The Role of Workplace Enviousness on Individual Productivity and Organizational Behavior

Mustafa J. Issa[1], Qusay H. Al-Salami[2]

[1]Department of Business Administration, College of Management and Economics, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq
[2]Department of Business Administration, Cihan University, Erbil, Kurdistan Region, Iraq

Abstract—As a result of its negative consequences for college academics, workplace envy is one of the important areas to study and investigate its results. Thus, this study attempts to find out individuals' productivity affected by envy in the workplace (CWBI) and organizational citizenship behavior directly benefits individuals (OCBI) in the context of Iraqi colleges. A survey was conducted among the lecturers at Baghdad University's colleges in Iraq, with 182 lecturers representing a response rate of 50%. The researcher used two-step approach with partial least squares-structural equation modeling by Smart PLS to test the hypotheses. As anticipated, the research findings point that workplace envy positively influenced CWBI (accepting H1). Furthermore, results indicated that workplace envy negatively influenced OCBI (accepting H2). The results of this research have various implications for colleges in general and Iraqi colleges in particular. The scientific impact that the results of the present study will contribute to practitioners is demonstrated by highlighting the factors that lead to reducing CWBI and strengthening OCBI in colleges. To enhance the OCBI and minimize the CWBI in colleges, it is advised that the management should encourage academic cooperation and create a work environment suitable for the academics. This can be achieved by forming research teams to work on joint scientific projects and by allowing qualified academics to participate in teaching, supervising postgraduate students, and discussion committees. Providing positive organizational support can motivate the academics to perform better, exhibit responsible behavior, and become productive members of the college community.

Keywords—Counterproductive work behavior, Iraqi colleges, Organizational citizenship behavior, Partial least squares-structural equation modeling, Workplace envy.

I. INTRODUCTION

All organizations face the critical fact of scarcity of resources. Raise granting these resources, recognition, promotion, and rewards can lead to competition among staff within organizations (Jami et al., 2023). In fact, the employees' sense of competition comes through emotions. This is because employees are highly emotional beings (Patient et al., 2003). Therefore, in the field of organizational behavior, emotions are always present during the daily work of employees and have an influential role in the way employees behave and interact with their coworkers (Jami and Agha, 2022, Ghadi, 2018).

There are two categories of emotions in organizations: Negative emotions and positive emotions (Robbins and Judge, 2017). Correspondingly, the success of organizations depends on the extent of their focus on positive and negative emotions effectively (Ghadi, 2018). In this regard, Erdil and Müceldili (2014) noted that the literature review indicates that the studies conducted on negative emotions are few compared to studies on positive emotions. Accordingly, studying negative emotions in organizations are very important. In parallel, when lived with the highest intensity, negative emotions of employees will interfere with mental functioning and lead to unsuitable behavior. Consequently, organizations need to consider negative emotions to avoid deviant behavior in the workplace (Fatah, 2019).

Indeed, workplace envy is one of a negative emotions in the organization (Hareli and Weiner, 2002). Envy at workplace is considered an important topic in organizational behavior. Besides, the importance of studying workplace envy is negative emotions that arise in the employee towards another employee due to what he has and want to get, such as promotion, reward, position, or better work, and this can lead to malicious behavior in the workplace (Robbins and Judge, 2017). Furthermore, organizations should recognize that staff at various administrative levels is exposed to envy (Menon and Thompson, 2010).

There is a sudden scarcity of envious studies within the field of behavioral and social sciences. For instance, Jameel et al. (2021) and Mishra (2009) noted that there is an apparent disregard for the issue of workplace envy by academics and practitioners. Further, it has been ignored and has not been sufficiently recognized. Moreover, Shu and Lazatkhan (2017) emphasized that empirical studies on workplace envy in behavioral and social sciences are still in the infancy stage. Furthermore, the study of workplace envy and its role in organizational outputs has just begun to develop, and there is still much to study theoretical and empirical (Duffy et al., 2008). The lack of attention towards workplace envy could be attributed to the challenge of identifying envious individuals within the work setting. It may also stem from the negative perception associated with envy, as employees may hesitate to openly display it, fearing potential damage to their reputation. Consequently, it becomes essential to investigate and diagnose workplace envy (Ghadi, 2018).

