

Workplace Capitalization: The Consequences of Sharing Good News at Work

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Abstract

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Capitalization—the process of sharing a personal positive event with others—provides disclosers with many advantages such as increased self-esteem, relationship quality, and relationship trust. However, because theory on capitalization has been narrowly developed within the context of close relationship partners, it is unclear whether these benefits generalize when disclosing positive events at work. In this paper I investigate capitalization in the workplace, defined as the process of sharing personal work-related positive events with coworkers. Drawing from social comparison theory, I posit that competition influences whether workplace capitalization will result in positive versus negative reactions. Whereas workplace capitalization leads to admiration and interpersonal citizenship behavior when competition is low, under competitive conditions workplace capitalization generates envy and social undermining. Overall, my model expands the potential consequences of capitalization to the responder and postulates competition as a key determinative boundary condition.

INTRODUCTION

People savor the good things that happen to them when they amplify or prolong their enjoyment of positive events (Bryant, 1989). One typical way to savor a positive event is to tell others about it to derive additional benefits, a concept known as capitalization (Langston, 1994). Capitalization augments and supplements the effects of positive events beyond their initial impact. Capitalization is common—research shows that people experience positive events almost every day, and that people capitalize on these events over 60 percent of the time (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Gable et al., 2004; Reis et al., 2010).

Capitalization provides disclosers with an opportunity to feel understood, validated, and cared for (Gable & Reis, 2010). When a discloser is met with a supportive response, capitalization produces multiple benefits such as increased positive affect, self-esteem, relationship quality, and relationship trust (Gable, Reis, Impett, & Asher, 2004; Reis et al., 2010). Although responses to capitalization vary, research suggests that a supportive response is most likely (Choi, Oishi, Shin, & Suh, 2018; Gable, Gonzaga, & Strachman, 2006; Shallcross, Howland, Bemis, Simpson, & Frazier, 2011), and this has contributed to the general idea that capitalization is an opportune relationship behavior (Gable & Reis, 2010). As summarized by Shallcross and colleagues (2011: 83, emphasis in original), “Capitalization situations *should and do* benefit most people in most relationships.”

The expectation that capitalization is beneficial, however, may be context specific. Capitalization research has predominantly been conducted in a single context—close romantic relationships (Culbertson, Mills, & Fullagar, 2012; Gable & Reis, 2006; Gable et al., 2006; Gable, Reis, & Downey, 2003; Gable, Gosnell, Maisel, & Strachman, 2012; Gable et al., 2004; Ilies, Keeney, & Scott, 2011; Ilies, Liu, Liu, & Zheng, 2017; Maisel, Gable, & Strachman, 2008).

Importantly, within the context of close relationships, a responder is usually pleased to learn about the success of their partner, even if the partner's success paints the responder in an unfavorable light (Beach & Tesser, 1995; Lockwood, Dolderman, Sadler, & Gerchak, 2004; Pilkington, Tesser, & Stephens, 1991). This is because "a partner's good fortune may psychologically be experienced as one's own in a close relationship" (Gable et al., 2004: 230). However, individuals also share their positive events with less-familiar others (Gable et al., 2004), and in these contexts one should not assume that a responder will be pleased at the discloser's good fortune.

Workplace relationships are distinct from romantic relationships in numerous ways, but one key way they are different is that they are sometimes competitive (Brown, Ferris, Heller, & Keeping, 2007). Competition is characterized by low identification and a reciprocation in outcomes—one's win is another's loss (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Buunk, Zurriaga, Peiro, Nauta, & Gosalvez, 2005). Thus, under competitive conditions, it is highly unlikely that an individual will be pleased to learn of the success of another. This is important, because existing theory developed in non-competitive contexts may predict a positive outcome of capitalization when in fact the outcome is negative due to competition.

In this paper, I examine the consequences of employees sharing personal work-related positive events with coworkers, or workplace capitalization. In illustration of this concept, an employee may tell a coworker of a sale he or she landed with a client, of completing an important project, of an earned achievement award, or of a recent promotion and pay raise. I suggest that such positive event disclosures invite coworkers to engage in social comparison and activate either assimilation, the process of incorporating comparison information into one's self-concept (Collins, 1996; Pelham & Wachsmuth, 1995; Wheeler, 1966), or contrast, the process of

evaluating comparison information against one's self-concept (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Buunk & Ybema, 1997).

According to theory, assimilation is associated with admiration and approach behavior (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Dijker, Koomen, van den Heuvel, & Frijda, 1996; Neuberg & Cottrell, 2002; Smith, 2000), whereas contrast is associated with envy and harming behavior (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Cohen-Charash, 2009; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006; Smith, 2000; Vecchio, 2007). Importantly, competition influences whether comparison information triggers assimilation versus contrast (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Buunk et al., 2005). I correspondingly suggest that workplace capitalization elicits admiration and interpersonal citizenship behavior when competition is low, versus envy and social undermining when competition is high.

My model of workplace capitalization contributes to theory in multiple ways. First, my model provides insight into how coworker behaviors can be shaped by the discretionary ad hoc employee action of workplace capitalization. Second, whereas past research has chiefly focused on the implications of capitalization for disclosers, I extend theory by elucidating the emotional and behavioral consequences of capitalization for responders. Third, existing models generally cast capitalization as a rewarding relationship behavior; however, I explain how competition acts an important boundary condition causing capitalization to backfire. And finally, I add to the literature on workplace social comparison by exhibiting constructive assimilation effects that are typically overshadowed by prevailing destructive contrast effects. My model explains how coworker social comparisons are constructive when employees share good news and competition is low. I present my theoretical model in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

Capitalization

Although it was initially thought that positive events affect individuals in a uniform manner (Freud, 1920; Skinner, 1971), subsequent advances have explained how individuals differ in the extent to which they glean value from positive events (Bryant, 1989). Whereas individuals systematically appraise an event as either positive or negative during primary appraisal, events also undergo secondary appraisal as individuals decide how to respond, and this appraisal widely varies (Lazarus, 1991). Extending the gratification of a positive event is therefore distinct from the initial realization of the event and is contingent on individual effort.

Deriving additional value from positive events is an intrapsychic process when individuals prolong the enjoyable thoughts and feelings associated with the positive event (Bryant, 1989). Individuals who later reflect on positive events experience a boost in desirable moods and well-being (Langston, 1994). Alternatively, positive event responses are interpersonal when they involve sharing the positive event with others. Studies indicate that this interpersonal reaction to positive events is very common—individuals share their good news over half of the time (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Reis et al., 2010). In part due to the ubiquity of communicating positive events to others, the literature on capitalization has focused specifically on interpersonal reactions. Gable and colleagues (2004: 228) defined capitalization as, “the process of informing another person about the occurrence of a personal positive event and thereby deriving additional benefit from it.” I accordingly constrain my consideration of capitalization to the interpersonal.

Capitalization requires a discloser (i.e., the one delivering the good news) and a responder (i.e., the one listening to the delivery of the good news). When capitalization is responded to supportively, a discloser derives intrapersonal and interpersonal gains. Regarding

intrapersonal gain, a supportive response to capitalization influences evaluations of the event and its self-relevance. This reaction causes the discloser to think of the event as significant, which amplifies the salience of the positive event while strengthening the discloser's connection to the event (Gable et al., 2004; Langston, 1994). A supportive response increases a discloser's self-esteem because it provides feedback about the event's significance and therefore the discloser's significance (Leary, 2005; Reis et al., 2010). An enthusiastic response thus increases a discloser's sense of self-worth, value, and status.

Capitalization is a de facto probe that tests the strength of the relationship between the two individuals. A supportive response signals a flourishing relationship and indicates that the responder is happy for the discloser (Gable et al., 2004; Strachman & Gable, 2007). In this case, a discloser is likely to feel understood, validated, and cared for (Gable & Reis, 2010). When a responder reacts positively, it likely indicates that the responder is "basking in reflected glory" (Cialdini et al., 1976), or reflecting the success or good fortune in oneself. In effect, the discloser perceives that the responder is also profiting from the positive event. Furthermore, a responder's display of enthusiasm is theorized to facilitate relationship flourishing because the discloser experiences heightened positive affect and social resource gain due to emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002; Fredrickson, 1998). In sum, a supportive response constitutes evidence of a healthy relationship and facilitates interpersonal benefits for the discloser.

Scholars have recently examined the implications of individuals capitalizing on workplace events. Ilies, Keeney, and Scott (2011) examined the effects of employees sharing their positive work events with their spouses. In their study, employees discussed the most positive event that occurred at work with their spouse on some days, but not others (chosen at random). Employees completed daily measures of event pleasantness, number of positive work

events, and job satisfaction. As expected, employees experienced greater daily job satisfaction on days when they capitalized. In a similar study, Ilies et al. (2015) demonstrated that sharing positive work events with one's spouse influences life satisfaction via increased positive affect. Capitalization has also been shown to contribute to work-family enrichment processes. Culbertson and colleagues (2012) found that talking about positive workplace events with one's spouse strengthened the effect of work engagement on work-family facilitation. In another study, Ilies et al. (2017) showed that capitalization was a conduit through which work engagement positively influenced family satisfaction and work-family balance. In all, employees nurture their well-being when they share their good news with their spouses.

Capitalization has principally only been studied within the context of romantic partners (Culbertson et al., 2012; Gable & Reis, 2006; Gable et al., 2006; Gable et al., 2003; Gable et al., 2012; Gable et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2017; Maisel et al., 2008). Initially studying romantic relationships is reasonable since individuals are more likely to share good news with those to whom they feel closest (Carmichael, Tsai, Smith, Caprariello, & Reis, 2007). In the current paper, I focus on employees sharing personal work-related positive events with their coworkers. Although employees may share positive events referencing various life domains, I constrain my theorizing to positive events referencing work. I do this because work is a relevant domain to employees' self-definition and non-relevant social comparison information functions under different principles (Tesser, 1988).

Workplace Capitalization Invites Social Comparison

According to social comparison theory, humans live in an uncertain world. Uncertainty is uncomfortable, and individuals are motivated to reduce this uncertainty by evaluating their opinions and abilities favorably and accurately (Festinger, 1954). Individuals make evaluations

by seeking objective information; however, when such information is not available, they will instead use social information obtained by comparison. Social comparisons are omnipresent, being considered an “almost inevitable element of social interaction” (Brickman & Bulman, 1977: 150). Formally defined, social comparison is the “process of thinking about information about one or more other people in relation to the self” (Wood, 1996: 520). Simply stated, social comparison information is used quite frequently by individuals and can influence the way in which an individual constructs reality about him or herself.

Organizational life is riddled with uncertainty that drives the need for accurate self-evaluation (Brown et al., 2007; Goodman, 1977; Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007). I propose that workplace capitalization invites coworkers to engage in social comparison. This is because workplace capitalization provides coworkers with much needed social information that can be used to make accurate self-evaluations. Theory explicates how individuals can socially compare themselves either upward (i.e., comparing against those who are better off) or downward (e.g., comparing against those who are worse off). Since workplace capitalization consists of sharing one’s good fortune (versus bad fortune), I suggest that workplace capitalization will tend to elicit upward comparisons.

On the one hand, upward social comparison can activate assimilation (Buunk & Ybema, 1997), or viewing oneself as similar to a comparison target and incorporating comparison information into one’s self-concept (Collins, 1996; Pelham & Wachsmuth, 1995; Wheeler, 1966). While social comparison serves many functions, the motive of self-enhancement is stronger than the motive of accurate self-assessment (Sedikides, 1993; Taylor & Brown, 1988). An individual who assimilates can achieve a newfound self-enhancement because the

comparison signals that he or she can and will perform similarly (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Collins, 1996; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997; Wheeler, Martin, & Suls, 1997).

