur in any triadic relationship where a valued relationship of any type is under threat from a rival (DeSteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett, 2006). The sociological literature holds that jealousy is socially constructed, and dynamics around it will both reflect societal dynamics and impact back on them (Clanton, 2006). Workplace jealousy occurs in a triadic relationship in which three parties are involved - the focal employee, a rival colleague, and the valued target party, that is, the organization (DeSteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett, 2006; Vecchio, 2000). Workplace jealousy is defined as "a pattern of thoughts, emotions, and behaviours that results from an employee's loss of self-esteem and/or the loss of outcomes associated with a working relationship" (Vecchio 2000, p. 162). The loss (or even the perceived threat of loss) involves a rival who has the potential to undermine the valued relationship (Vecchio, 2000). Hence, it involves fears that rivals can undermine their relationships with their immediate supervisor, and with their employing organisation (Jones, 2009; Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007). In other words, the key feature of workplace jealousy is insecurity and the perception of a threat, either real or imagined, from a rival party (Vecchio, 2000). This might also lead to other emotion-mediated behaviours aimed at maintaining the relationship (DeSteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett, 2006; Marescaux et al., 2021). Jealousy is sometimes confused with envy, mainly because of the semantic overlap leading to linguistic ambiguity and the tendency for both emotions to co-occur (Parrott & Smith, 1993; Smith, Kim & Parrott, 1988). However, envy only involves two elements, an individual and the target with which a comparison is made (Smith & Kim, 2007).

2.2 Organisational Injustice and Jealousy

Organisational injustice comprises three dimensions: first, procedural injustice, which is defined as the perceived unfairness of the procedures used to arrive at outcome decisions (Leventhal, Karuza & Fry, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975); second, distributive injustice, which reflects the perceived unfairness of outcomes, especially the degree to which outcomes are inequitable (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976); and, third, interactional injustice, which is defined as the perceived unfairness of the interpersonal treatment people receive as processes are enacted (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2001). Organisational justice is considered to be a subjective and descriptive concept that captures what individuals believe to be right and is hence more of a personal evaluation of the moral standing of managerial conduct (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Further, justice theory posits that employee perceptions of justice trigger affective and attitudinal reactions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013).

According to justice theory, when employees receive unfavourable outcomes, they interpret the outcomes in the light of judicial principles (Fortin et al., 2020), and experience discrete emotions in response to this (Robbins, Ford & Tetrick, 2012). Hence, negative emotional states are suggested as the expected outcomes of perceived injustice (Michalak et al., 2019). As outcomes appear to be the driving force behind the initiation of an appraisal process, justice scholars have suggested that all three facets of justice are derived from individuals' expectations of outcomes, which can be either economic or socioemotional (Folger et al., 2001). While distributive justice reflects economic outcomes, both procedural and interactional justice are considered to have socioemotional implications (Barclay, Skarlicki & Pugh, 2005). In sum, all three facets of justice can lead to an emotional response as "regardless of the type of violation that occurs, when individuals try to make sense of it, they are likely to imagine

how the situation would, could, or should have been different" (Barclay, Skarlicki & Pugh, p. 632).

Following justice theory theory, this study proposes that as part of the appraisal process, perceived injustice is likely to trigger the negative emotion of jealousy. All three facets of organisational injustice are likely to be viewed by the focal employee as some type of threat or loss of rewards and benefits against his or her rival colleagues or a type of rejection in favour of rival colleagues. While distributive injustice is clearly reflected in the threat or loss of economic rewards against rival co-workers, both procedural and interactional injustice are likely to result in the threat or loss of socioemotional benefits such as loss of self-esteem or rejection in favour of rival colleagues. This is because unfair procedures can threaten one's social identity and may be indicative of one's lower group standing (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and unfair interpersonal treatment can threaten an individual's sense of dignity and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986). Consequently, employees experiencing procedural and interactional injustice may no longer regard themselves as being valued by the organization or their supervisor as compared to the rival colleagues who receive fair or better treatment (Lind &Tyler, 1988). Perceived injustice is also likely to affect the integrity of the current working relationship with the supervisor or the organisation, which may be threatened by the value the superior or organisation authorities place on the rival colleague(s) (DeSteno & Salovey, 1996b). In other words, unfair treatment could suggest that a person is being treated as particularly disposable, and that in hard times, if peers are seen as more worthy, this might suggest that they challenge or potentially undermine the employment relationship (Clanton, 2006; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Hence, it seems plausible that all facets of perceived injustice are likely to trigger an emotional response to protect the valued work relationships from being usurped by the rivals, i.e., jealousy. Looking at the case of Pakistan, Saqib et al (2021) found that there is a significant

status difference between managers and those they manage, leading to problems of interactional injustice. The status differences are often played out in the lived experiences of junior employees, and, indeed, this corresponded with precarity amongst them. Accordingly, we hypothesise:

H1: Distributive injustice is positively related to jealousy.

H2: Procedural injustice is positively related to jealousy.

H3: Interactional injustice is positively related to jealousy.

2.3 Jealousy and Job Performance

Frontline employee job performance encompasses internally (towards managers and colleagues) and externally (towards customers) directed employee behaviours that are consistent with formal role expectations and contribute to organisational effectiveness (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Although no prior study has empirically investigated the link between jealousy and job performance, negative emotional states are suggested to diminish performance (Beal et al., 2005; Hu et al., 2017; De Longis & Alessandri, 2020). It is argued that employees' attentional resources are limited; negative emotional states are likely to produce task-irrelevant thoughts (e.g., Howell & Conway, 1992; Seibert & Ellis, 1991) that deplete the attentional resources available for task performance (Beal et al., 2005). This could be because individuals who experience jealousy are compelled to make some form of response to reduce their stress and negative feelings (Vecchio, 2000). It is also suggested that experience of emotion is usually accompanied by arousal, which can divert the individual attentional resources away from task performance (Beal et al., 2005; Lazarus, 1991). In sum, extant literature agrees that negative emotions deplete the attentional resources available and therefore can be detrimental for task performance. As such, previous research has shown that jealousy could lead to reduced work motivation, employees

withholding their effort and contribution to the firm (Thompson et al., 2018; Awee et al., 2020) or even disengaging from the job (Bani-Melhlam et al., 2023). Jealously has also been found to lead to employee burnout and reduced vigour (Arli et al., 2019) - conditions which can adversely impact job performance, especially in a customer contact setting. Hence, we hypothesise:

H4: Jealousy is negatively related to FLE job performance.