Lately, researchers studied workplace envy either to control it or to find means to prevent it. For example, it was studied with workplace ostracism (Liu et al., 2019), sensed oppression, sentimental animosity and counterproductive attitudes (Navarro-Carrillo et al., 2018), counterproductive work and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) (Ghadi, 2018), job liaison and social undermining disposal (Shu and Lazatkhan, 2017), job engagement and turnover intention (Erdil and Müceldili, 2014), counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) (Khan et al., 2014), and competition and other-directed negative emotions on pleasure at another's misfortune (Hareli and Weiner, 2002).

Further, Ghadi (2018) conducted his study in four Jordanian organizations and recommended the need to study workplace envy in other countries and sectors. Similarly, Navarro-Carrillo et al. (2018), in their study about workplace envy in the general Spanish population, recommended replicating it in other countries. Likewise, Shu and Lazatkhan (2017) recommended studying how envy can affect the outcomes of employees in different contexts.

Nonetheless, through the literature done by the authors, not extensive research has been conducted on the effect of envy in the workplace on CWB and OCB, especially in the context of Iraqi colleges. In addition to the theoretical reasons, there are practical reasons to consider the envy of the workplace. For example, managing envy is essential for employees and managers, because it affects behaviors and attitudes in the workplace, and thus organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the effect of workplace envy on CWB and OCB in an Iraqi college context.

The results of the current research can benefit from several aspects in different areas. Academics will receive a better perception of the importance of workplace envy and its consequences. Moreover, employers will gain a better understanding of indicators of measuring envy in the workplace and thus the possibility of diagnosing it and treating it. Besides, lecturers will find out how bad the issue of envy is and thus could lead to their elimination.

II. Research Background and Development of Hypotheses

A. Workplace Enviousness

Envy has been studied in various fields such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, and religion for a long time. In the mid-1990s, it began to be discussed in organizational literature from two perspectives. The first perspective, known as the "managerial perspective," looks at emotions through the lens of organizations and management, and it is the dominant approach in research on organizational justice. The second perspective is the employee-centered perspective, which recognizes that negative emotions like anger, rage, and envy are normal and expected. According to this perspective, employees who experience or express envy in the workplace are not necessarily dysfunctional (Duffy et al., 2008). The first paper was by Bedeian in 1995; it explained the impact of envy on employees in the workplace and some recommendations to limit its potential negative consequences (Bedeian, 1995). In the same year, this paper was accompanied in the organizational literature by a significant supplementary on the topic of workplace envy by Robert Vecchio (Vecchio, 1995). It is difficult to define a simple and precise definition of envy because it is used in several ways (Bedeian, 1995). Webster's dictionary defines envious behavior as a certain level of dislike and desire to have what others possess, in addition to repulsion, resentment, and not wishing for good luck when seeing the excellence of others (Ministry et al., 2018). From an organizational view, workplace envy is defined as negative feelings resulting from the employee's sense of inferiority and hostility and comparing himself with a coworker or a group of coworkers and his desire to possess what others have, whether traits, advantages, skills, abilities or knowledge, etc. (Kim et al., 2010, Menon and Thompson, 2010, Kim and Radosevich, 2007, Heikkinen and Isola, 2004). Despite most employees suffering from the experience of envy at least once, this emotion is not recognized in front of others (Cohen-Charash, 2009). This is because the recognition of envy means giving up inferiority to the other, which harms the ego as confirmed by anthropologist George Foster (Bedeian, 1995). In fact, workplace envy leads to spreads negativity everywhere in the organization (Menon and Thompson, 2010). The experience of these feelings in organizations is based on social comparison (Mishra, 2009) because the process of social comparison is generally accepted as a situation in the human soul (Nandedkar and Midha, 2012). Social comparison between employees is made according to many methods such as promotions, salaries, benefits, and advantages (Erdil and Müceldili, 2014). Since these methods are adopted in all organizations, it is very difficult for any organization to be free from workplace envy (Ghadi, 2018). Furthermore, the closer an employee is to his co-worker, the higher likelihood of an envious comparison process (Kim et al., 2010), because he has detailed information about the advantages and achievements of his co-worker. An example of this is a research conducted by both Menon and Thompson

(2010) on a sample of organizations and their executives on the role of envy in the workplace, they found that employees at all levels of the organization were unprotected from envy regardless of economic and material advantages. Likewise, in the field of academic work at universities and institutes, envy among academics is usually due to publications, scientific advantages, prizes, and gifts, not money and material matters (Bedeian, 1995). In view of this, an envious individual may distort the positive achievements and successes of others and spread rumors that underestimate them (Ghadi, 2018, Bedeian, 1995). As a result, these behaviors can be the reason why outstanding academics leave for other universities or institutes (Dogan and Vecchio, 2001) whether they leave inside or outside the country.