On the other hand, upward social comparison can trigger contrast, or the process of seeing oneself as different from another and evaluating social comparison information against one's self-concept (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Buunk & Ybema, 1997). Research demonstrates that contrast is the dominant response to comparison information (Brown, Novick, Lord, & Richards, 1992; Gerber, Wheeler, & Suls, 2018; Gilbert, Giesler, & Morris, 1995; Wheeler & Suls, 2005). In the case of contrast, upward comparison information highlights differences and poses a threat to an individual's self-esteem (Maner, Miller, Moss, Leo, & Plant, 2012; Mussweiler, Gabriel, & Bodenhausen, 2000). Such a threat reduces one's self-evaluation because the other's superiority seems out of reach due to the pronounced gap between the individuals.

Both processes are integral to social comparison, and research shows that social comparison information sparks both processes at least to a nominal degree (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Campbell, Liao, Chuang, Zhou, & Dong, 2017; Mussweiler, 2003). However, social comparison information activates assimilation versus contrast to different extents based on the situation, and because assimilation and contrast result in distinct outcomes, it is necessary to understand the conditions conducive to each process. The identification-contrast model (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Buunk et al., 2005), a subcomponent of the larger social comparison theory, elucidates when each process is more likely.

According to this model, assimilation is activated when one shares a sense of identification with the comparison target or includes the target in his or her sense of self (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991; Collins, 2000; Kernis & Wheeler, 1981). Expecting to see similarities between the self and other when approaching comparison information is associated

with assimilation (Brown et al., 1992; Collins, 1996). In this case, what happens to the other is directly relevant to one's own standing because it reflects directly upon oneself (Cialdini et al., 1976; Tesser, 1988). Outcomes are aligned between the individuals, causing pleased reactions at the other's fortune (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Smith, 2000).

On the other side of the coin, contrast is activated when one views another as different and far removed from his or her self-concept (Buunk & Ybema, 1997). A comparison target is correspondingly viewed as an outgroup member. These differences are a function of a reciprocation in outcomes—one's win is the other's loss. Hence, one will be displeased when observing another's good fortune (Buunk et al., 2005; Miller & Suls, 1977). Simply stated, identification activates assimilation, while an absence of identification leads to contrast.

The identification-contrast model posits that reciprocal outcomes, low other-identification, and salient differences are characteristics of competition. Vice versa, correspondence in outcomes, high other-identification, and salient similarities symbolize an absence of competition. Hence, competition is a leading factor in determining assimilation versus contrast (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Buunk et al., 2005). According to the model, high (low) competition engenders contrast (assimilation) because individuals are less (more) likely to identify with others (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Mettee & Smith, 1977). This is because competition prioritizes individualism, autonomy, and self-distinction (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994; Rodriguez Mosquera, Parrott, & Hurtado de Mendoza 2010). In sum, competition determines how individuals respond to social comparison information. Drawing from these tenets, I assert that the outcomes of workplace capitalization hinge on the degree of competition perceived by the responder. In the following sections, I explain how competition determines the emotional and behavioral consequences of workplace capitalization.

Emotional Responses to Workplace Capitalization

Assimilation is manifested by feelings of admiration. Admiration is an upward assimilative emotion (Smith, 2000), defined as a feeling of respect or approval that results from observing another behave in a praiseworthy, extraordinary manner (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Tesser & Collins, 1988). Admiration has been conceptualized as the prototypical appreciation emotion (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988). Admiration is associated with assimilation because an individual will likely only assimilate admirable actions into his or her self-concept.

I propose that workplace capitalization can trigger admiration. Workplace capitalization mostly consists of disclosing laudable actions or events, and therefore provides a responder with reason to admire the discloser. For example, an employee may tell a coworker of a sale he or she recently landed with an important client. It may be the case that workplace capitalization is the first news of an employee's commendable actions and acts as a catalyst for admiration. Alternatively, an employee may share good news with a coworker when the coworker already knew about the positive event. In this case, workplace capitalization may augment admiration beyond the admiration induced by the initial realization of the other's positive event because it redraws attention back to the discloser's admirable action. In both cases, workplace capitalization should generate increased admiration.

Direct evidence for this idea is limited since empirical investigations have yet to involve the responder. Nevertheless, the capitalization literature does hint at potential assimilation effects. According to Gable et al. (2004: 230), "a partner's good fortune may psychologically be experienced as one's own in a close relationship." I suggest that this co-experience is essentially assimilation. This co-experiencing of good news is thought to transpire when capitalization is

met with an enthusiastic response, and research suggests that this is a highly probable response (Gable et al., 2006; Shallcross et al., 2011).

However, I posit that responders will only feel admiration in response to a coworker's capitalization when competition is low. Since admiration is a byproduct of assimilation, a responder is unlikely to feel admiration without the activation of the assimilation process. As explained above, assimilation is expected to be activated only when there is a high sense of identification, and high identification is reflective of low competition (Buunk et al., 2005). I therefore propose that it is only when competition is low that a responder will assimilate to a coworker's good news and resultingly feel admiration.

Hypothesis 1. Workplace capitalization results in admiration when competition is low.

Contrast generates feelings of envy, or pain resulting from upward social comparison (Smith & Kim, 2007; Tai, Narayanan, & McAllister, 2012). Individuals experience this pain when they dwell on another's advantage vis-à-vis one's disadvantage (Smith, 2000). This pain is associated with feelings of inferiority and depression (Gilbert, 1992; Smith, Parrott, Ozer, & Moniz, 1994). Envy results from contrast because the contrast process draws attention to what one lacks when compared to another.

I posit that workplace capitalization can induce envy. Using the same example from above, an employee sharing the good news of landing a sale with a large client may draw a coworker's attention to the fact that he or she did not land such a sale. This other-gain, self-lack focus will generate envy. I suggest that there are many positive events that trigger envy only because an employee shared the positive event and the coworker would have otherwise not known about the employee's good fortune. Alternatively, a responder may experience even

greater envy beyond that felt during initially discovering a coworker's good fortune when the discloser further talks about the event. In each case, workplace capitalization can produce envy.

To date, little thought has been given as to whether capitalization might result in unfavorable social comparisons. Indeed, capitalization scholars have noted that "many shared events have little or no performance-outcome implications, and so reflection is more likely" (Gable & Reis, 2010: 204), implying that contrast is an unlikely response to capitalization. Whereas sharing positive events regarding performance and outcomes may indeed be uncommon within close relationships, I claim that this is exceptionally common within coworker relationships. Research shows that employees are bombarded with comparison information related to outcomes, both financial and symbolic (Bamberger & Belogolovsky, 2017; Parrot, 2016; Tai et al., 2012). I hypothesize that workplace capitalization can lead to contrast because of how it can involve outcome-related comparisons.

Because competition is associated with low levels of identification (Buunk & Ybema, 1997), I assert that workplace capitalization will result in contrast and envy only when competition is high. Although coworker relationships may be expected to be more competitive than romantic relationships, not all coworker relationships are competitive, and when this is the case, contrast is less likely. However, when competition is high among coworkers, workplace capitalization will activate the contrast process, causing the responder to feel envious.

Hypothesis 2. Workplace capitalization results in envy when competition is high.

Behavioral Responses to Workplace Capitalization

I assert that workplace capitalization can inspire responders to engage in interpersonal citizenship behavior (ICB) directed at the discloser. ICB is a personally-directed subcomponent of organizational citizenship behavior that consists of discretionarily helping a coworker in a

way that bolsters organizational functioning (Bowler & Brass, 2006). ICB includes helping, altruism, cooperation, facilitation, and consideration (Bateman & Organ, 1983; George & Brief, 1992; Organ, 1990; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). I narrow my focus to the interpersonal elements of citizenship behavior because of the inherent interpersonal nature of workplace capitalization. Also, en masse, ICB is a stronger predictor of performance than other forms of citizenship behavior (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

A responder should engage in ICB toward the positive event discloser when assimilation and admiration have been activated. There are many reasons for this. First, admiration motivates proximity, contact, cooperation, and approach behaviors as individuals seek to further bask in the glow of the other's success (Alexander, Brewer & Hermann, 1999; Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Dijker et al., 1996; Neuberg & Cottrell, 2002). Second, admiration is felt toward those who are deemed as deserving of their positive outcomes (Smith, 2000). Thus, admiration implies that feelings such as resentment or bitterness that may preclude ICB are absent. And third, active facilitative behaviors are directed toward individuals within one's own group (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007). Because assimilation causes individuals to see themselves as similar to their comparison targets, individuals who assimilate are therefore more likely to help the target.

Research regarding others' behavioral reactions to capitalization has yet to be conducted; yet, there is research that links admiration to approach behavior that supports my hypothesizing. Two studies conducted by Cuddy and colleagues (2007) demonstrate that admiration spurs active facilitative behavior (cf. Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008; Russell & Fiske, 2008). In the first, a large sample representative of the United States was used to gather information about the emotions and behavioral tendencies individuals hold toward those of other social groups. As predicted, participants who felt admiration for a group were more likely to actively help

members of the group. In the second study, the researchers presented participants with a fictitious immigrant group and manipulated the emotions that this group typically elicits. As predicted, individuals were more likely to help immigrants who elicited admiration.

I propose that workplace capitalization will only lead to ICB when assimilation and admiration are activated. According to theory, social comparison information triggers assimilation when competition is low (Buunk et al., 2005). Thus, when competition is low, workplace capitalization will cause responders to experience admiration and correspondingly direct ICB behavior toward the discloser. However, when competition is high, workplace capitalization will not elicit admiration, leaving responders with little cause to engage in ICB.

Hypothesis 3. When competition is low, workplace capitalization results in interpersonal citizenship behavior due to feelings of admiration.

I propose that workplace capitalization can cause responders to socially undermine a discloser. Social undermining is “behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation” (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002: 331). Social undermining is a unique deviant behavior in that it is subtle, thereby offering protection against possible sanctions (Duffy, Shaw, & Schaubroeck, 2008). Social undermining is intentional and gradually weakens a target by degrees (Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006). Postulating social undermining as an outcome of workplace capitalization is fitting because social undermining is fundamentally interpersonal and is directed at social comparison targets (Duffy et al., 2008).

I argue that workplace capitalization will prompt the responder to socially undermine the discloser in the case of contrast and envy. Envy is a painful, unpleasant state that arises from diminished self-evaluation following demoralizingly unfavorable social comparisons (Smith &

Kim, 2007; Tai et al., 2012). Envy motivates individuals to assuage their pain by reducing the discrepancy between the self and the comparison target via lowering the other person's superiority (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Cohen-Charash, 2009; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2006; Vecchio, 2007). Social undermining can eliminate the comparison threat because it evens the social standing between the individuals. Social undermining offers employees the promise of reduced pain and restored self-evaluation (Fein & Spencer, 1997).

As noted above, evidence regarding behavioral reactions to capitalization is lacking. However, empirical evidence supports the notion that envy—a “call to action” (Smith & Kim, 2007: 53)—prompts individuals to socially undermine envied others. For example, Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper, and Aquino (2012) found evidence that hospital employees and student team members socially undermined their envied peers. It was reasoned that feelings of envy caused individuals to believe that the targets deserved to be undermined due to moral disengagement processes. As another example, Kim and Glomb (2014) demonstrated that group members who felt envy were more likely to sabotage envied team members.

I hypothesize that workplace capitalization can cause responders to engage in social undermining, but that this will only transpire under conditions of contrast and envy. As described above, social comparison information activates contrast when competition is high (Buunk & Ybema, 1997). Therefore, when competition is high, workplace capitalization will spur envy and propel the responder to socially undermine the discloser. However, when competition is low, workplace capitalization is unlikely to generate envy, and without feeling envious, a responder will lack a motivation to socially undermine the discloser.

Hypothesis 4. When competition is high, workplace capitalization results in social undermining due to feelings of envy.

METHOD

Despite the many studies that have examined capitalization, there is no established scale to measure the propensity to which someone shares good news with others. I therefore constructed my own instrument relying on psychometric principles (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) and more specifically, the steps suggested by Hinkin (1998). In Study 1, I established construct validity for my measure of workplace capitalization. In Study 2, I recruited coworker dyads and examined workplace capitalization as it naturally unfolds in the workplace by utilizing the validated scale from Study 1. In Studies 3 and 4, I employed experimental designs to test the causal role of workplace capitalization and to provide an internally valid test of my predictions.