2.4 The Mediating Role of Jealousy

Organizational justice scholars acknowledge that individuals react emotionally to the perceived fairness of treatment in workplace exchanges and allocations and that these reactions have perceptual and behavioural consequences (Barsky, Kaplan & Beal, 2011; Cole et al., 2010). Khan et al. (2013) demonstrates the mediating roles of two discrete negative emotions – sadness and anger- in explaining how perceived injustice translates into counterproductive work behaviours as such outcomes are employees' behavioural response to the negative emotions (e.g. anger, shame, guilt) that result from perceived injustice (see Barclay et al., 2005; Barclay & Kiefer., 2014). Other work suggests that jealousy may mediate the relationship between perceptions of one's relative position and outcomes (Amocky et al., 2012). Unfair work climates may be associated with fears of a loss of rewards and benefits or rejection in favour of rival colleagues, i.e., workplace jealousy (DeSteno & Salovey, 1996b; DeSteno et al., 2004). Consequently, attentional resources of employees experiencing jealousy are likely to be directed away from task performance. Accordingly, we hypothesise:

H5a: Jealousy mediates the relationship between distributive injustice and job performance.

H5b: Jealousy mediates the relationship between procedural injustice and job performance.

H5c: Jealousy mediates the relationship between interactional injustice and job performance.

2.5 The Moderating Role of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as the "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1998; p. 3). As such, beliefs of self-efficacy are suggested to influence behaviour, coping as well as emotional outcomes (Bandura, 1997; Lightsey et al., 2013). Self-efficacy plays a central role in self-management because it regulates human action and emotion through people's beliefs in their own capabilities to influence the environment and produce desired outcomes by their actions (c.f. Trappman et al., 2021). Social cognitive theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1991) suggests employees with low self-efficacy will be doubtful of their capability to succeed, whereas those with high self-efficacy may sustain motivated efforts, despite adverse conditions and uncertain outcomes (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003).

Accordingly, previous research finds that individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are better able to solve problems involved in threatening and difficult situations, and thus cope better in emotionally demanding environments than people with low-self-efficacy (Heuven et al., 2006; Jex & Bliese, 1999; Jex et al., 2001; Pugh, Groth & Hennig-Thurau, 2011; Bandura, 2012). As such, self-efficacy plays a pivotal role in the self-regulation of one's discreet, basic emotions (Bandura, 1997; 2012) such as jealousy. Self-efficacy being a belief in one's ability to succeed, could enable employees to successfully meet the emotion regulation related demands at workplace (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). Management of felt emotions and displaying socially desirable behaviour is particularly required by FLEs in service-related organisations to achieve desired workplace outcomes (Pugh, Growth & Hennig-Thurau, 2011). In this context, Heuven et al. (2006) demonstrate that self-efficacy helps in the management of felt emotions and argue that individuals with high self-efficacy are better able to regulate their felt emotions and express

desired workplace behaviour. Pugh, Groth, and Hennig-Thurau (2011) also advocate that employees with high self-efficacy are better capable of managing their felt emotions, and show that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between emotional dissonance and job satisfaction. It is also suggested that self-efficacy reduces the consequences of negative affect and enhances future well-being (Lightsey et al., 2013). Accordingly, we argue that self-efficacy being the self-regulator of individuals' emotional states (Bandura, 2012), is likely to attenuate the negative impact of jealousy on key employee outcomes. When faced with injustice, employees with high self-efficacy should be able to better manage the emotion of jealousy due to their confidence in their capabilities to succeed, and are more likely to be able to regulate the deleterious effects of jealousy on their performance.

On the other hand, low self-efficacy is linked to anxiety (Jex & Gudanowski, 1992; Stumpf, Brief & Hartman, 1987). Consequently, when employees with low self-efficacy encounter a difficult situation at work, they tend to adopt a more 'emotion-focused' approach and therefore have a greater tendency to worry rather than doing something about it (Jex & Bliese, 1999). As low self-efficacy creates feelings of nervousness, tension and anxiety among employees (Jex & Bliese, 1999; Siu, Lu & Spector, 2007), people with low self-efficacy are less likely to manage their emotions as they underestimate their abilities to compete with other colleagues (Bandura, 1997). Such employees are thus likely to react more negatively when faced with the negative emotion of jealousy than high self-efficacious employees. Hence negative impact of jealousy on job performance will be stronger when employee self-efficacy is weak. In line with the above arguments, this study proposes the moderating role of self-efficacy as follows:

H6: Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between jealousy and FLE job performance such that the higher the self-efficacy, the lesser will be the negative influence of jealousy on job performance.

3. METHODOLOGY

To validate the conceptual model, we conducted two studies among FLEs in Pakistan. While Study 1 was conducted within a single organisation and had a larger sample, Study 2 was conducted across multiple organisations. Validating the conceptual model across two separate studies supports the generalisability of the conceptual model.

3.1 Study 1

3.1.1 Data Collection

The main purpose of Study 1 was to establish the validity of the conceptual model within a single organisation. Study 1 was conducted among FLEs and their managers in a leading retail commercial bank in Pakistan. Being a commercial bank, providing excellent customer service is a core business activity of the bank as customer satisfaction and loyalty largely determine the growth and profitability of the bank. As FLEs directly interact with customers and provide a range of services, they play a critical role in achieving the bank's goals and objectives.

Initially 623 questionnaires were distributed to FLEs in bank branches who agreed to participate in the study and whose managers agreed to evaluate their performance. Of these, 435 responses were received. A total of 52 managers agreed to participate in the study. After taking into account missing values and incomplete forms, the final sample comprised matched data from 388 FLEs and their immediate managers who provided answers to just one variable– the job performance of the FLE. Data were received from 49 managers. Out of the sample, 76% were males and the remainder were females. The average age was 34 years and the mean

total experience in the job was 9.2 years. All the FLEs who filled in the questionnaires worked in bank branches and were in direct face-to-face contact with the customers. The profile of the respondents are provided in table 1.