B. CWB

Over recent years, CWB (Cohen-Charash and Mueller, 2007, Fox and Miles, 2001, Levine, 2010, Krischer et al., 2010, Chernyak-Hai and Tziner, 2014) or workplace deviance (Mackey et al., 2021, Pletzer et al., 2020, Laila et al., 2019, Zheng et al., 2019, Bennett and Robinson, 2000, Robinson and Bennett, 1995) has obtained critical research attention, as this topic has been shown to have significant economic, psychological and sociological implications (Aubé et al., 2009). Although there is no agreed definition of CWB in the literature on organizational behavior, it has been clearly defined by some researchers (Brimecombe et al., 2014). CWB is defined as harmful intentional behaviors carried out by the employee and lead to violation of organizational standards, rules, and objectives and, thus, threaten the well-being of the organization or its employees or both (Spector et al., 2010, Robbins and Judge, 2017). These behaviors include harassing and marginalizing (Vecchio, 1995), failure to complete the work properly or intentionally not following instructions (Fox and Miles, 2001), stealing from co-workers, endangering coworkers, harassment, verbal abuse, gossiping about coworkers, blaming coworkers, competing no beneficially (Robinson and Bennett, 1995), and insulting others (Cohen, 2016). Therefore, these behaviors cost organizations large sums and, at the same time, cause significant harm to employees, thereby reducing the effectiveness of the organization (Bennett and Robinson, 2000, Chernyak-Hai and Tziner, 2014, Cohen, 2016, Fox and Miles, 2001). Other notion was stated by Jameel et al. (2021) that transformational and transactional leadership can be an essential predictors of OCB in education system.

C. OCB

It is the appreciation that an individual receives for his efforts, although this appreciation is not included in the job description (Organ et al., 2006). This, in turn, has an impact on the psychological and social environment of the individual within the organization (Robbins and Judge, 2017). Williams and Anderson (1991) introduced a two-type conceptualization of OCB involves first that directly benefits individuals (OCBI) and second that directly benefits organization (OCBO). OCBI consists of additional assistive behaviors specifically for individuals (Kim et al., 2010, Yen and Teng, 2013). This behavior may involve helping coworkers that have heavy workloads. Massoudi (2022) linked organizational culture to organizational citizen behavior. Furthermore, OCB has five components: conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship. Such behaviors can contribute significantly to improving organizational performance. OCB has become essential for universities to improve their performance continuously (Massoudi and Birdawod, 2023, Al-Salami and Abdalla, 2022, Al-Salami et al., 2023).

D. Relationship between Workplace Envy and CWBI

Indeed, workplace envy can predict CWBs that are directed towards individuals (CWBI) (Mishra, 2009). Recent studies indicate that envious employees tend to practice more CWBI (Navarro-Carrillo et al., 2018). Similarly, since workplace envy is a negative feeling characterized by hostility and inferiority (Bedeian, 1995), it can lead to many CWBI in the organization (Ghadi, 2018). This is because workplace envy generates negative reactions toward individuals (Dogan and Vecchio, 2001). Besides, according to the social comparison perspective of the envy experience, an employee can seek to eliminate or minimize that comparison pain through CWBI (Smith and Kim, 2007). In this respect, Fox and Miles (2001) and Krischer et al. (2010) found that there is a significant positive relationship linking negative emotions with CWBI. Furthermore, Erdil and Müceldili (2014) empirically confirmed that the experience of workplace envy by employees has a negative impact on their behavior. Khan et al. (2014) provided evidence that episodic envy had a positive relationship with CWBI. Braun et al. (2018) also found positive significant results about the relationship between malicious envy and the manifestation of CWBI. The empirical literature above indicates significantly the strength of the positive association between CWB and envy in the workplace. Therefore, based on the evidence above and assumptions of social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976), which proposes that "exchange relationships result in economic or social outcomes (or both)." These outputs can be either positive or negative. In this respect, from an exchange perspective, a result of the employee's feeling of inferiority and unproductiveness when experiencing envy in the workplace will manifest this feeling of counterproductive behavior with co-workers at work (Al-Salami et al., 2019). Accordingly, the following hypothesis is shown (Fig. 1):