STUDY 1A

I followed a deductive approach guided by theory to generate a pool of items (Hinkin, 1995). Three other academic researchers and I generated a list of items consistent with the definition of workplace capitalization. We intended to generate enough items to demonstrate content validity, while avoiding items that were redundant or imprecise. We concluded this process once we felt we were no longer generating unique items, resulting in a pool of 20 items.

I subsequently presented the 20 items and the definition of workplace capitalization to nine experienced doctoral students (Hinkin, 1998). These individuals rated how accurately each item reflected the definition of workplace capitalization—the extent to which an employee informs coworkers of personal work-related positive events. (1 = not at all accurately to 5 = extremely accurately). After aggregating the ratings (intraclass correlation = .92), five items were highly representative of workplace capitalization ($M_s \geq 4.65$). Hinkin (1998) notes that adding more items beyond five typically does not increase scale reliability. I therefore proceeded to further validate these five items.

STUDY 1B

In this step, I explored the factor structure of the five items. I recruited 166 United States employees from the online survey platform Mechanical Turk in exchange for a small monetary incentive (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). I constrained my sample to those who work full-time at an organization and to those who have daily face-to-face conversations with coworkers. To ensure data integrity, I constrained my survey to those with at least a 95% approval rating and who had taken at least 100 surveys. Furthermore, I embedded questions at the beginning of the survey that would assist in screening out inattentive participants or bots. Sixty-nine participants (42%) were female, and the mean age was 32.35 ($SD = 9.63$). Participants were mostly Caucasian (68%; 11% African American; 10% Hispanic) and had many years of work experience ($M = 10.31$, $SD = 8.37$). Following the screening questions, participants completed the five items developed in the previous step.

Results and Discussion

I conducted principal components exploratory factor analysis without rotation to test the underlying factor structure of the items. This analysis confirmed that all items loaded on a similar dimension and exhibited substantially high loadings of at least .85 on the same factor (see Table 1). These five items demonstrated superior reliability ($\alpha = .93$) and explained 79 percent of the overall variance; no other component reached an Eigenvalue of greater than one. Study 1b therefore provides initial construct validity for the five-item scale.

Insert Table 1 about here

STUDY 1C

I conducted Study 1c to accomplish three objectives. First, to confirm the single underlying factor of the five generated items. Second, to establish a nomological net by considering how workplace capitalization is associated with other constructs that are similar in nature. And third, to test for discriminant validity by testing whether workplace capitalization was distinct from conceptually related constructs.

I directly contacted and recruited 144 academic administrative employees located in the United States in exchange for a small gift card. After removing eight inattentive participants, the final sample consisted of 136 participants. The average age of the participants was 44.87 ($SD = 13.69$) with an average organizational tenure of 8.51 years ($SD = 8.56$). The sample was largely female (80%) and Caucasian (75%; 9% African American; 7% Hispanic; 14% other).

Measures

Workplace capitalization. I measured workplace capitalization with the five items derived from Studies 1a and 1b (see Table 1; 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the factor structure of the scale. I tested a model with all items loading on a single factor. The model fit indices ($\chi^2(5) = 26.73, p < .001$; CFI = .97; NNFI = .94; SRMR = .03) were highly supportive of this unidimensional workplace capitalization scale (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and the scale exhibited high reliability ($\alpha = .95$).

Extraversion. Extraverted individuals are talkative, sociable, assertive, and dominant (Goldberg et al., 2006). Extraverts are expected to be inclined toward workplace capitalization because sharing positive events is fundamentally concerned with being social with one's coworkers. An extravert should find workplace capitalization natural and easy and should

therefore be more apt to engage in it. I evaluated extraversion with Saucier's (1994) eight adjectives (e.g., talkative, extraverted, bold; 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Self-promotion. Self-promotion is an impression management tactic. Individuals engage in self-promotion when they play up their abilities or accomplishments in order to be seen as competent in the eyes of others (Turnley & Bolino, 1991). Workplace capitalization may be used as a self-promotion tactic, in which case the two would correlate highly. However, the two are distinct in that self-promotion is always conducted to manage others' impressions whereas workplace capitalization may be motivated by a genuine desire to share joy with others. I measured self-promotion with the four-item scale from Turnley and Bolino (1991). A sample item is, "I make other group members aware of my talents or qualifications" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Performance-prove goal orientation. Workplace capitalization is expected to be associated with performance-prove goal orientation. Individuals with this orientation believe that ability is fixed rather than learned (Dweck, 1986). Due to this belief, individuals are motivated to demonstrate their ability to others (Brett & Vandewalle, 1999). Such individuals seek feedback about their relative performance and may do so by sharing positive events with others. I measured performance-prove goal orientation with the four items from Brett and Vandewalle (1999). One example item is, "I like to show that I can perform better than my coworkers" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .84$).

Networking ability. Workplace capitalization is likely related with networking ability. Employees with a high networking ability are politically skilled and hold assets seen as valuable to others for successful personal and organizational functioning. Such individuals are accordingly proficient at developing strong friendships and alliances at work (Ferris et al., 2005).

Because workplace capitalization increases one's value and status in the eyes of others, such behavior can be instrumental in pushing forward one's networking agenda. Hence, networking behaviors may overlap with workplace capitalization. I measured networking ability with Ferris and colleagues' (2005) five-item scale. A sample item is, "I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Trust propensity. Trust is the willingness to be vulnerable to another party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). One key factor in extending trust is one's general propensity to trust others. Capitalization is likely associated with trust propensity because sharing positive events makes oneself open to the possibility of rejection or lack of appreciation. Simply stated, capitalization makes one vulnerable. An individual with a high trust propensity is therefore more likely to share good news with others. I measured trust propensity using the eight-item scale established by Mayer and Davis (1999). A sample item is, "Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .73$).

Relational self. When individuals are oriented toward viewing themselves in terms of their close relationships, they maintain relational self-construals (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000). Workplace capitalization is theorized to be associated with relational self-construal. Relational self-construal encourages employees to consider coworkers as an extension of the self. Thus, an employee will consider his or her good fortune to also be the good fortune of his or her coworkers and is therefore motivated to capitalize. I assessed relational self with the 11-item scale validated by Cross et al. (2000). An example item is, "My close relationships are an important reflection of who I am" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .84$).

Spontaneous communication. Spontaneous communication is defined as informal, unplanned interactions that unfold among team members (Hinds & Mortensen, 2005; Kiesler & Cummings, 2002). Whereas spontaneous communication is conducted without an objective, workplace capitalization aims to produce a specific outcome. Furthermore, whereas spontaneous communication is always unplanned, workplace capitalization may be a calculated behavior. Nevertheless, I expect there to be a positive association between these two constructs because many instances of workplace capitalization are expected to happen spontaneously in informal settings. To measure spontaneous communication, I followed the method of Hinds and Mortensen (2005) and asked participants how often they have unplanned spontaneous interactions with their coworkers (1 = never to 5 = always).

Demographic variables. Capitalization is theorized to be a ubiquitous phenomenon. Good things happen to individuals almost every day, and people readily share their good news (Gable & Reis, 2010). The literature has not made any indication that demographic traits impact the propensity of sharing good news. I therefore expect workplace capitalization to be unassociated with demographical variables such as sex and age.

Results and Discussion

Table 2 depicts the bivariate relationships between workplace capitalization and other theoretically related constructs. As expected, workplace capitalization was related to extraversion ($r = .26, p < .01$), self-promotion ($r = .38, p < .01$), performance-prove goal orientation ($r = .45, p < .01$), networking ability ($r = .40, p < .01$), trust propensity ($r = .36, p < .01$), relational self ($r = .29, p < .01$), and spontaneous communication ($r = .24, p < .01$). Workplace capitalization was unrelated to sex; however, workplace capitalization was unexpectedly negatively correlated with age ($r = -.19, p < .05$), suggesting that younger employees are more likely to share positive work-

related events with coworkers. This analysis indicates nomological validity as it shows that workplace capitalization reflects a construct that fits within a network of related constructs.

Insert Table 2 about here

To test the discriminant validity of workplace capitalization, I followed the recommendations of DeVellis (2011; cf. Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013) and tested whether items from the workplace capitalization scale loaded with items of theoretically related constructs. I correspondingly entered all construct items into a factor analysis and searched for workplace capitalization items that loaded onto another construct, or for non-workplace capitalization items that loaded onto the workplace capitalization construct. Across this analysis, there was only one case of a cross loading above .40. Specifically, an item from the networking ability scale loaded on the workplace capitalization factor at .47. This analysis provides strong evidence of discriminant validity for the workplace capitalization construct.

Studies 1a, 1b, and 1c utilized distinct samples to establish the content, nomological, and discriminant validity of the five-item workplace capitalization scale. The scale items consistently exhibited strong factor loadings and reliability. Workplace capitalization is moderately correlated with, yet distinct from, conceptually related constructs. Finally, the scale's fit indices are above recommended cutoffs. I therefore proceeded to test the predictive validity of workplace capitalization with confidence in a validated measure.

STUDY 2

The objective of Study 2 was to examine the consequences of workplace capitalization in a natural field setting. I directly emailed a large sample of 6,520 university employees (separate from those recruited in Study 1c) via publicly available university directories inviting them to

take part in a study related to coworker dynamics in exchange for a small gift card. These employees (who acted as “disclosers”) were to invite a coworker to also participate (who acted as “responders”). Per mail merge reporting, 3,292 employees opened the initial email, and 903 employees clicked on the embedded link taking them to the initial survey. Four hundred and fifty employees completed the initial survey. I then sent a survey invitation to the 450 coworkers nominated by the focal participant (also incentivizing them with a gift card), and 319 of these coworkers completed the survey. I paired the surveys together and arrived at a final sample of 284 discloser-responder dyads after removing unmatchable cases and incomplete responses.

Regarding disclosers, the mean age was 32.37 years ($SD = 10.74$), 80% were female, and the mean work experience was 9.64 ($SD = 9.86$). Among responders, the mean age was 32.07 years ($SD = 10.53$), 83% were female, and the mean work experience was 11.04 ($SD = 10.18$). Disclosers reported their ethnicity with a distribution as follows: 70.2% Caucasian, 12.1% Hispanic, 5.2% African American, 2.8% Asian American, and 9.7% other. Regarding responders, the ethnic representation was similar: 72.3% Caucasian, 11.8% Hispanic, 4.9% African American, 4.8% Asian American, 6.2% other. The mean tenure for these dyadic relationships was 2.27 years ($SD = 1.52$).

Measures

Workplace capitalization. Disclosers reported the extent to which they engaged in workplace capitalization by completing the five items developed and validated in Study 1 (see Table 1; 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .94$).

Competition. Because Study 2 examined dyadic relationships, I assessed competition in a relational manner to achieve a high degree of contextualization. According to rivalry scholars, “rivalry captures the extent to which competition is relational” (Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw,

2010: 945). I therefore asked responders to answer questions related to rivalry felt toward the discloser using the four-item rivalry scale by Kilduff (2014). Example items include, “I feel rivalry towards this person,” and “I consider this person to be a personal rival” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .94$).

Admiration. Responders reported admiration with five items from Sweetman, Spears, Livingstone, & Manstead, (2013; cf. Algoe & Haidt, 2009). Example items are, “I admire my coworker” and “I respect my coworker” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .87$).

Envy. Responders reported envy via an adapted two-item envy scale from Cuddy and colleagues (2007). The items were, “I feel envious of my coworker,” and “I feel jealous of my coworker” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .88$).

Interpersonal citizenship behavior. Responders noted their discloser-directed ICB in the previous month via the eight-item person-focused ICB scale by Settoon and Mossholder (2002). These items included, “Took a personal interest in him/her,” and “Complimented him/her when they succeeded at work” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .93$).

Social undermining. Responders recorded their degree of social undermining directed toward the discloser in the previous month by completing the seven-item social undermining scale by Duffy and colleagues (2006). Example items are, “Intentionally ignored him/her,” and “Didn’t listen to him/her” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .93$).