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3.1.2 Measurement

3.1.2.1 Distributive, Procedural, and *Interactional Injustice* were measured on a five-point scale anchored between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' using the scale developed by Colquitt (2001). Procedural injustice was measured through a five-item scale, a sample item being, "I have expressed my views and feelings during those procedures" (R); distributive injustice was measured through a four-item scale, and a sample item included, "These outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work" (R); and interactional injustice was measured through a five-item scale, a sample item being, "My manager treats me in a polite manner" (R).

3.1.2.2 Self-Efficacy was measured by a seven-point, three-item scale used by Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007), anchored between 'strongly disagree' and 'strongly agree'. Sample items included, "I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution", "I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management" etc.

3.1.2.3 Jealousy was measured using three items from the scale developed by Vecchio (2000). This was a seven-point scale anchored between 'strongly agree' and 'strongly disagree'. The items used were "I feel depressed when my supervisor speaks favourably about another". "I would be resentful if my supervisor asked one of my coworkers for help with a problem" and

"I sometimes worry that my supervisor will feel that another employee is more competent than I".

3.1.2.4 Job Performance was measured by a seven-point, four-item scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991) that asked the managers to rate the performance of a particular FLE on statements reflecting how effectively the particular FLE completed his/her duties. The scale was anchored between 'none' and 'a lot'. Sample items include: "this employee adequately completes assigned duties", "Performs task that are expected of him/her".

3.1.3 Data Analysis

The measurement model was assessed through a confirmatory factor analysis procedure. The full model with all the seven constructs showed adequate model fit with χ^2/d.f = 3.88 ($p<0.00$); CFI = 0.905; IFI =0.903; RMSEA = 0.086. All the standardised loadings were significant and above the value 0.50 and all the AVE values were above 0.50, thus providing evidence for convergent validity. The coefficient of reliability (CR) values of all the constructs were above 0.70 as well as all the Cronbach's alpha values. The square root of the AVE for all the constructs was above any of the inter-construct correlation values. Thus, according to the criteria of Forner and Larker (1981), discriminant validity of scales is established. Values of coefficient of reliability, average variance extracted and inter-construct correlation are provided in Table 2. We also tested alternate measurement models. In the first alternate model, the three injustice perceptions were combined into one single latent construct (model 1). In the subsequent alternate models we treated injustice perceptions and self-efficay as one single construct (model 2), then injustice perceptions, self-efficay as well as job-performance as one construct (model 3) and finally a single factor model where all the items were linked to one construct (model 4). All the four alternative models were compared the original measurement

model (model 5). Model 5 was seen to have better goodness of fit statistics than all the other models. The results are shown in table 3. Hence, it can be concluded that the original measurement model achieves greater overall validity and reliability than any other possible models.

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3.1..4 Common Method Bias

We controlled for common method bias in three ways. First, the outcome variable – job performance - was measured from a different source than the other independent variables. According to Podsakoff et al (2003), collecting data from different sources can signifcantly reduce common method variance (CMV) bias. Second, in order to test the level of common method bias in the variables measured from the frontline employees, Harman's single factor test was performed. All the observed variables collected from the frontline employees, i.e., the observed variables used to measure the three dimensions of injustice, jealousy and self-efficacy, were connected to a single latent variable. This model demonstrated a very poor fit (χ^2/d.f = 10.675; CFI = 0.753; IFI =0.755; RMSEA = 0.158). This proves that the impact of common method bias in the measurement model is negligible. Third, we included a marker variable, which was theoretically not related to the other variables used in the study. In this case we used three items from Shimp and Sharma's (1987) consumer ethnocentrism scale. Sample items were "A real Pakistani should always buy Pakistan made products"; "Pakistani people should always buy Pakistan made products instead of imports". The correlation between this construct and the other constructs were found to be very low with the average of the absolute value of correlation being 0.095. We also conducted the Lindel and Whitney (2002), test where we compared the inter-construct correlations between the study constructs with and without the marker variable in the measurement model. Common method bias is found to be

insignificant if the differences in the inter-construct correlations between the two models are are low. The differences in the inter-construct correlations were very negligible with the highest difference being 0.004. Hence, based on Lindell and Whitney (2001) criterion, we can assume that the impact of common method bias is negligible.

3.1.5 *Results*

Since the employees were nested in 49 teams, a multi-level analysis was considered appropriate. To confirm the multi-level nature of the data, intraclass correlations (ICCs) were calculated for the mediating variable, jealousy. and the outcome variable of job performance. ICC for jealousy was 0.21 and for job performance was 0.33; all values were above the threshold suggested by LeBreton and Senter(2008) to justify a multi-level analysis. We conducted multi-level modelling using M-Plus version 8. In the initial model (Model 1) we assessed the main path model; subsequently in Model 2, we introduced the mediation effect based on the method suggested by Kelloway (2015). Subsequently, we introduced the moderator and the interaction effects to Model 1 to test the moderating impact of self-efficacy. Results from Models 1 and 2 are provided in Table 4. The RMSEA value for the models were 0.00 and the CFI and TLI were 1.00. Based on the criterion used by Kelloway (2015) the two models provide a good, though saturated fit.

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Results from the multi-level analysis showed that interactional injustice has a significant positive impact on jealousy ($\beta = 0.848$, $p<0.01$) as does distributive injustice ($\beta = 0.358$, $p<0.01$). However, procedural injustice does not seem to have any impact on jealousy. Thus, H1 and H3 are found to be supported, but not H2. Jealousy has a significant negative impact on Job Performance ($\beta = -0.234$, $p< 0.01$) and thus H4 is supported.