Hypothesis 1. Workplace envy is associated with a significant positive relationship with CWBI.
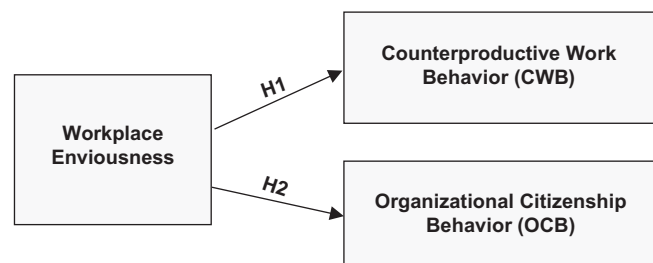

Fig. 1: Recommended research model.

E. Relationship between Workplace Enviousness and OCB

In fact, workplace envy can be a disincentive to OCB, but it does not have to be a disincentive to official tasks in the job description of employees (Kim et al., 2010). During the past years, some research has focused on examining the nature of the relationship between OCB and Workplace enviousness. For instance, Ghadi (2018), in his research conducted in Jordan, workplace envy was reported to have a negative relationship with OCB. Another study on 385 respondents in 25 organizations from different industries in Norway by Thompson et al. (2015) found that OCB was negatively affected by workplace envy. In a separate study, Kim and Radosevich (2007) demonstrated that workplace envy has a negative indirect relationship with OCB. They investigated the mediating role that leadership member exchange plays in the relationship between OCB and workplace envy in the service industry. In the 233 front-line employees in the hotel industry, Kim et al. (2010) concluded that the envy of the workplace by the employee would reduce OCB toward coworkers. Most of the empirical literature referred to above indicates a significant relationship between OCB and workplace envy. These outputs can be either positive or negative. In this respect, from an exchange perspective, the envious employee as a result of the pain of comparison with successful coworkers is expected to leave OCB such as assistance and cooperation with his colleagues at work Ghadi (2018). Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered (Fig. 1):

Hypothesis 2. There is a significant negative relationship between workplace envy and OCBI.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Measures

The workplace envy was operationalized using 5 items adopted from Vecchio (1995). Here used Likert-type scale (5 – point), where "never occurs" coded as =1, "rarely occurs" = 2, "sometimes occurs" = 3, "often occurs" = 4, and "always occurs" = 5. This scale has established satisfying psychometric characteristics through use in the previous studies (Kim et al., 2010, Ghadi, 2018, Cohen-Charash, 2009, Thompson et al., 2015).

Correspondingly, only two types of employee behavior were taken care of here. These behaviors include CWBI as a negative behavior and OCBI as a positive behavior. CWBI was operationalized using seven items adapted from Bennett and Robinson (2000). A "5 – point Likert-type scale" ranging 1 "never," 2 "2–3 times yearly," 3 "2–3 times monthly," 4 "2–3 times weekly," and 5 "daily" were used to assess these items. This scale has established satisfying psychometric characteristics through use in previous studies (Ghadi, 2018, Chernyak-Hai and Tziner, 2014, Yen and Teng, 2013).

Finally, OCBI was operationalized with seven items adopted from Williams and Anderson (1991). These items were assessed by "5 – point Likert-type scale" ranging 1 "never," 2 "2–3 times yearly," 3 "2–3 times monthly," 4 "2–3 times weekly," and 5 "daily." Several studies used this scale (e.g., Kim et al., 2010, Yen and Teng, 2013) because it has sufficient reliability and validity.