Controls. I controlled for other factors that may confound the relationships between the focal variables. I will note, however, that my results follow the same patterns of significance with or without these controls (Becker, 2005; Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016; Carlson & Wu, 2012). First, I controlled for relationship tenure as it may be that capitalization operates differently based on the length of the dyadic relationship. Second, research has shown that individuals differ

in how they approach social comparison information (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007); I therefore controlled for the responder's social comparison orientation using the ability scale from Gibbons and Buunk (1999; $\alpha = .91$). Third, Study 1 revealed a significant correlation between extraversion and workplace capitalization, and perceived extraversion has been shown to influence others' ratings and behavior (Judge & Zapata, 2015). I accordingly controlled for perceptions of discloser extraversion as rated by the responder using the eight-item extraversion scale by Saucier (1994; $\alpha = .89$). And finally, to provide evidence that my effects weren't simply an artifact of disclosers having more good fortune to begin with (that the actual sharing of positive events is of import), disclosers reported the frequency in which they experience work-related positive events (1 = never to 5 = always).

Results

The zero-order correlations for the study variables are displayed in Table 3. To test my predictions, I conducted path analysis following the recommendations of Edwards and Lambert (2007) via MPLUS version 8.1. The results of the analysis are depicted in Figure 2. In examining the effect of workplace capitalization on admiration, the direct effect was significant ($b = .28, p < .01$). The interactive term of workplace capitalization and competition was also significant ($b = -.11, p < .05$; see Figure 3). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. In examining the effect of workplace capitalization at high and low levels of competition, results revealed that workplace capitalization influenced admiration when competition was low ($b = .17, p < .01$) but not when competition was high ($b = -.02, p > .05$). Workplace capitalization did not exhibit a direct effect on envy ($b = -.20, p > .05$). However, in support of Hypothesis 2, the interaction between workplace capitalization and competition was significant ($b = .13, p < .05$; see Figure 4). Testing effects at high versus low levels of competition revealed that workplace capitalization did not

predict envy when competition was high ($b = .14, p = .10$), or low ($b = -.07, p = .29$). This suggests that the moderation is partly driven by envy being attenuated when competition is low rather than solely due to envy being exacerbated when competition is high.

 Insert Table 3 about here

 Insert Figure 2 about here

 Insert Figure 3 about here

 Insert Figure 4 about here

I tested for indirect effects via the R package RMediation (Tofighi & MacKinnon, 2011) by using the path coefficients and standard errors generated by the previous analyses. Supporting Hypothesis 3, workplace capitalization had an indirect effect on ICB when competition was low ($ab = .07, SE = .03, 95\% \text{ CI } [.025, .113]$), but not when competition was high ($ab = -.01, SE = .03, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.060, .043]$). Hypothesis 4 is also supported—workplace capitalization exhibited an indirect effect on social undermining when competition was high ($ab = .02, SE = .10, 95\% \text{ CI } [.001, .033]$), but not when competition was low ($ab = -.01, SE = .01, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.022, .004]$).

Discussion

The results of Study 2 provide support for my predictions. When competition is low, workplace capitalization is associated with admiration and ICB. Contrariwise, when competition is high, workplace capitalization is associated with envy and social undermining. Study 2 offers a

high degree of external validity as it examines workplace capitalization in real workplace settings.

I asked additional questions of participants to gain a greater understanding of the workplace capitalization phenomenon. Among disclosers, 33.5 percent stated that they capitalized within the last workday, and 69.6 percent reported that they capitalized within the last week. This suggests that workplace capitalization is a common occurrence. Disclosers reported that, on average, 31.22 percent ($SD = 26.12$) of their workplace capitalization was delivered formally (e.g., in a meeting), while 66.48 percent ($SD = 26.55$) was delivered informally (e.g., at the watercooler). I also tested the degree to which disclosers and responders agreed on how the discloser's capitalization is received. I calculated a composite score for both individuals based on the 12-item perceived response to capitalization scale (adapted to the appropriate referent; Gable et al., 2004). The correlation between these two scores was .26 ($p < .01$). Although this correlation is significant, it is only small-to-moderate which evidences that there is a substantial amount of inaccuracy regarding discloser perception of capitalization responses¹. Study 2 allows for strong claims of generalizability. However, Study 2 is limited in evidencing the causal role of workplace capitalization. I subsequently conducted two experiments to provide such evidence.

STUDY 3

In partnership with the online survey panel Prolific Academic (Palan & Schitter, 2018; Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisti, 2017), I recruited 150 employees from the United Kingdom in exchange for a small monetary incentive. To ensure data quality, I used a captcha to

¹ Two studies have previously juxtaposed perceived responses to actual responses further supporting this point. First, Cohen, Smith, and Reis (2009) found that there was a .56 correlation between parent versus child reports of how well parents responded to a child's good news disclosure. And second, Shallcross et al. (2011) studied dating couples and showed that there was a significant difference in discloser-observer ratings of capitalization responses.

protect against survey automation and excluded participants when they were inattentive, failed to provide complete responses, or did not follow directions (Meade & Craig, 2012), which resulted in a final sample of 141 participants. Of these, 88 (62%) were female, and the average age was 38.38 years ($SD = 14.62$). I utilized a 2 X 2 between-subjects design and randomly assigned participants into one of four conditions (workplace capitalization: low versus high; competition: low versus high). At the beginning of the study I instructed participants to write about a specific conversation they had with a coworker. After this exercise, participants completed measures of admiration, envy, ICB, social undermining, and demographic information.

Competition Manipulation

The impetus of Study 3 is to examine reactions to a specific episode of workplace capitalization in a controlled setting. To this end, I utilized the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954). This technique is recommended over survey-based approaches when studying discrete historical events (Hershcovis, 2011; Morgeson, 2005). Moreover, the critical incident technique is well-established within the organizational literature (Casciaro, Gino, & Kouchaki, 2014; DeRue & Wellman, 2009; Mayer, Greenbaum, Kuenzi, & Shteynberg, 2009; van Dyck, Frese, Baer, & Sonnentag, 2005; Wellman, Mayer, Ong, & DeRue, 2016). I manipulated competition by presenting participants with a prompt drawn from Buunk et al. (2005). I instructed participants to “Please think of a coworker with whom you [compete/cooperate]. By [compete/cooperate], we mean that this coworker should possess the following characteristics: His/her gain is your [loss/gain]; You are [dis]pleased at his/her good fortune and [dis]pleased at his/her misfortune; You [do not] include him/her in your sense of self.”

Workplace Capitalization Manipulation

Immediately following the competition manipulation, I presented participants with the workplace capitalization manipulation. I instructed participants in the workplace capitalization high condition to “think of the last time this coworker shared some of their work-related news.” I instructed participants in the workplace capitalization low condition to “think of the last time this coworker had a conversation with you.” I then asked participants to answer a series of related questions in a concrete and vivid manner (e.g., describe this coworker, describe the situation and interaction, describe your thoughts and feelings about the conversation).

Measures

Admiration. To measure admiration, I used three items from Sweetman et al. (2013; cf. Algoe & Haidt, 2009). I asked participants the extent to which the conversation they recounted elicited admiration, inspiration, and respect (1 = does not describe my feelings to 5 = clearly describes my feelings; $\alpha = .93$).

Envy. I measured envy via two items (i.e., envy, jealousy) from Cuddy and colleagues (2007; 1 = does not describe my feelings to 5 = clearly describes my feelings; $\alpha = .94$).

Interpersonal citizenship behavior. I assessed ICB by using the eight-item person-focused ICB scale validated by Settoon and Mossholder (2002). I prefixed the items with, “In the days and weeks following this conversation with my coworker, I...” Sample items include, “Listened when s/he had to get something off her/his chest,” and “Took a personal interest in her/him” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .96$).

Social undermining. For social undermining, I used the seven-item scale from Duffy and colleagues (2006). The items included, “Didn’t listen to him/her,” and “Intentionally ignored him/her” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Controls. A design incorporating random assignment allows for the ruling out of alternative explanations based on participant characteristics. However, it is possible that the nature of the current study design may have generated systematic differences related to the coworker conversations recalled by participants. I therefore controlled for characteristics of the conversation that could potentially confound my findings. I measured *recency of the conversation* (1 = not at all recently to 5 = extremely recently), *challenge of recall* (1 = not challenging at all to 5 = extremely challenging), *relevance of conversation* (1 = not at all relevant to 5 = extremely relevant), *new information learned about coworker* (1 = none at all to 5 = a great deal), and *coworker relationship tenure* (1 = one year or less to 6 = more than five years). Importantly, I tested my hypotheses without any controls and found the same patterns of significance as reported below (Becker, 2005; Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016; Carlson & Wu, 2012).

Results

Manipulation Checks. Near the end of the survey, participants answered the three items of, “I wrote about a time a coworker shared their work-related good news,” “I wrote about a coworker I competed with,” and “I wrote about a coworker I cooperated with” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). When workplace capitalization was high, participants agreed more strongly with the first statement ($M = 5.71, SD = 1.72$) than when workplace capitalization was low ($M = 2.97, SD = 1.80, F[1, 140] = 83.48, p < .001, \eta^2 = .38$). The competition manipulation and the interaction between these two manipulations did not influence this manipulation check. I reverse coded the cooperation statement and combined it with the competition statement to provide a combined measure for the competition manipulation check. Regarding the competition manipulation check, participants in the competition high conditions ($M = 5.51, SD = 1.42$) reported higher competition than participants in the competition low

conditions ($M = 2.39$, $SD = 1.68$, $F[1, 140] = 205.01$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .60$). Neither the workplace capitalization condition nor the interaction between these two manipulations influenced this manipulation check. Thus, the manipulations had their intended effects.

Hypothesis Testing. Means and standard deviations by condition are displayed in Table 4. In testing my hypotheses, I first conducted 2 X 2 ANCOVA tests to determine the extent to which workplace capitalization and competition influenced admiration and envy. Workplace capitalization did not exhibit a direct effect on admiration ($F[1, 139] = .54$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 < .01$). However, consistent with Hypothesis 1, competition moderated the effect of workplace capitalization on admiration ($F[1, 139] = 4.77$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$; see Figure 5). I then probed this interaction further via simple effects analysis. When competition was low, participants in the workplace capitalization high conditions ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .93$) exhibited higher admiration than participants in the low workplace capitalization conditions ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.13$, $F[1, 139] = 6.23$, $p < .05$). In contrast, when competition was high, the admiration reported by participants in the workplace capitalization high conditions ($M = 1.44$, $SD = .76$) did not differ from that reported by participants in the workplace capitalization low conditions ($M = 1.59$, $SD = 1.02$, $F[1, 139] = .51$, $p > .05$).

 Insert Table 4 about here

 Insert Figure 5 about here

Workplace capitalization had a strong, direct effect on envy ($F[1, 139] = 25.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .16$). In support of Hypothesis 2, competition significantly moderated the effect of workplace capitalization on envy ($F[1, 139] = 27.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$; see Figure 6). I

subsequently conducted simple effects analysis to explore this interaction. When competition was high, participants in the workplace capitalization high conditions ($M = 2.97, SD = 1.18$) reported more envy than those in the workplace capitalization low conditions ($M = 1.43, SD = 1.04, F[1, 139] = 48.01, p < .001$). Yet when competition was low, workplace capitalization high participants ($M = 1.21, SD = .55$) did not report more envy than workplace capitalization low participants ($M = 1.22, SD = .50, F[1, 139] = .01, p > .05$).

 Insert Figure 6 about here

In testing the effects of workplace capitalization on behavioral outcomes, I followed the recommendations of Preacher and Hayes (2008; cf. Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Hayes, 2009) and conducted bias-corrected bootstrapping analyses (1,000 samples). In support of Hypothesis 3, when competition was low, workplace capitalization had a significant indirect effect on ICB ($ab = .33, SE = .17, 95\% CI [.010, .678]$); however, when competition was high, workplace capitalization did not predict ICB ($ab = -.16, SE = .16, 95\% CI [-.518, .126]$). Hypothesis 4 was confirmed by results showing that when competition was high, workplace capitalization exhibited a significant indirect effect on social undermining ($ab = .31, SE = .16, 95\% CI [.057, .738]$), whereas when competition was low, workplace capitalization had no indirect relationship with social undermining ($ab = -.001, SE = .03, 95\% CI [-.069, .061]$).