In order to further understand the strength of impact of the independent variables on the outcome variables, effect sizes in the form of f^2 values were calculated. The effect size of distributive injustice on jealousy was found to be small ($f^2 = 0.06$) while that of interactional injustice on jealousy was found to be medium ($f^2 = 0\ .321$). However, the impact of interactional injustice and procedural injustice on job performance were both found to be small ($f^2 = 0.0312$ and 0.07, respectively). The effect size of jealousy on job performance was however found to be medium ($f^2 = 0.15$).

3.1.6 Mediation Effects

To test the mediation effect, we adopted the procedure explained by Kelloway (2015). The results are shown as Model 2. The indirect effects are separately entered in the model. In the case of job performance, the indirect effect of distributive injustice ($\beta = -.086$, $p<0.01$) and interactional injustice ($\beta = -.201$, $p < 0.00$) were found to be significant, while the indirect impact of procedural injustice was not found to be significant. Thus, H5a and H5c are supported, while H5b is not supported. Interestingly, both interactional injustice ($\beta = -0.208$, $p<0.05$) and procedural injustice have a direct impact on job performance ($\beta = -0.278$, $p<0.01$) while distributive injustice does not have a direct impact on job performance. Hence, we can infer that jealousy partially mediates the relationship between interactional injustice and job performance while the relationship between distributive injustice and job performance is fully mediated by jealousy. For procedural injustice, there is no mediating effect of jealousy in its relationship with job performance.

3.1.7 Moderating Effects

We tested whether self-efficacy moderated the relationship between jealousy and job performance. We introduced the interaction term in Model 2. The moderator variable, self-efficacy, has a positive significant relationship ($\beta= 0.208$, $p<0.01$) with job performance, the

interaction term is also found to be significant ($\beta = 0.063$, $p<0.01$). Thus, H6 is supported. To understand the nature of the relationship, we plotted the moderating effect using the method suggested by Aiken and West (1991); the graph is shown in Figure 2. The plot shows that self-efficacy dampens the negative impact of jealousy on job performance, thus supporting H6.

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3.2 Study 2

The main aim of Study 2 was to replicate the results from Study 1 with a methodology that has stricter control over common method bias. Further, Study 2 goes beyond just one organisation. In Study 2 we collected data from FLEs in seven organisations across industrial sectors like textiles, education and telecommunication in Pakistan. A total of 176 employees participated in Study 2. Details of the sample profile for Study 2 are provided in table 5. To strictly control for common method bias, data were collected in two waves from the FLEs. Data on the injustice dimensions were collected in wave 1, while data on jealousy and self-efficacy were collected in a second wave with two months separation between them. As in the case of Study 1, we collected data about job performance from the managers of the FLEs. A total of 42 supervisors assessed the job performance of the 176 employees.

3.2.1 Measurement model

To allow for comparison and revalidation, we used the same items in Study 2 as in Study 1. The validity of the scale was assessed through a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The goodness of fit statistics for the measurement model was acceptable (χ^2/d.f = 1.465; CFI = 0.965; IFI =0.964; RMSEA = 0.052). The average variance extracted (AVE) for the constructs was above 0.5. The inter-construct correlations were less than the square root of the AVE for all the constructs, thus establishing the convergent and discriminnat validty of the scales. The

composite reliability and cronbach's alpha values were above 0.7 thereby establishing the reliability of the measurement scale.

3.2.2 Common Method Bias

Since the independent variables were measured across two waves separated by a time interval of two months, there is stricter control over common method bias in Study 2. Further, the outcome variable, job performance, was measured using scores from the supervisor, which effectively ensures multi-source data. We tested for common method bias using similar methods as in Study 1. First, Harman's test was conducted in which all the observed variables were loaded into one single construct. The resulting model had a much worse goodness-of-fit index compared to the measurement model (χ^2/d.f = 7.764; CFI = 0.429; IFI =0.434; RMSEA = 0.197). Next, we tested common method bias using marker variable method. We used the same marker variable as was used in Study 1 – three items from ethnocentrism scale. The correlations between the marker variable and the study constructs were very negligible. The average of the absolute value of the correlations was 0.086. We further conducted the Lindel and Whitney (2002) test where the difference in correlation coefficient between the study constructs with and without the insertion of the marker variable in the CFA was calculated. The difference was very negligible with the highest value being 0.001. Hence, the impact of common method bias is negligible.

3.2.3 Results

As in the case of Study 1, the employees were nested within their supervisors (who provided information about their job performance). A total of 42 supervisors assessed 176 employees' job performance and hence we can consider the data to be nested. To assess whether multi-level path analysis needs to be employed, we first calculated the ICC values for the mediating and outcome variables. The ICC values for jealousy was 0.06 and for job performance was

0.01. These were much below the values suggested by LeBreton and Senter, (2008) to justify a multi-level analysis. Hence, we conducted path analysis using the covariance based structural equations modelling through AMOS software version 26 without considering the variance caused by the nested nature of the sample. Results are shown in table 7. The path analysis goodness-of-fit indices showed adequate fit for the model (χ^2/d.f = 1,537; CFI = 0.943; IFI =0.932; RMSEA = 0.055). Results showed that interactional injustice has a significant positive impact on jealousy (β = 0.102, $p<0.05$) as does distributive injustice (β = 0.235, $p<0.05$). However, procedural injustice does not have any impact on jealousy. Thus, H1 and H3 are found to be supported, but not H2. This result is similar to the results from Study 1. Further, jealousy has a significant negative impact on job performance (β = -0.172, $p< 0.05$) and thus H4 is supported as in the case of Study 1.

In order to further understand the strength of impact of the independent variables on the outcome variables, effect sizes in the form of f^2 values were calculated. The respective effect sizes of distributive injustice (f^2 = 0.14), interactional injustice (f^2 = 0 .102) as well as interactional injustice on job performance were medium (f^2 = 0.17). The effect size of jealousy on job-performance was however found to be small (f^2 = 0.09).