B. Sample Design and Data Collection

The present study collects empirical data using an adapted questionnaire for this purpose. The individual was relied on as the unit of analysis because the variables of the present study belong to the individual; thus, the questionnaire was distributed to lecturers at the University of Baghdad in Iraq. According to the statistics presented on the website of the University of Baghdad[1], the total number of lecturers is 6532. Equation (1) can be used to calculate the necessary sample size or by accessing an online sample size calculator:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 pqN}{\partial^2 N + Z^2 pq} \quad (1)$$

Where n denotes the sample size required; N is the general population; and Z denotes the coefficient determined in accordance with the confidence level employed (for 95% CI, Z = 1.96). p denotes the proportion of respondents who possess the investigated characteristic (usually 50%); q denotes the proportion of respondents who do not possess the examined characteristic; is the margin of error (often 5%) (Sim et al., 2018). Using Eq. (1), we can determine the true sample size for our University of Baghdad population as follows:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 pqN}{\partial^2 N + Z^2 pq} = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5)(6532)}{(0.05)^2 (6532) + (1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5)} = 363$$

After the questionnaire was distributed to lecturers at Baghdad University's colleges, 182 were returned, representing a response rate of 50%, which exceeds 30% which represents the minimum permissible response rate Sekaran and Bougie (2016). One hundred and eighty-two questionnaires were distributed, of which only 160 were accepted, 22 of them were rejected and excluded, due to a lack of data or there was some bias in the answer that may be intentional or due to some error. Table I shows all the demographic characteristics of the participants.

C. Data Analysis

Two steps of data analysis were adopted for this research, derived from the partial least squares-structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Anderson and Gerbing recommend their use because they examine scaling and structural models separately.

There are necessary procedures for advanced analyzes when using the above two-step PLS-SEM (Structural Model Evaluation and Measurement Model) to be implemented, enabling us to obtain valid overall results (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2017).

IV. FINDINGS

A. Measurement Model

To begin with the statistical analysis of the proposed research model, we will rely on convergent validity, which is preferably >0.7 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988), and similarly when

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1. https://uobaghdad.edu.iq/?p=17735

finding composite reliability (CR) (Gefen et al., 2000). It is preferable that the value be >0.5 when finding the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table II, in addition to Fig. 1, shows all of the above.

Depending on the results shown in Fig. 2 and Table II, we find that the loading values ranged between 0.712 and 0.953, and therefore, they are higher than recommended (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Moreover, we find that the CR values also ranged between 0.892 and 0.944 which is certainly higher than the recommended 0.70 (Gefen et al., 2000). Next, the AVE ranged from 0.589 to 0.709, which is also greater than the recommended value of 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981, Bagozzi and Yi, 1988).

From the above results, it can be inferred that all convergent validity values are significant since the conditions are met. Regarding discriminant validity, Gefen and Straub (2005) indicated that there was no specific cutoff value for the discriminant validity, although most researchers agreed that the value was higher than cross-loads with other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

TABLE I
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Demographic factors	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
25 to<35	28	17.5
35 to<45	65	40.6
45 to<55	37	23.1
More than 55	30	18.8
Gender		
Male	88	55
Female	72	45
Academic certification		
Master	92	57.5
PhD	68	42.5
Number of years of working experiences		
<5	26	16.3
5–<10	39	24.4
10–<20	31	19.4
More than 20	64	40.0

It can be seen that the discriminative validity was achieved as in Table III because all measures of the square root of AVEs (CWBI [0.768], OCBI [0.842], and workplace envy [0.790]), we notice that it has a value that exceeds the values of the variances of the other structures.

Table IV above shows that the HTMT values got less than the required threshold value of 0.85 for all combinations, and this indicates that the discriminatory validity was obtained for the combinations of our research.

B. Structural Model

There are several steps recommended by Hair et al. (2017) to verify the validity of research hypotheses, including the evaluation of (the collinearity, the significance of path coefficients, the coefficient of determination R^2, and finally the evaluation of the predictive relationship (Q^2)).

(Chin et al., 2003, Sharma, 2000) indicated that collinearity occurs due to the strong correlation between two or more independent constructs in the model. However, this test was not performed because the present study had only one independent variable. Results were obtained from a one-tailed t-distribution of the research sample, according to Hair et al. (2017), the level of significance is (≥2.33) for a one-tailed t distribution of 1% and is (≥1.65) at 5%, while it is (≥1.28) at 10%; otherwise, the hypothesis is rejected due to non-significance.

Statistically, when a one-tailed test has been performed that the level of significance is a t-value of 1% (≥2.33), at 5%, it is (≥1.65), while, at 10%, it is (≥1.28). Therefore, any value less than the stated value is considered insignificant (Hair et al. 2017).