Discussion

Study 3 is an examination of an actual, discrete episode of workplace capitalization. As predicted, when competition was low, workplace capitalization elicited admiration and ICB, yet when competition was high, workplace capitalization elicited envy and social undermining. Study 3 is rich in that it exhibited real instances of workplace capitalization within actual coworker relationships. Additionally, participants recalled their actual emotions and behaviors

following such episodes. However, Study 3 is vulnerable to retrospective bias (Reis & Gable, 2000), and the interactions involved different coworkers. I accordingly conducted an additional study that maintained full control over the capitalization while examining its effects in real time.

STUDY 4

The objective of Study 4 is to examine a controlled episode of workplace capitalization in real time. To this end, I devised a manipulation of workplace capitalization. The challenge with designing such a manipulation is that the showcased positive event had to be relevant to each participant while maintaining a degree of face validity. I therefore hired an actor to record a selfie video where she shared some good news about acing an exam (versus discussing the exam in general) and presented this video to a sample of students. In this study I utilized a Prolific Academic panel of 250 students from the United Kingdom and the United States from a diverse set of universities and disciplines. After removing incomplete responses and cases where participants failed to follow directions, the final sample comprised 225 participants. One hundred and nineteen participants were female (53%), and the average age was 25.23 ($SD = 7.40$).

This study consisted of a 2 X 2 between-individuals study where workplace capitalization and competition were manipulated. After consenting to the study, participants were presented with the competition manipulation involving a writing task about a student they either compete or cooperate with. Participants were then presented with the workplace capitalization manipulation that consisted of watching a short video of a student detailing her day at school. Participants then self-rated their admiration and envy they felt during the video, completed measures of ICB and social undermining, and recorded demographical information.

Manipulations and Measures

Competition manipulation. I manipulated competition with a writing task (0 = competition low, 1 = competition high). Like Study 3, participants were instructed to think of a student with whom they compete (competition high) or cooperate (competition low) that had some defining characteristics drawn from Buunk et al. (2005). Participants were told that this student should possess the following characteristics: His/her gain is your [loss/gain]; You are [dis]pleased at his/her good fortune and [dis]pleased at his/her misfortune; You [do not] include him/her in your sense of self. Participants then wrote for a few minutes about this relationship. I then presented participants with a short video of a student discussing their day and instructed participants to make a sincere effort at pretending that the student in the video was somebody with whom they [compete/cooperate] and who shares the characteristics of the student they just finished writing about. Thus, participants in the competition high (low) condition were to consider the student in the video as a competitor (non-competitor).

Workplace capitalization manipulation. Following the competition manipulation, I presented participants with a video of a confederate who discussed a difficult business finance exam². Participants were made to believe that the individual was an actual student who was recounting an actual positive event. In the workplace capitalization high condition, the confederate disclosed that she aced the exam, and that some friends congratulated her on her score at lunch. In contrast, in the workplace capitalization low condition, there was no mention

² I foresaw that the workplace capitalization high video could potentially be loaded with more positive affect than the workplace capitalization low video. To rule differences in disclosure positive affective display out as an alternative mechanism, I did two things. First, I instructed the actor to deliver the scripted lines in an unexcited manner for both videos. Second, I conducted a pilot test to ensure that there were no differences in the level of positive affect displayed by the actor. I randomly assigned fifty-four participants to watch one of the two videos, and then asked the participants how much positive affect the student in the video displayed using the ten-item scale from Watson and Clark (1994). There was no significant difference when comparing the workplace capitalization high video ratings ($M = 3.68, SD = .54$) to the workplace capitalization low video ratings ($M = 3.62, SD = .60$), $t(51) = -.42, p = .68$.

of acing the exam, and lunchtime conversation instead included discussing the exam in general (see Appendix A for the full scripts).

Admiration. Participants self-rated their admiration after being asked to what extent the student's video elicited admiration, inspiration, and awe (Sweetman et al., 2013; 1 = does not describe my feelings to 5 = clearly describes my feelings; $\alpha = .88$).

Envy. Participants self-rated their envy via the items of envy and jealousy with the same prompt and anchors as admiration (Cuddy et al., 2007; $\alpha = .93$).

Interpersonal citizenship behavior. Following the recommendations of other scholars (Fisher, 1993; Levine & Schweitzer, 2015), I used indirect methods to reduce social desirability concerns regarding the behavioral outcomes for Study 4. I asked participants how likely others would be to enlist in certain behaviors directed toward the student in the video. For ICB, I used the eight-item person-focused ICB scale from Settoon and Mossholder (2002) adapted to fit the current context (1 = extremely unlikely to 7 = extremely likely; $\alpha = .96$).

Social undermining. Using indirect measures, I asked participants the likelihood of others engaging in social undermining behaviors toward the student in the video. I used the seven-item scale from Duffy et al. (2006) but modified to align with the current context (1 = extremely unlikely to 7 = extremely likely; $\alpha = .95$).

Results

Manipulation Checks. At the end of the survey participants rated their agreement/disagreement regarding the two statements, "I pretended like the student in the video was someone with whom I was competing," and "The student in the video shared some good news" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Participants in the competition high conditions rated the first statement higher ($M = 5.73$, $SD = 1.46$) than participants in the

competition low conditions ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.90$, $F[1, 262] = 142.01$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .35$). The workplace capitalization manipulation did not influence this manipulation check. Participants in the workplace capitalization high conditions rated the second statement higher ($M = 6.21$, $SD = .98$) than participants in the workplace capitalization low conditions ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.44$, $F[1, 262] = 118.18$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .31$). The competition manipulation had no effect on this manipulation check. Additionally, the interaction term between the two manipulations did not influence either of these manipulation checks. Thus, the manipulations had their intended effects.

Hypothesis Testing. Means and standard deviations by condition are displayed in Table 5. To test the front end of my model, I conducted 2 X 2 ANOVA analyses. The analysis showed that workplace capitalization had a significant direct effect on admiration ($F[1, 224] = 8.06$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .04$). In support of Hypothesis 1, workplace capitalization and competition interacted to predict admiration ($F[1, 224] = 4.52$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$; see Figure 7). I subsequently conducted simple effects analysis. When competition was high, I found no difference in admiration when workplace capitalization was low ($M = 1.84$, $SD = 1.00$) versus high ($M = 1.93$, $SD = 1.12$, $F[1, 224] = .26$, $p > .05$), whereas when competition was low, there was a significant difference in admiration when workplace capitalization was low ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .95$) versus high ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.06$, $F[1, 224] = 12.27$, $p < .01$).

 Insert Table 5 about here

 Insert Figure 7 about here

Workplace capitalization had a significant direct effect on envy ($F[1, 224] = 10.01$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .04$). Workplace capitalization and competition exhibited a significant interaction on

envy ($F[1, 224] = 5.37, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$; see Figure 8), supporting Hypothesis 2. In probing this interaction further via simple effects analysis, when competition was low, there was no significant difference in envy when workplace capitalization was low ($M = 1.35, SD = .62$) versus high ($M = 1.46, SD = .74, F[1, 224] = .36, p > .05$). However, when competition was high, there was a significant difference in envy when comparing the workplace capitalization low conditions ($M = 2.12, SD = 1.21$) to the workplace capitalization high conditions ($M = 2.88, SD = 1.35, F[1, 224] = 15.09, p < .01$).

 Insert Figure 8 about here

I conducted bias-corrected bootstrapping analyses (1,000 samples) in the same manner as in Study 3 to test Hypotheses 3 and 4. In testing Hypothesis 3, I found that whereas workplace capitalization did not indirectly predict ICB when competition was high ($ab = .07, SE = .15, 95\% CI [-.213, .378]$), workplace capitalization did significantly indirectly predict ICB when competition was low ($ab = .51, SE = .16, 95\% CI [.215, .841]$). Hypothesis 3 therefore finds support. In support of Hypothesis 4, When competition was low, workplace capitalization did not indirectly predict social undermining ($ab = .07, SE = .08, 95\% CI [-.080, .248]$); contrariwise, when competition was high, workplace capitalization exhibited an indirect effect on social undermining ($ab = .48, SE = .18, 95\% CI [.187, .886]$).

Discussion

Study 4 consisted of examining the immediate effects of a controlled manipulation of workplace capitalization. As expected, when competition was low, workplace capitalization resulted in admiration and ICB, whereas when competition was high, workplace capitalization led to envy and social undermining. The strengths of Study 4 offset some of the limitations of

Studies 2 and 3. Study 4 offers strong internal validity because it maintained complete control over the interaction between the research participants and the confederate. Study 4 also broadens the generalizability of my findings as it implicated a digital episode of workplace capitalization (i.e., video). Because this study's findings are in line with the findings of Studies 2 and 3, sharing good news digitally likely has the same effects as capitalizing face-to-face.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this paper I examined the consequences of workplace capitalization. When competition was low, workplace capitalization elicited admiration and ICB whereas when competition was high, workplace capitalization generated envy and social undermining. In Study 1, I validated a measure of workplace capitalization. In Study 2, I provided evidence of my hypotheses among coworker dyads in a natural field setting. In Studies 3 and 4, I conducted experiments within controlled settings to establish the causality of my claims. These studies support the notion that sharing positive events at work is consequential.

It is important to note that the results of the studies have differential effects of capitalization on the emotional outcomes. Whereas Study 4 exhibited direct effects on admiration and envy, Study 2 and Study 3 showed less evidence of significant direct effects. One explanation for these conflicting results is that Study 4 was a cleaner examination of capitalization in that it reduced possible noise surrounding the effects of capitalization. For example, the emotion measures in Study 2 reference all admiration and envy felt toward the disclosers, whereas the emotion measures in Study 4 reference only the positive event disclosure. This means that in Study 2, other behaviors of the discloser may have interfered with the ability to detect the true relationship of capitalization with admiration and envy. Notwithstanding, the

moderating role of competition demonstrated the predicted effects across study designs and measure selection, providing robustness to the study findings.

Theoretical Implications

Workplace capitalization is an ordinary, commonplace behavior that is meaningful for how employees are treated at work. A main implication of this finding is that employees may have more control over how they are treated by their peers than previously theorized. Existing work has shown how employees are treated with help or harm based on static attributes such as group membership (Bono et al., 2016; Budig & England, 2001; Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011; Jost et al., 2009; King & Ahmad, 2010), or organizational standing (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Nadler & Chernyak-Hai, 2014). However, my model demonstrates that peer reactions are also driven by the sharing of positive events. As such, I contribute to a growing literature that is revealing how commonplace actions initiated by employees also drive how one is treated at work (Levine & Schweitzer, 2015; Rodell & Lynch, 2016).

In the capitalization literature, the potential intrapersonal benefits of higher esteem of the positive event and the self are discussed as they generate within the discloser. Additionally, the potential interpersonal relationship benefits—although potentially available to both dyadic members—are measured and discussed only as they pertain to the discloser. In this research, I shift focus and explain how capitalization produces emotional and behavioral consequences for responders. Thus, my model broadens the consequences of capitalization that have to date only been centered on the discloser.

Capitalization research has primarily been conducted among close relationship partners³ and has generally depicted capitalization as an opportune behavior that provides disclosers with

³ A study by Gable et al. (2004) ran post-hoc analysis to determine the targets of capitalization. Acquaintances—individuals who are not friends or family—were targets of capitalization only three percent of the time. This would

myriad benefits (Gable & Reis, 2010; Shallcross et al., 2011). My model explains how capitalization unfolds quite differently within competitive relationships, instead resulting in envy and social undermining. Although the capitalization literature speculates about these potential backfiring effects, the effects are deemed as improbable because “many shared events have little or no performance-outcome implications, and so reflection is more likely” (Gable & Reis, 2010: 204). Yet, I have explained how contrast is the expected response when competition is high. I therefore extend current theory by uncovering a key boundary condition that explains when capitalization spurs negative versus positive reactions.