3.2.4Mediation Effects

The indirect effects were assessed through a bootstrap procedure available in AMOS version 26. The indirect effect of distributive injustice (β = -.040, $p < 0.1$, with the LLCI- ULCI interval not containing the value 0.00) is found to be negative and significant. The indirect effect of interactional injustice is also found to be negative and significant (β = -.018, $p < 0.1$ with the LLCI-ULCI interval not containing the value 0.00) while the indirect impact of procedural injustice is not found to be significant. Thus, H5a and H5c are supported, while H5b is not supported, which validates the results obtained from Study 1. Interactional injustice and

distributive injustice are found to have a direct significant impact on job performance. Hence, we can infer that jealousy partially mediates the relationship between interactional injustice and job performance as well as between distributive injustice and job performance. For procedural injustice, there is no mediating effect for jealousy in its relationship with job performance.

3.2.5 Moderating Effects

We tested whether self-efficacy moderated the relationship between jealousy and job performance. The interaction term is found to be positive and significant ($\beta = 0.150$, $p<0.05$). Thus, H6 is supported. To understand the nature of the relationship, we plotted the moderating effect using the method suggested by Aiken and West (1991); the graph is shown in Figure 2. The plot shows that self-efficacy dampens the negative impact of jealousy on job performance, thus supporting H6, which further confirms the results obtained through Study 1.

Overall, the results from Study 2 broadly support the results from Study 1, which strengthens the conclusions drawn from Study 1.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Despite jealousy being a common negative emotion experienced at work that has wide-reaching consequences for organisational success (Vecchio, 2000), empirical studies of workplace jealousy remain scant (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020). This research extends our understanding of workplace jealousy by empirically investigating the mediating role of jealousy in the injustice-performance relationship. In particular, across two empirical studies, we explore workplace jealousy in organisations that exist in a national culture dominated by a neo-feudalist system of authoritarian paternalism – Pakistan. Existing work on Pakistan suggests that organisational members who are not very close to their managers, and who lack

kinship ties, have to suffer both materially and also in terms of their status, and that managers may extend patronage in a capricious fashion (Saqib et al., 2021). Workplace jealousy as an emotional response to precarity and the threat of being supplanted by others may be particularly widespread (c.f. Rubery et al., 2018); this study confirms that it is the case. This investigation explores the nature and implications of workplace jealousy vis-à-vis the injustice-performance relationship. Pakistan is not unique in terms of neo-feudalism; this may be encountered in areas of Latin America,particularly in the Central and South American peripheral states under right wing rule (Murray, 2006), and has been identified in populist-era Hungary. However, the results of the study may also be applicable to cultures that do not have a strong neo-feudalistic culture, especially given rising inequality in many national settings, heightened and more rigid labour market segmentation; existing work highlights that when this process reaches a certain level, feelings of jealousy become heightened (Clanton, 2006; Yu & Wang, 2017; Zafirovski, 2007).

Consistent with contentions of the justice theory, our results from both studies demonstrate that workplace jealousy is an emotional outcome of perceived interactional and distributive injustice implying that perceptions of injustice in organisations could trigger workplace jealousy among employees. Possibly, as distributive injustice is realised in the form of loss of outcomes and tends to relate more strongly with reactions to specific outcomes (Cropanzano, Prehar & Chen, 2002), any inequity perceived by employees is likely to trigger jealousy, which, in turn, affects their performance. Further, as jealousy represents an emotional response against perceived rivals (DeSteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett 2006), interactional injustice also leads to feelings of workplace jealousy. This highlights how perceived injustice brought about by the actions of superiors or the system at large is related to feelings of negativity towards peers. This is an important finding, which underscores the importance of fair, just and respectful

treatment of FLEs by their supervisors in service organisations characterised by patriarchal cultures, whereby employees are likely to encounter instances of favouritism and nepotism as part of their lived experiences, leading to problems of interactional injustice (Fuchs, 2018; Saqib et al., 2021).

While both procedural and interactional justice reflect secondary appraisal mechanisms (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000), surprisingly, procedural injustice is not found to trigger jealousy across both Study 1 and Study 2. Possibly, supervisor-focused interactional injustice is more salient, observable, and interpretable than procedural injustice (Colquitt et al., 2013), which does not tell the employee specifically who caused the event and who will benefit (Weiss, Suckow & Cropanzano, 1999). As such, violations of interactional justice influence feelings of jealousy as the threatened work relationship with the supervisor can be easily identified. Overall, our findings indicate that jealousy may be experienced only during instances of interactional and distributive injustice. As such, our research significantly extends and contributes to the injustice-emotion literature (Colquitt et al., 2013; Fortin et al., 2020; Michalak et al., 2019) by affirming that the domain of perceived injustice (distributive, procedural, interactional) does indeed matter in understanding the discrete emotion of jealousy; the distinct impact of the three facets of injustice on jealousy would have remained elusive if the monistic model was used.

Another key contribution of our research is that it underscores the need to acknowledge the under-researched role of workplace jealousy in frontline contexts where employees encounter face to face interactions with customers, as jealousy is found to adversely impact FLE job performance. In particular, it seems highly unlikely that service firms can achieve positive financial performance and success with a frontline workforce that is suffering from workplace

jealousy. Our investigation thus responds to calls for extending our understanding of employee discrete emotions (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020; Kraemer, Gouthier & Heidenreich 2017; Michalak et al., 2019; Rafaeli et al., 2017) by uncovering the deleterious effects of workplace jealousy for FLE task performance.

Previous research on organisational practices in Pakistan has pointed to the existence of a patriarchal culture riddled with nepotism and sycophancy (Mangi et al, 2012), where the notion of organisational justice is almost non-existent (Khilji, 2003; Islam, 2005). As Saqib et al., (2021) report, one of the distinguishing elements of the '*seth'* culture is capricious preferential treatment towards favoured employees, which might lead to notions of injustice. Haack and Siewecke (2018) conclude that people may come to accept the existing order if inequality is seen as natural or legitimate order of things; however, this does not mean that the adverse effects of inequality do not go away, or that there may not be negative outcomes at firm or societal level (Amis et al., 2018). A growing body of work highlights the potentially adverse effects of inequality for firms (Suddaby et al., 2018; Amis et al., 2018); jealously may help sustain such relations and emasculate resistance to managerial authority. In a setting associated with high levels of inequality, and, indeed, where neo-feudalist relations extend into the workplace, such as Pakistan, it is argued that jealousy can perform a social function (c.f. De Sousa et al., 2017). The engendering and sustaining of workplace jealousy may be conducive to sustain managers in their feudal trappings of inequality, and indeed divert employee resistance to structural workplace inequality. However, this exerts a price in an ability to deliver effective frontline service, and, by extension, sustain the firm into the future. Our findings across both the studies show that perceived injustice triggers feelings of workplace jealousy among FLEs, which diminishes their job performance, and hence is dysfunctional to organizations at large. In other words, our investigation demonstrates that workplace jealousy