The PLS-SEM statistical software relies on R-squared (R^2) to evaluate the structural model (Hair et al., 2012), where R^2 takes the values 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25, and they are interpreted as sufficiently large, medium, and weak (Hair et al., 2017).

Next, in this study, the researcher performed an assessment of Stone-Geisser's predictive relevance (Q^2) of the model
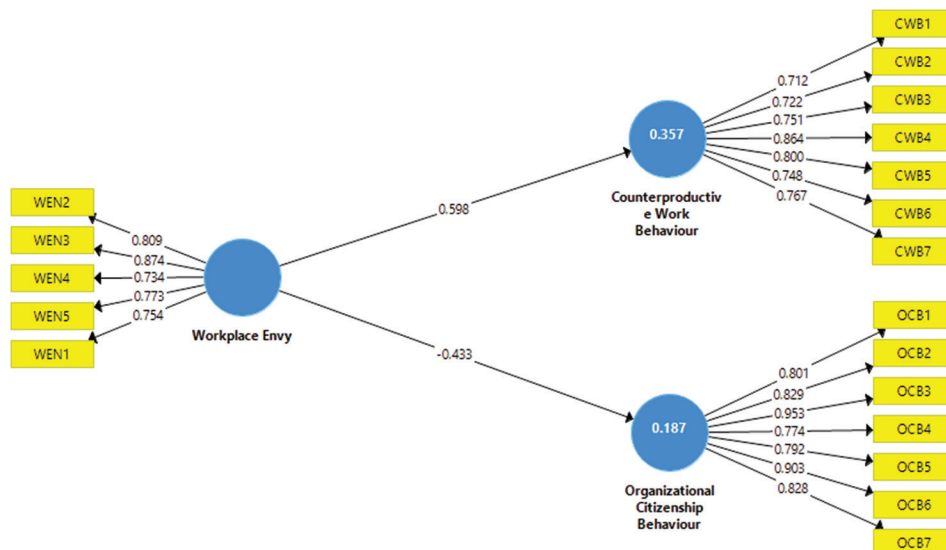

Fig. 2: Measurement model.

(Geisser, 1974) as guided by Hair et al. (2017). Essentially, the predictive significance of the research model appears when the values of Q^2 are greater than zero, otherwise, there is no predictive correlation, relying on the reflexive endogenous variable (Hair et al., 2017, Geisser, 1974). Table V and Fig. 3 show the outputs of the structural model for this study.

As illustrated in Table V, the relationship between CWBI and workplace envy is significant and positive (β = 0.598, t = 10.171, P < 0.01). Workplace envy was also significant negatively related to OCBI (β = −0.433, t = 4.796, P < 0.01). Therefore, H1 and H2 were supported. The R^2 value of 35.7% indicates that the variance in CWBI and 18.7 variances in OCBI were explained by workplace envy in the model. It can be concluded that the predictive accuracy of the structural model was moderate and weak, respectively, based on the

TABLE II
CONVERGENT VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY FOR CONSTRUCTS

Variables	Items code	Item loading	CR	AVE
CWBI	CWB1	0.712	0.909	0.589
	CWB2	0.722		
	CWB3	0.751		
	CWB4	0.864		
	CWB5	0.800		
	CWB6	0.748		
	CWB7	0.767		
OCBI	OCB1	0.801	0.944	0.709
	OCB2	0.829		
	OCB3	0.953		
	OCB4	0.774		
	OCB5	0.792		
	OCB6	0.903		
	OCB7	0.828		
Workplace Envy	WEN2	0.809	0.892	0.624
	WEN3	0.874		
	WEN4	0.734		
	WEN5	0.773		
	WEN1	0.754		

TABLE III
FORNELL-LARCKER CRITERION

Variables	CWB	OCB	Workplace envy
CWBI	0.768		
OCBI	−0.681	0.842	
Workplace envy	0.598	−0.433	0.790

TABLE IV
HTMT

Variables	CWBI	OCBI
OCBI	0.737	
Workplace envy	0.631	0.465

TABLE V
HYPOTHESES TESTING

H	Path	SD beta	SD error	t-value	P-value	Result	R^2	Q^2
H1	Workplace Envy→CWBI	0.598	0.058	10.395	0.000	Supported	0.357	0.180
H2	Workplace Envy→OCBI	-0.433	0.089	4.844	0.000	Supported	0.187	0.120

value of (R^2). Next, the predictive capability of the model which was the Q^2 values of CWBI (Q2 = 0.180) and OCBI (Q2 = 0.120), the model had satisfactory predictive relevance, because all values of Q^2 are considerably above zero.