Many scholars have heeded the call of Brown et al. (2007) by advancing knowledge on workplace social comparison. Most of this research has postulated contrast and envy as the prototypical outcomes of workplace social comparison (Duffy et al., 2008; Duffy et al., 2012; Kim & Glomb, 2014; Lam et al., 2011; Puranik, Koopman, Vough, & Gamache, in press; Reh, Tröster, & van Quaquebeke, 2018.; Tai et al., 2012; see Campbell et al., 2017 for an exception). However, I argue that when a responder hears a coworker share good news and competition is low, assimilation, admiration, and ICB result. Because assimilation has substantial positive behavioral ramifications, organizational scholars should not neglect the cases when workplace social comparison may trigger assimilation.

Practical Implications

seem to indicate that individuals do not share good news with coworkers. However, this finding is limited in two respects. First, the study sample was undergraduate students, and it is likely that many of these students were not currently working and therefore did not have coworkers. Second, participants were asked to check a box indicating with whom they shared good news and were presented with choices such as a family member, friend, or “other.” Yet, most employees maintain friendships at work (Maestas, Mullen, Powell, von Wachter, & Wenger, 2017), and so it is highly probable that a participant reported capitalizing with a friend when the target played the dual roles of friend and coworker. Thus, this post-hoc analysis does not sufficiently preclude the possibility of workplace capitalization. I asked participants in Study 2 to report the last time they shared a personal work-related positive event with a coworker. Among participants, 33.5 percent stated that they capitalized within the last workday, and 69.6 percent reported that they capitalized within the last week, suggesting that workplace capitalization is common.

My model implies that employees can gain the admiration and respect of their colleagues when they share good news and competition is low. However, in instances of high competition, employees are better served to forego capitalization, since sharing good fortune in this case is expected to result in envy and social undermining. In short, employees should utilize competitive cues when deciding whether to share their positive events with coworkers.

When there is competition between disclosers and responders, workplace capitalization results in social undermining—a costly behavior to organizations (Duffy et al., 2012; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). Contrariwise, when competition is low among coworkers, workplace capitalization leads to ICB—a behavior that boosts organizational functioning (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Managers should therefore deemphasize employee goals that might be incongruent with the goals of other employees and instead promote congruent goals. For example, managers can set team-based goals in lieu of individual-based goals. Alternatively, rather than only rewarding the highest producing employees, managers can reward all employees based on team production. This will lower the probability that employees will foster competition with each other, thereby leading to ICB versus social undermining in response to capitalization.

Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation of my model is that it is constrained to work-related positive events. However, employees likely share non-work-related positive events with their coworkers. For example, employees may recount their mountain summit over the weekend, or share how a daughter's soccer team won a tournament. It is a fruitful opportunity to consider how sharing non-work-related positive events is similar to and different from sharing work-related positive events. Furthermore, causality attributions of the positive event may be relevant. It may be the case

that sharing positive events based on luck (e.g., randomly assigned a desired work shift) functions differently than sharing positive events based on effort (e.g., delivering a project to a client). In sum, certain characteristics may moderate the effects of capitalization.

As recommended above, employees should capitalize in cases of low competition because it increases levels of admiration and respect held among coworkers. However, there may be a limit to this recommendation when capitalization loses its authenticity and becomes instrumental. When employees capitalize for less-genuine instrumental reasons they face the risk of being perceived as self-promoting themselves and conveying conceit and arrogance (Giacalone & Rosenfeld, 1986; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Stated simply, employees may come off as a braggart when sharing their good fortune. It is unclear to what extent employees make attributions of the motives driving coworker capitalization, and this may greatly impact coworker responses.

Traditionally, trust is built through acting trustworthy in official settings such as negotiations (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Jap, Robertson, & Hamilton, 2011), providing accounts during business transactions (Sonenshein, Herzenstein, & Dholakia, 2011), and leader-follower interactions (Hernandez, 2008; Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995). However, I posit that trust is also built in informal settings such as during informal conversations in break rooms or hallways—settings where workplace capitalization is common (see Study 2). Integrating some of the ideas mentioned above, it would be interesting to examine how and when workplace capitalization impacts levels of trust among coworkers. I suggest that workplace capitalization provides disclosers with trustworthiness credits related to benevolence and ability, leading to higher levels of coworker trust. According to theory on capitalization, capitalization may be motivated by a desire to “share the joy with another” (Gable et al., 2004: 241). Indeed,

sharing good news has been considered as the number-one rule of friendship (Argyle & Henderson, 1984). When this motive is attributed by a responder, he or she will likely consider the discloser as more benevolent. However, positive event disclosures may come off as bragging, in which case workplace capitalization may instead decrease perceptions of benevolence. Thus, the underlying motive attributed by the responder can affect whether a discloser is considered benevolent. Regarding ability, workplace capitalization may draw attention to an employee's achievements, thereby conveying high ability. However, this is less likely to be the case if the good news reflects events that were caused by factors outside of the discloser's control such as luck. In other words, a discloser will only be perceived as higher in ability when positive event disclosures showcase events that required effort and ability from the discloser. I accordingly suggest that workplace capitalization will result in benevolence perceptions when impression management motive attributions are low, and ability perceptions when external causality attributions are low, and that these perceptions guide the development of trust among coworkers. It therefore becomes important to identify the boundary conditions in which workplace capitalization does and does not result in the development of coworker trust.

Although not hypothesized, post-hoc analysis across all studies revealed a significant negative relationship between admiration and social undermining, and between envy and ICB. These relationships are not addressed by existing theory on admiration and envy. Admiration motivates an individual to engage in behavior that facilitates one's own objectives, yet little thought is given to how admiration could involve harming the admired figure less. Similarly, envy is primarily conceptually concerned with sabotaging the envied target, however little has been said about how envy might mitigate helping behavior. One tenet that reconciles these findings is that assimilative and contrastive responses are considered to be mutually exclusive. In

theory, if an individual engages in upward comparison, they either assimilate *or* contrast the comparison information (Buunk & Ybema, 1997; Smith, 2000). High admiration is indicative of assimilation, implying that contrastive behavioral responses such as social undermining are correspondingly less likely. Similarly, when envy is high, contrast has been triggered, which means that assimilative behavioral responses such as ICB are less likely. Nevertheless, the zero-order admiration-envy relationship was non-significant in Study 2, suggesting that the unexpected relationships were driven by more than mutual exclusivity. Subsequent research should consider additional reasons for the negative relationships between envy and ICB, and admiration and social undermining.

In Study 2, competition was measured by utilizing the rivalry scale by Kilduff (2014). However, rivalry is theorized to have distinct properties compared to general competition, and my measure of competition for Study 2 is therefore limited. As noted by Kilduff et al. (2010), rivalry is unique in that it is perceptual, requires prior interaction, magnifies competitors' psychological stakes, and provokes stronger reactions than normal competition. My observed effects are unable to generalize to non-rival competition to the extent that they are driven by these unique rivalry components. At the same time, it may be fruitful to further explore how rivalry components guide reactions to workplace capitalization. For example, because rivalry is perceptual, one individual may feel rivalry toward the other while the other does not. This means that there can be a case where a responder feels rivalry toward the discloser while the discloser does not feel rivalry toward the responder. In such a case, any negative reaction is probably unexpected by the discloser—if even detected. As evidenced in Study 2, there is imperfect agreement regarding the quality of responder reactions, and this may be an artifact of differing perceptions of rivalry among the dyadic partners. Alternatively, perceived similarity is a

condition of rivalry; yet, perceived similarity is also a driver of assimilation over contrast (Mussweiler, 2003). A natural question then becomes when similarity encourages assimilative responses, versus rivalry and therefore contrastive responses. Thus, the relationship of rivalry and capitalization is likely complex, and can be better investigated in future work.

My findings from Study 2 show that individuals vary in the extent to which they share work-related positive events with their coworkers. Natural follow-up research questions would regard exactly who does or does not capitalize at work, and what workplace conditions are (non-) conducive to sharing good news. For example, research has shown that there are differences in the way individuals respond to personal success (Wood, Heimpel, Newby-Clark, & Ross, 2005), and certain cultures are more or less sensitive to upward comparison threats (Exline & Lobel, 1999). Understanding what causes employees to (not) capitalize would provide an enriched understanding of workplace capitalization.

A specified exploration of workplace capitalization antecedents could center on what happens after an employee experiences a positive work event. On the one hand, a positive work event may generate pride, an emotion generated from “taking credit for a valued object or achievement” (Lazarus, 1991: 271). And as pride is an emotion theorized to expand behavioral repertoires (Fredrickson, 1998), it can motivate an employee to capitalize on the positive work event. On the other hand, a positive work event may trigger anxiety if the success exposes weakness or threatens self-views (Pinel & Swann, 1996; Wood et al., 2005). This anxiety may curtail one’s likelihood of capitalizing on the positive work event. But when is a pride-based response more or less likely than an anxiety-based response? Theory related to approach and avoidance motivation suggests that individuals differ in their motivational goals. Whereas promotion-focused individuals maintain the goal of maximizing gains, avoidance-focused

individuals seek to minimize losses (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, Djurdjevic, Chang, & Tan, 2013). I accordingly suggest that approach-focused employees are more likely to experience pride in response to a positive work event as they are focused on how the good news can benefit them. These employees are more sensitive to positive stimuli and will conceptualize the positive work event as a gain. I further propose that avoidance-focused employees are more likely to become anxious in response to a positive work event because they are more likely to become worried about how the success may impose a future loss. These avoidance-focused employees are more sensitive to negative stimuli and maintain a greater fear of success than their peers. In sum, I posit that approach and avoidance work motivations determine the emotional responses to positive work events, which subsequently impact whether employees choose to disclose positive events to coworkers. This and other antecedent-based examinations can elucidate the “who” and the “when” of workplace capitalization.

Finally, workplace capitalization stands to offer additional insights regarding workplace envy. Employees envy their coworkers in response to learning about coworkers’ desirable traits or favorable fortune (Kim & Glomb, 2010; Kim & Glomb, 2014; Puranik et al., 2018; Tai et al., 2012). For example, a coworker’s promotion likely elicits a certain degree of envy in others upon the realization of the other’s gain (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004). According to my theorizing, after the initial elicitation of envy, envy may be reignited or even exacerbated when employees subsequently capitalize on the event. If envy is indeed increased in cases when responders already knew of the positive event, then this would mean that envy is more labile than currently conceptualized. However, my examination of workplace capitalization in Studies 2 and 3 did not make a distinction regarding whether the positive events were the first news versus reminders of coworkers’ good fortune. Additional research is needed to support this idea.

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TABLE 1**Items and Respective Factor Loadings from Exploratory Factor Analysis for Study 1b^a**

Item	Factor Loading
I tell my coworkers about the good things that happen to me at work	.90
I take opportunities to discuss my positive work events with my coworkers	.88
When I get good news about my work, I share it with my coworkers	.91
I make sure to notify my coworkers of good things that happen to me at work	.89
I regularly share my work-related positive events with my coworkers	.87
Eigenvalue	3.94
Percentage Variance Explained	78.76

^a Principle component analysis without rotation. $N = 166$.

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 1c^a

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Workplace Capitalization	5.14	1.38									
2 Extraversion	3.44	.93	.26**								
3 Self-promotion	3.80	1.19	.38**	.08							
4 Performance-prove Goal Orientation	4.40	1.27	.45**	.01	.43**						
5 Networking Ability	5.54	1.29	.40**	.59**	.21*	.18*					
6 Trust Propensity	3.69	.78	.36**	.08	.23*	.20*	.12				
7 Relational Self	4.99	.85	.29**	.08	.06	.22*	.19*	-.01			
8 Spontaneous Communication	3.06	1.04	.24**	.30**	-.02	-.01	.16	.15	-.09		
9 Sex ^b	1.87	.41	-.08	.11	-.08	-.11	-.02	-.20*	-.01	.07	
10 Age	44.87	13.69	-.19*	-.16	-.09	-.29**	-.27**	-.05	-.16	.12	.25**

^a $N = 136$.