is an underlying emotional mechanism that explicates how and why employees' perceptions of injustice diminishes their work performance. Given that FLE attitudes and behaviors significantly impact customer satisfaction and loyalty, which, in turn affect the profitability and success of the firm (Kraemer, Gouthier & Heidenreich, 2017; Jung, Yoo & Arnold, 2021), our findings suggest that workplace cultures sustaining injustice and workplace jealousy can have far-reaching consequences for service organisations, especially in neo-feudal contexts.

Our investigation further extends and contributes to the jealousy literature (Andiappan & Dufour, 2020; Wang & Sung, 2016), by demonstrating the key role of self-efficacy in regulating the negative impact of jealousy on FLE work performance. Consistent with the SCT, which posits self-efficacy as a regulator of emotional outcomes (Bandura, 1997), self-efficacy is found to significantly moderate the negative impact of jealousy on job performance across both the studies. As demonstrated in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, high self-efficacy helps to safeguard FLE job performance even when jealousy experienced by FLE is high thus demonstrating that self-efficacy beliefs indeed influence how well people motivate themselves and persevere in the face of difficulties. On the other hand, employees with low self-efficacy are found to succumb to the emotion of jealousy, which further deteriorates their performance as shown by the slope from the two plots. Employees low in self-efficacy often experience feelings of nervousness, tension and anxiety and are less likely to manage their emotions as they underestimate their abilities to compete with other colleagues (Bandura, 1997). Such employees are thus likely to react more negatively when faced with the negative emotion of jealousy and hence the negative impact of jealousy on their job performance becomes more pronounced. In workplaces with high levels of perceived injustice, especially in neo-feudal cultures, job-performance of frontline employees with low self-efficacy can be more severely impacted.

4.1 Managerial Implications

Besides theoretical contributions, this study offers some useful practical implications as well. Our results indicate that workplace jealousy is an emotional outcome of perceived injustice and can be extremely deleterious for service organisations as it has the potential to influence FLE job performance. Thus, workplace jealousy needs to be taken seriously by management; managers should adopt a more proactive approach for curtailing jealousy in the workplace by particularly paying attention to the justice mechanisms, especially concerning interactional and distributive justice. As a first step, managers should try and nurture just and fair work environments. In particular, organisations need to ensure that FLEs are treated with dignity and respect by their supervisors. Interventions to strengthen leader-member exchange (LMX) could be helpful in tackling jealousy at least at the interactional level. Past literature suggests that supervisory and leadership practices can be made more effective by training managers to adopt organisational just practices (Skarlicki & Latham, 1997). Thus, effective supervisory training may make managers more aware of the deleterious effects of interactional and distributive injustice and thus enable them to promote fair treatments and outcomes (Cole et al., 2010). Training managers to ensure appropriate and equitable distribution of outcomes as well as fair and respectful treatment of their employees may help in significantly controlling workplace jealousy to a minimum.

In several organisations, due to the embedded competitive culture or in neo-feudal settings, limiting perceived injustice among all employees might not be very successful. In such cases, improving self-efficacy may be a more plausible strategy. Across the two empirical studies we found that employee self-efficacy can reduce the negative impact of jealousy on job performance. Thus, along with establishing suitable measures for promoting organisational justice, recruiting FLEs with high self-efficacy could also help tackle the problem of workplace

jealousy to a certain extent. Given the salience of jealousy in determining FLE work outcomes, it may be prudent for management to organise regular training or counselling sessions for their FLEs to deal with emotional management and regulation. Developing emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Lindebaum & Cassell, 2012) of FLEs may also help service firms to combat the challenges of workplace jealousy. Our findings thus point to the crucial role of organisational support to improve employee self-efficacy. Managerial interventions utilising techniques such as mastery experiences whereby employees are allowed to experience success, vicarious learning via mentoring, and social persuasion, as well as neuroscience-based interventions (Peterson et al., 2008), may be useful in developing employee self-efficacy (Rego et al., 2012). Providing job autonomy has also been found to enhance employee self efficacy (Sousa et al., 2012) and hence can be utilized as a useful strategy in frontline organisations.

5. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Both a strength and a weakness of this study is its inter-disciplinarity. We deploy psychological measures of jealously to explore its relative incidence, scale and scope within a highly unequal and stratified social setting, in order to better understand how it may simultaneously sustain and undermine social orders. However, it is recognized that jealousy as a phenomenon may have collective or shared elements; understanding how jealousy may be shared within groupings would require different methods, which are beyond the scope of this study. Nonetheless, this study does provide insights into how individual feelings of jealously and responses thereto may impact on a wider social environment, and why those in authority may have an interest in reproducing the unhappiness of their subordinates. While we test our conceptual model across two studies with due steps taken to minimise and check for common method variance bias, however, this investigation is based on cross-sectional data and, hence inferences of causality cannot be established. These findings might accordingly be supplemented by longitudinal and/or experimental research. While we study organisations in

the neo-feudalist context of Pakistan, our findings may be relevant to other highly unequal societies; any tendencies may be particularly accentuated and hence most visible. Although the diversion of vertical injustice to horizontal rivalries is a common phenomenon, this study provides further insights into how this process works in practice. Replications of this study in other settings (and, indeed, in communities) might help further explain the resilience of socially and economically unjust orders, and indeed the relationships between jealousy and populism; it would also help reveal how generalizable our findings might be. In future, it would be interesting to examine other moderators such as personality traits (Goldberg, 1990) or perceived support mechanisms such as POS (Eisenberger et al., 2001), which may help attenuate the effects of jealousy on work outcomes. Studies could also include other consequences such as FLE turnover, workplace deviance, and organisational commitment to further understand both the deleterious impact of jealousy and how it underpins workplace order. Also, it would be useful to understand if workplace jealousy influences customer outcomes such as customer satisfaction or loyalty, as jealous FLEs are likely to ill-treat customers as a mark of deviance or retaliation.