V. DISCUSSION

At this stage, the research results that may support or refute the hypotheses of the study will be presented, and then compared with previous relevant studies to see the extent of compatibility between them. The result of hypothesis 1 by PLS-SEM confirms the positive and significant relationship between CWBI and workplace envy, thus accepting H1. That the nature of this relationship is in line with the expected trend of many researchers who are interested in studying the effect of envy in the workplace on CWBI (Ghadi, 2018, Erdil and Müceldili, 2014, Khan et al., 2014, Braun et al., 2018). Based on the findings of these studies, they confirm the positive impact of the practice of envy in the workplace on CWBI. The empirical research by Ghadi (2018) established a significant positive relationship between workplace envy and CWBI. A similar result was reported by Erdil and Müceldili (2014) that empirically confirmed that the experience of workplace envy by employees has a negative impact on their behavior. The result of this study also supports the findings of Khan et al. (2014), which provided evidence that episodic envy had a positive relationship with CWBI. The result of the present study is also consistent with the results of Braun et al. (2018) which also found positive significant results about the relationship between malicious envy and the manifestation of CWBI.

The result of H2 by PLS-SEM confirms the negative relationship between OCBI and envy in the workplace, so the 2nd hypothesis is accepted, and this supports findings by (Thompson et al., 2015, Ghadi, 2018, Kim and Radosevich, 2007, Kim et al., 2010). It also supports the conclusion of Thompson et al. (2015) which applied to 385 respondents in 25 organizations from different industries in Norway found that workplace envy negatively affected OCBI.

Results obtained from this study also confirm the findings of Ghadi (2018), in his research conducted in Jordan, workplace envy was reported to have a negative relationship with OCB.
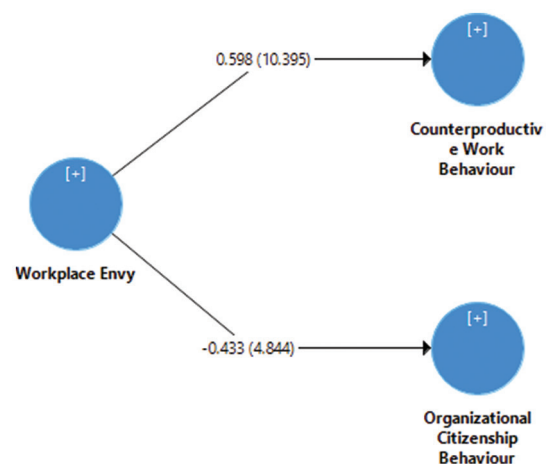

Fig. 3: Structural model.

Similar results by Kim and Radosevich (2007) demonstrated that workplace envy has a negative indirect relationship with OCB. This result is also in line with the study of the 233 front-line employees in the hotel industry; Kim et al. (2010) concluded that the envy of the workplace by the employee would reduce OCB toward coworkers. Therefore, these results are considered an expansion of research literature, because they confirmed the relationships in the colleges in Iraq as the context is different from previous studies.

VI. Conclusion

This study revealed the organizational outputs in the colleges of Iraq and made a small contribution to the formation of the body of knowledge. The role of workplace envy has been found, which helps colleges explain the reasons for the increase in CWBI, and the reduction of OCBI. Furthermore, workplace envy has been found to be a critical dimension in issues related to negative emotions and organizational behavior within colleges. This study provided evidence that workplace envy has a positive association with CWBI and a negative association with OCBI. Partially, important findings are the opportunities for future research to reduce the impact of CWBI and enhance OCBI through the mediating role of justice and organizational culture. It also encourages further studies on these variables in other countries and other industries. Our results have significant implications for practitioners as well. To reduce the CWBI and enhance the OCBI in colleges, management should encourage the promotion of academic cooperation and provide an appropriate work environment for academicians. For example, colleges may establish research team works to conduct joint scientific research. Colleges can also involve all qualified academicians in the teaching and supervision of postgraduate students and discussion committees. With this positive organizational support, the academics will be motivated to move away from the CWBI and move toward excelling in their work and behaving as a citizen in the college.

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