^b 1 = Male, 2 = Female.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 2^a

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Workplace Capitalization	5.32	1.17									
2 Competition	1.74	.95	-.06								
3 Admiration	5.51	1.04	.12*	-.25**							
4 Envy	2.31	1.24	-.05	.43**	-.06						
5 Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior	5.98	.83	.21**	-.14*	.52**	-.15**					
6 Social Undermining	1.30	.56	.03	.43**	-.30**	.38**	-.27**				
7 Relationship Tenure	2.27	1.52	-.12*	.09	.01	.06	.05	.01			
8 Social Comparison Orientation	4.08	1.44	-.02	.25**	-.09	.32**	-.03	.15**	-.04		
9 Perceived Extraversion	3.92	.81	.08	-.01	.16**	.06	.17**	-.09	-.03	.05	
10 Positive Event Frequency	3.18	.91	.30**	-.02	.01	-.14*	.05	.05	-.16**	-.10	.08

^a $N = 284$.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 4
Means and Standard Deviations by Condition for Key Outcomes for Study 3^a

Condition	Admiration	Envy	ICB	Social Undermining
Workplace capitalization high, competition high	1.42 (.75)	2.90 (1.21)	3.75 (1.29)	2.68 (.92)
Workplace capitalization high, competition low	3.63 (.93)	1.21 (.55)	6.15 (.78)	1.24 (.51)
Workplace capitalization low, competition high	1.60 (1.02)	1.43 (1.04)	3.52 (1.67)	2.53 (1.14)
Workplace capitalization low, competition low	3.06 (1.13)	1.22 (.50)	5.63 (.98)	1.28 (.60)

^a Standard deviations are in parentheses. $N = 141$.

TABLE 5
Means and Standard Deviations by Condition for Key Outcomes for Study 4^a

Condition	Admiration	Envy	ICB	Social Undermining
Workplace capitalization high, competition high	1.94 (1.12)	2.88 (1.35)	3.83 (1.70)	3.41 (1.65)
Workplace capitalization high, competition low	3.18 (1.06)	1.46 (.74)	5.35 (1.25)	1.96 (1.13)
Workplace capitalization low, competition high	1.84 (1.00)	2.12 (1.21)	4.12 (1.50)	2.87 (1.23)
Workplace capitalization low, competition low	2.49 (.95)	1.35 (.62)	5.37 (.97)	1.92 (1.14)

^a Standard deviations are in parentheses. $N = 225$.

FIGURE 1
Theoretical Model

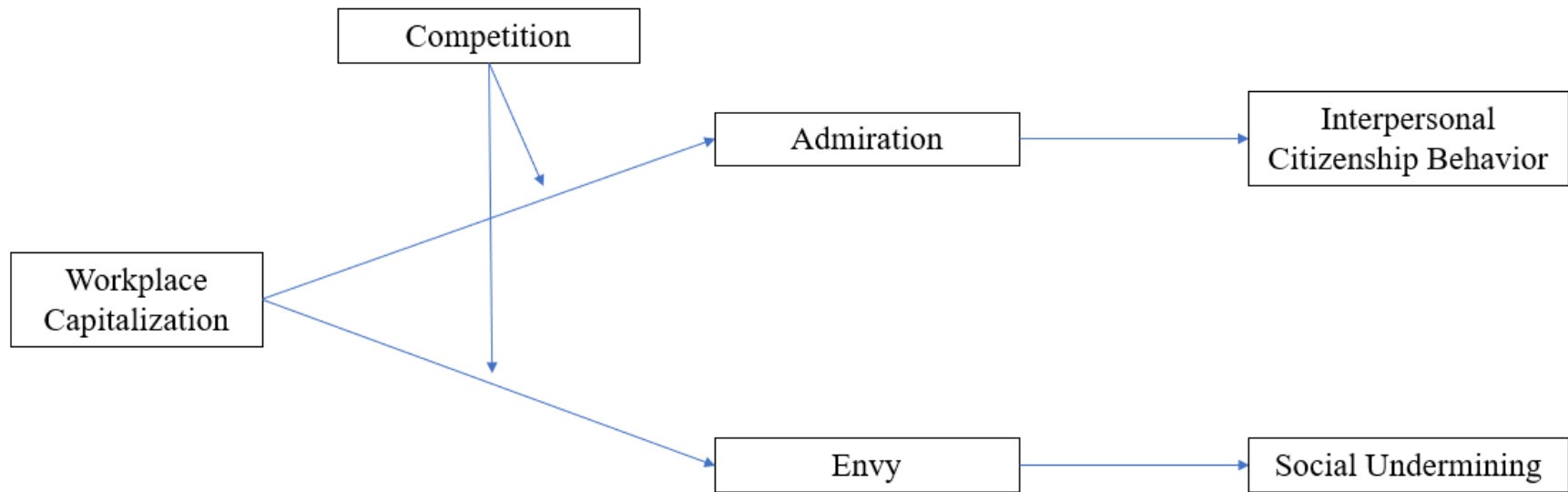
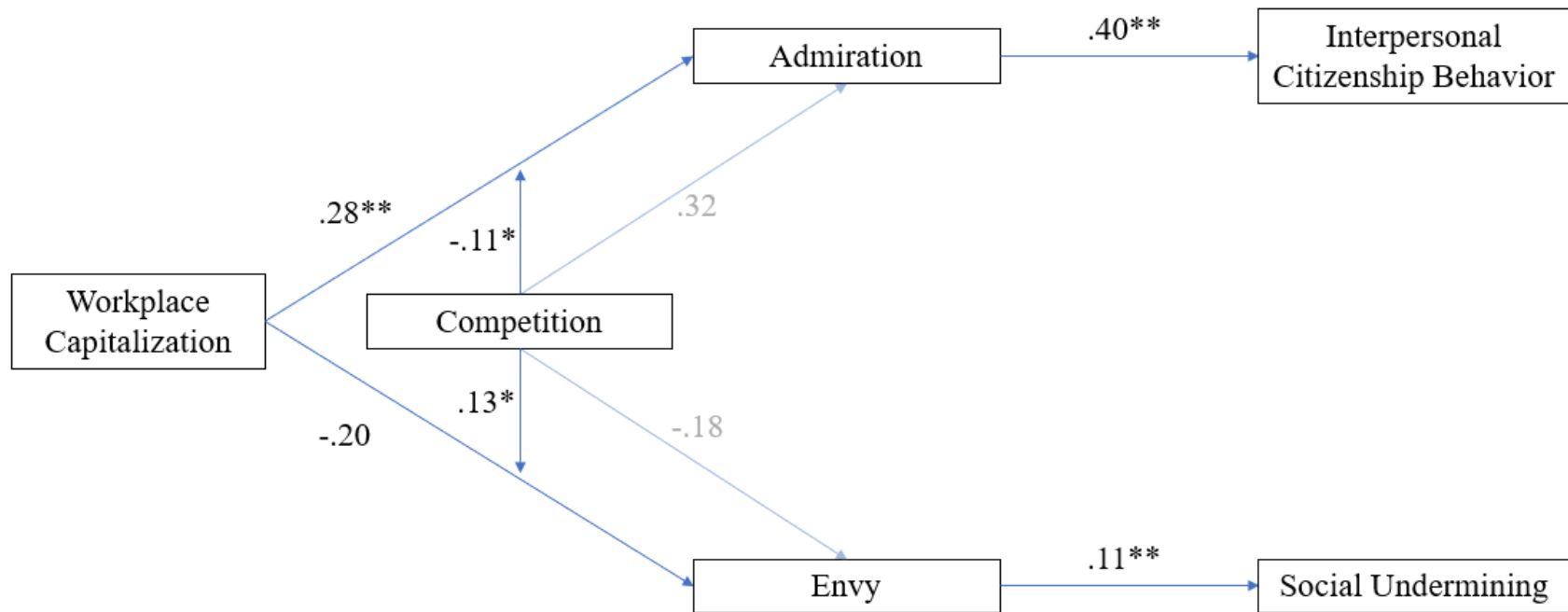


FIGURE 2

Path Analysis Results for Study 2



* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

FIGURE 3

The Interactive Effect of Workplace Capitalization and Competition on Admiration for Study 2

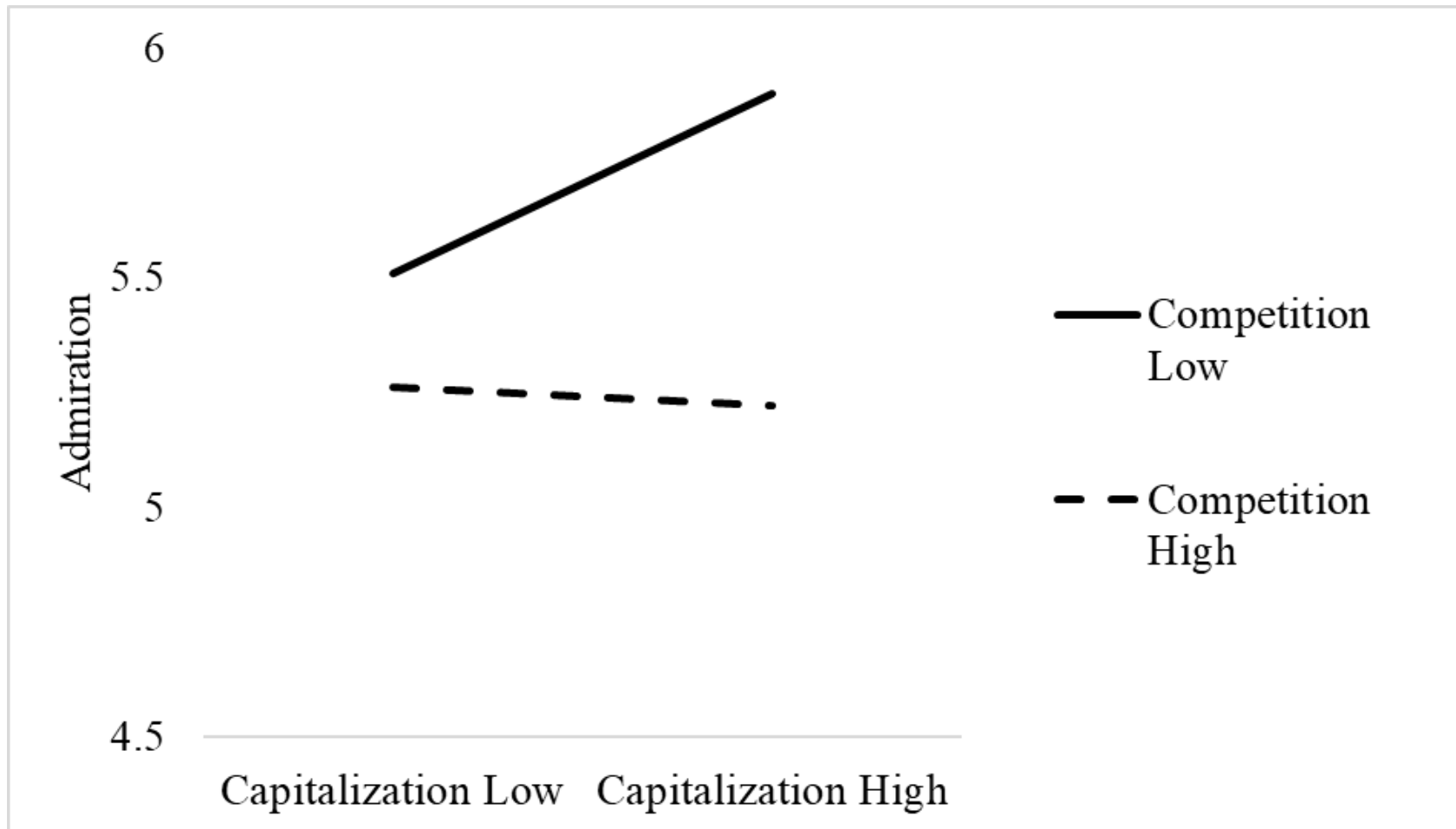


FIGURE 4

The Interactive Effect of Workplace Capitalization and Competition on Envy for Study 2