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Table 1

Profile of Respondents: Study 1

	No. of respondents	Percentage
Gender		
Males	295	76
Females	93	24
Age (years)		
18-24	12	3.1
25-31	154	39.7
32-38	134	34.5
39-45	60	15.5
Above 46	28	7.2
Experience		
Less than one year	24	6.2
1 to 5 years	80	20.6
5 to 10 years	179	46.1
10 to 15 years	74	19.1
15 years and above	31	0.8
Total	388	

Table 2
Study 1 measurement model: Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Coefficient of Reliability (CR), Average Variance extracted (AVE) and inter-construct correlations.

	Mean	S.D	CR	AVE	Procedural Injustice	Distributive Injustice	Interactional Injustice	Self-Efficacy	Jealousy	Job Performance
Procedural Injustice	3.55	0.85	0.805	0.579	**0.761**					
Distributive Injustice	3.46	1.05	0.938	0.790	0.717	**0.889**				
Interactional Injustice	3.26	0.97	0.875	0.584	0.722	0.578	**0.764**			
Self-Efficacy	4.16	1.51	0.855	0.669	-0.505	-0.391	-0.555	**0.817**		
Jealousy	5.09	1.54	0.923	0.799	0.545	0.532	0.714	-0.451	**0.893**	
Job Performance	2.98	1.00	0.936	0.785	-0.636	-0.541	-0.666	0.646	-0.659	**0.886**

The diagonal elements are the square root of the AVE and the off-diagonal elements are the inter-construct correlations.

Table 3

Test of alternate measurement models: Study 1

	No. of Latent Constructs	χ^2/d.f	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model 1	4	6.60	0.852	0.822	0.114
Model 2	3	7.73	0.803	0.763	0.132
Model 3	2	8.93	0.765	0.721	0.143
Model 4	1	10.67	0.753	0.755	0.158
Model 5	6	3.88	0.905	0.903	0.086

Table 4
Study 1 Multilevel Path Analysis results: Base line (Model 1) and mediation model (Model2)

From	To	Model 1	p-value	Model 2	p-value
Control Variables					
Gender	Jealousy	-0.083(0.551)	0.581	-0.090 (-0.655)	0.512
Age	Jealousy	-0.087(.334)	0.738	-0.095(-0.980)	0.327
Experience	Jealousy	0.026(2.663)	0.008	0.024(2.186)	0.029*
Gender	Job Performance	-0.262(-3.972)	0.000	-0.290(-4.468)	0.000**
Age	Job Performance	-0.021(-0.410)	0.682	-0.052 (-1.004)	0.315
Experience	Job Performance	0.006(0.754)	0.451	0.000 (0.047)	0.962
Direct effects					
Distributive Injustice	Jealousy	0.358(4.008)	0.000	0.366(4.143)	0.000**
Procedural Injustice	Jealousy	0.038 (0.214)	0.830	0.030(0.174)	0.862
Interactional Injustice	Jealousy	0.848(5.954)	0.000	0.854(5.866)	0.000**
Jealousy	Job Performance	-0.234 (-7.458)	0.000	-0.235(-7.730)	0.000**
Distributive Injustice	Job Performance	-0.048(-0.882)	0.378	-0.016(-0.304)	0.761
Procedural Injustice	Job Performance	-0.278(-4.651)	0.000	-0.310(-5.208)	0.000**
Interactional Injustice	Job Performance	-0.208 (-2.890)	0.004	-0.183(-2.556)	0.011*
Indirect effects (through Jealousy)					
Distributive Injustice (indirect effect)	Job Performance			-0.086(-4.253)	0.000**
Procedural Injustice (indirect effect)	Job Performance			-0.007(-0.174)	0.862
Interactional Injustice (indirect effect)	Job Performance			-0.201(-4.325)	0.000**

*p<0.05; **p<0.01

Table 5

Profile of Respondents: Study 2

	No. of respondents	Percentage
Gender		
Males	92	52.3
Females	84	47.3
Age (years)		
18-24	13	7.4
25-31	56	31.8
32-38	81	46.0
39-45	15	8,5
Above 46	11	6.3
Experience		
Less than one year	0	0.00
1 to 5 years	27	15.3
5 to 10 years	71	40.4
10 to 15 years	43	24.4
15 years and above	35	19.9
Total	176	

Table 6
Study 2 measurement model: Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Coefficient of Reliability (CR), Average Variance extracted (AVE) and inter-construct correlations.

	Mean	S. D	CR	AVE	Procedural Injustice	Distributive Injustice	Interactional Injustice	Self-Efficacy	Jealousy	Job Performance
Procedural Injustice	3.459	.866	0.857	0.667	**0.817**					
Distributive Injustice	3.386	1.076	0.917	0.733	.611	**0.856**				
Interactional Injustice	3.512	.941	0.887	0.667	.539	.338	**0.813**			
Self-Efficacy	3.547	1.259	0.899	0.749	.045	-.219	.040	**0.865**		
Jealousy	3.742	1.106	0.837	0.631	.305	.353	.256	-.064	**0.794**	
Job Performance	2.471	.930	0.903	0.701	-.348	-.418	-.315	.233	-.397	**0.837**

Table 7

Study 2 Path analysis results

From	**To**	**Path coefficient (CR)**	**p-value**
Control Variables			
Gender	Jealousy	.073(.476)	.634
Age	Jealousy	-.036(-.444)	.657
Experience	Jealousy	-.008(-.018)	.985
Gender	Job Performance	-.066(-.491)	.624
Age	Job Performance	.013(.180)	.857
Experience	Job Performance	.433(1.073)	.283
Direct effects			
Distributive Injustice	Jealousy	.235 (2.202)	**.028**
Procedural Injustice	Jealousy	.145 (1.109)	**.267**
Interactional Injustice	Jealousy	.102 (1.950)	**.050**
Jealousy	Job Performance	-.172(-2.090)	.037
Distributive Injustice	Job Performance	-.167(-1.776)	.076
Procedural Injustice	Job Performance	-.123(-1.073)	.283
Interactional Injustice	Job Performance	-.087(-1.902)	0.057
Indirect effects (through Jealousy)			**p-value; LLCI, ULCI**
Distributive Injustice (indirect effect)	Job Performance	-.040	.054 [-.123, -.005]
Procedural Injustice (indirect effect)	Job Performance	-.025	.210 [-.108, .007]
Interactional Injustice (indirect effect)	Job Performance	-.018	.089 [-.057, -.001]

Figure 1

Conceptual Model

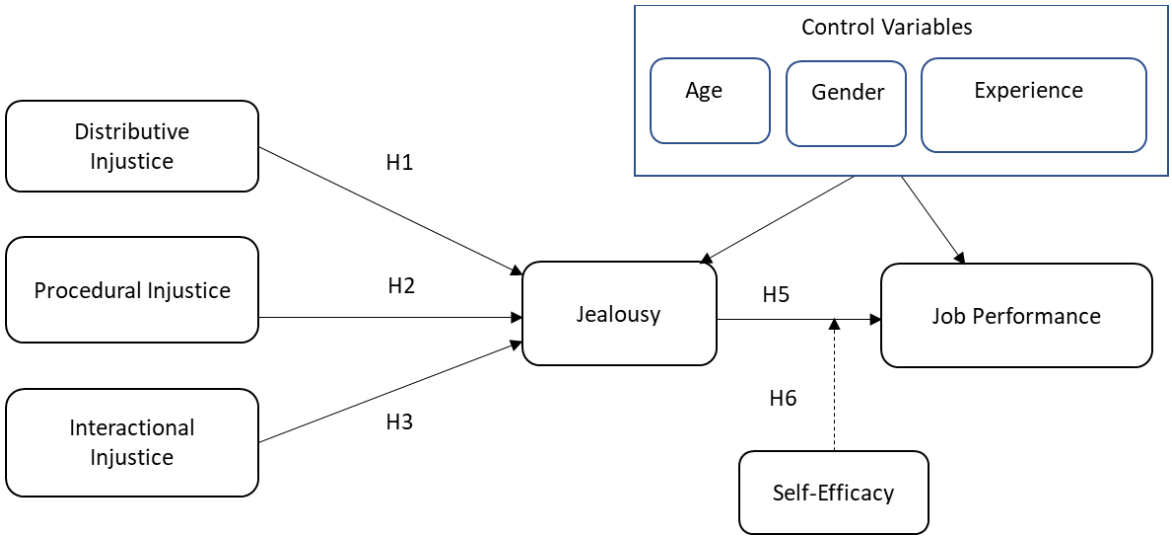

Figure 2

Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy in the Jealousy- Job Performance relationship – Study 1

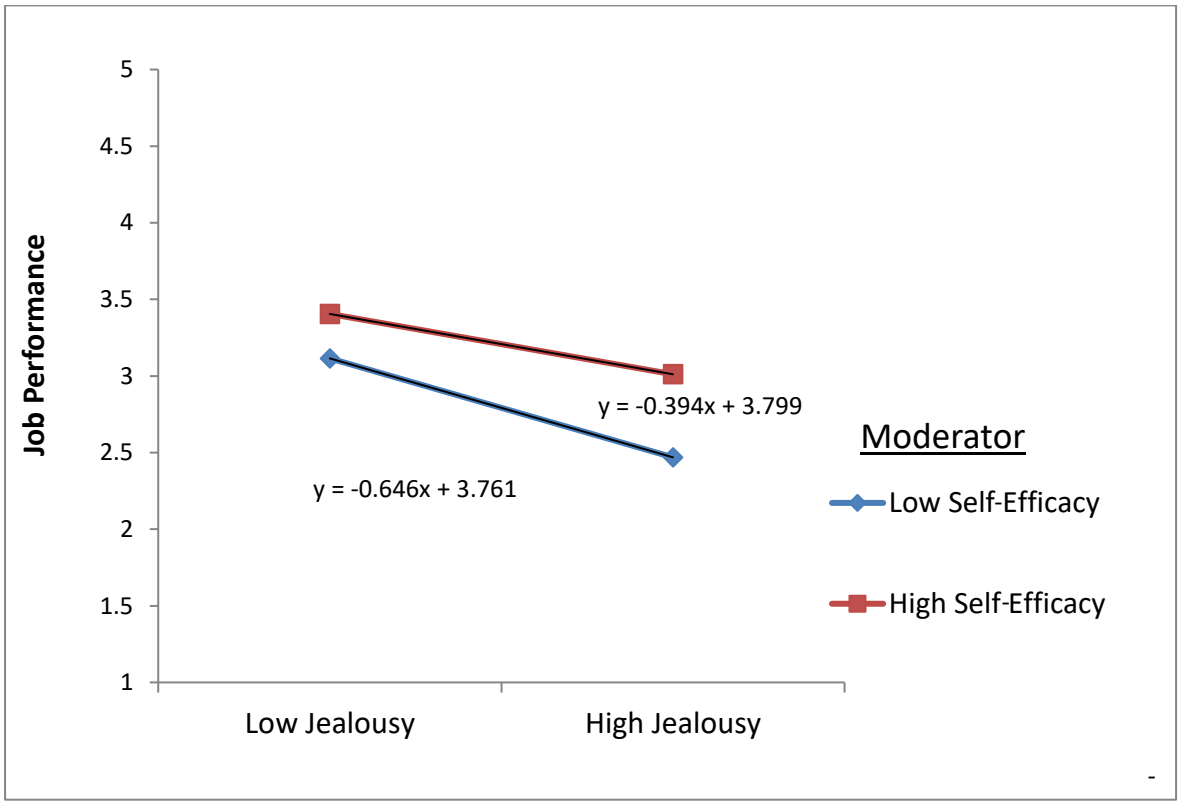

Figure 3

Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy in the Jealousy- Job Performance relationship – Study 2