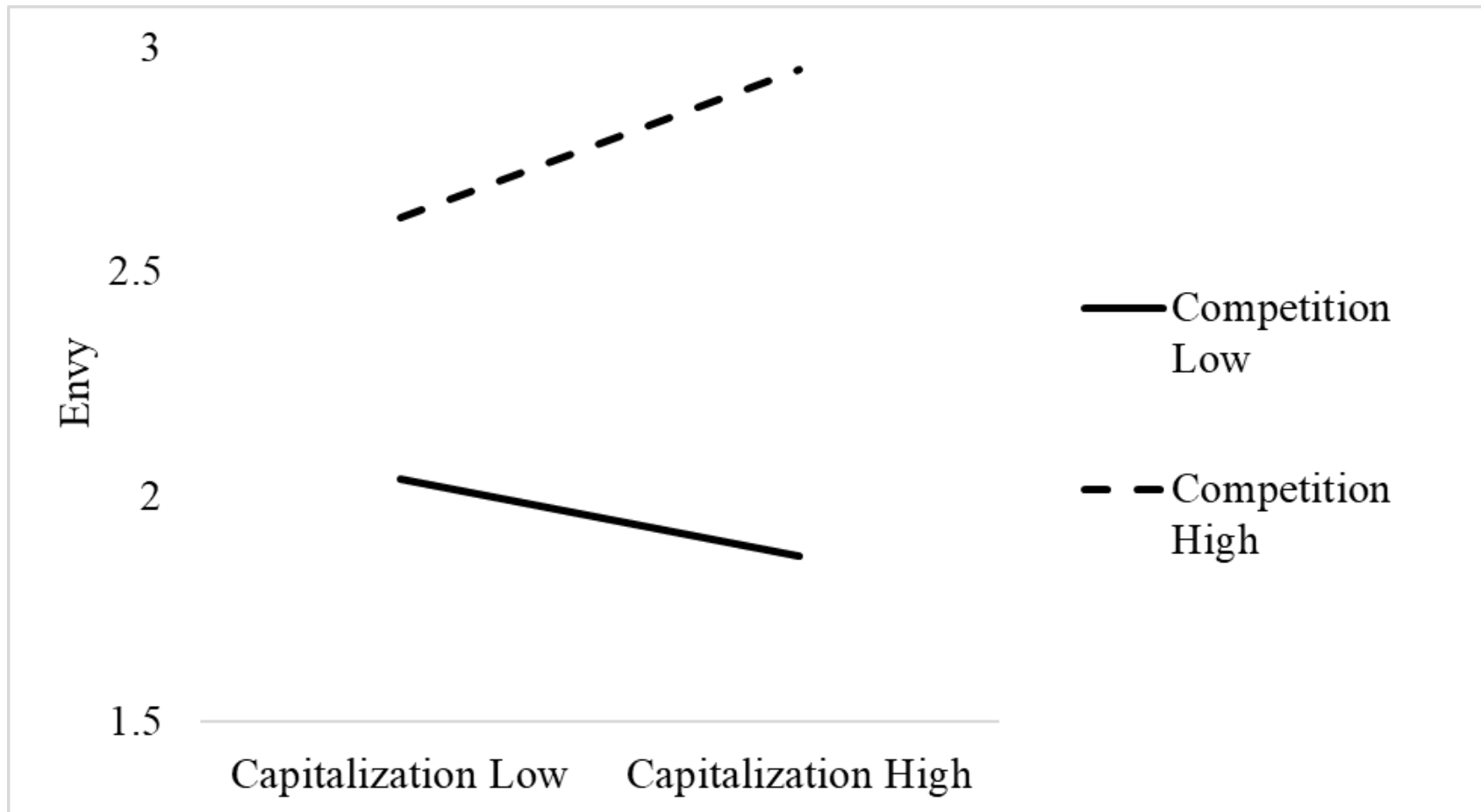


FIGURE 5

Admiration Across Conditions for Study 3

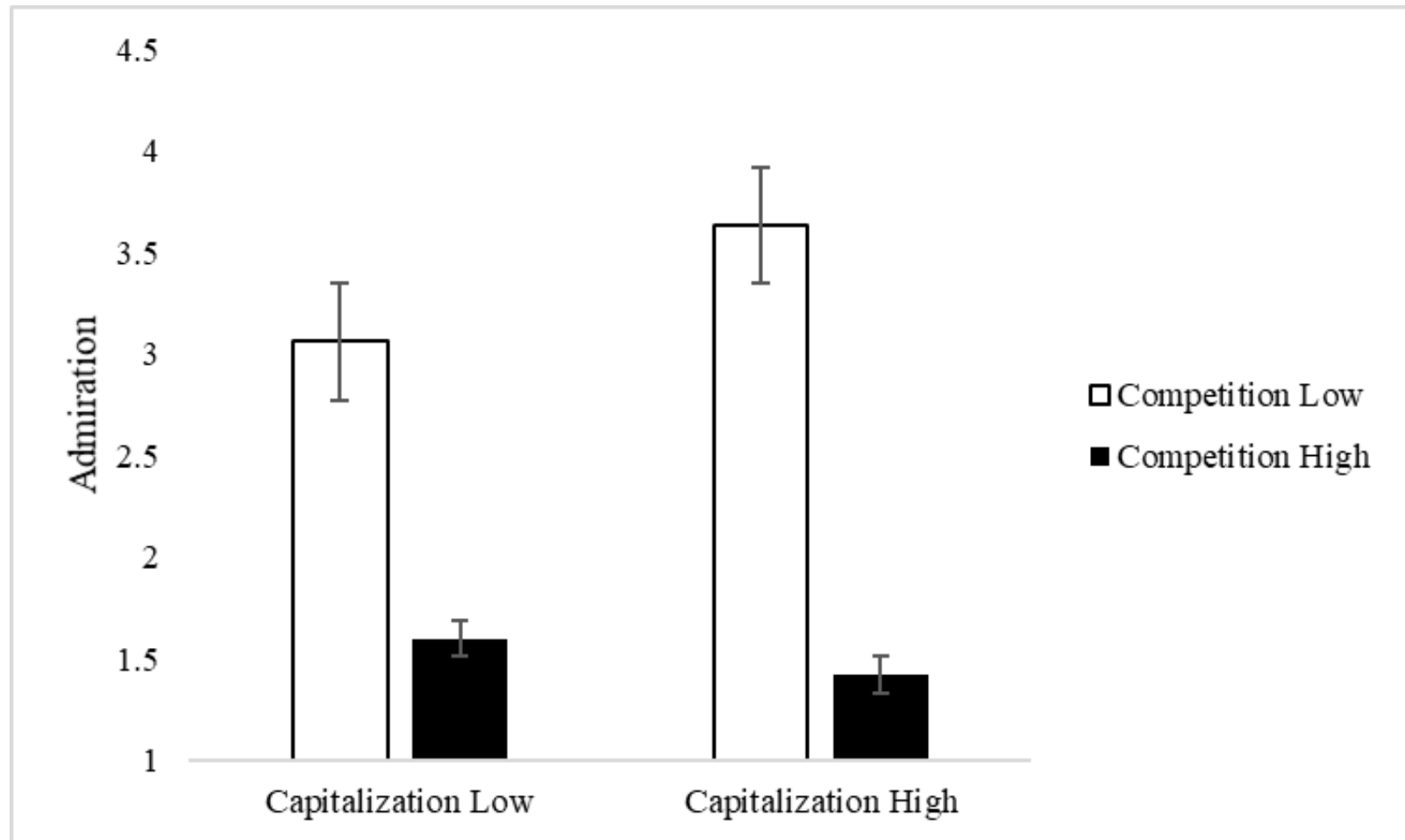


FIGURE 6

Envy Across Conditions for Study 3

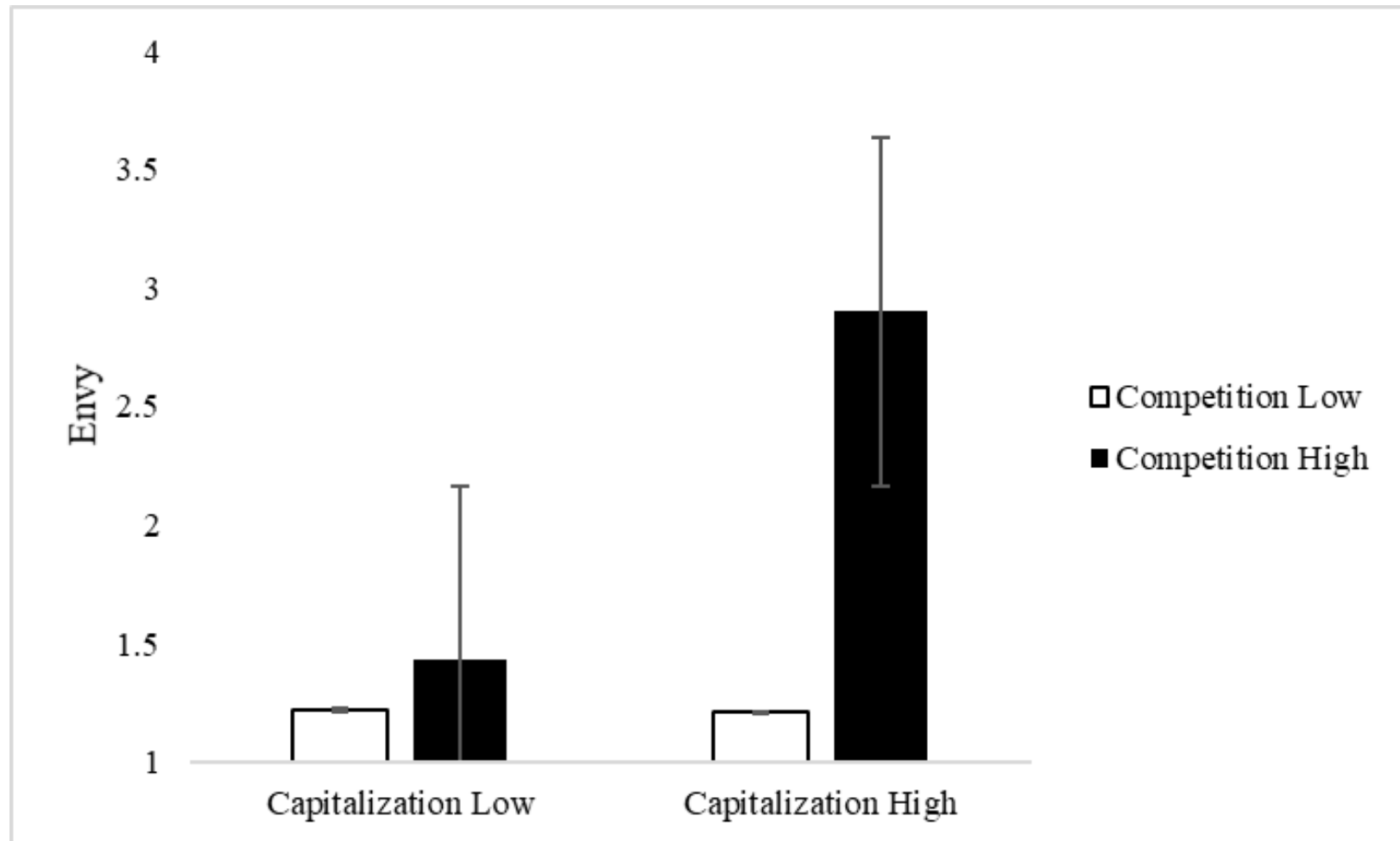


FIGURE 7

Admiration Across Conditions for Study 4

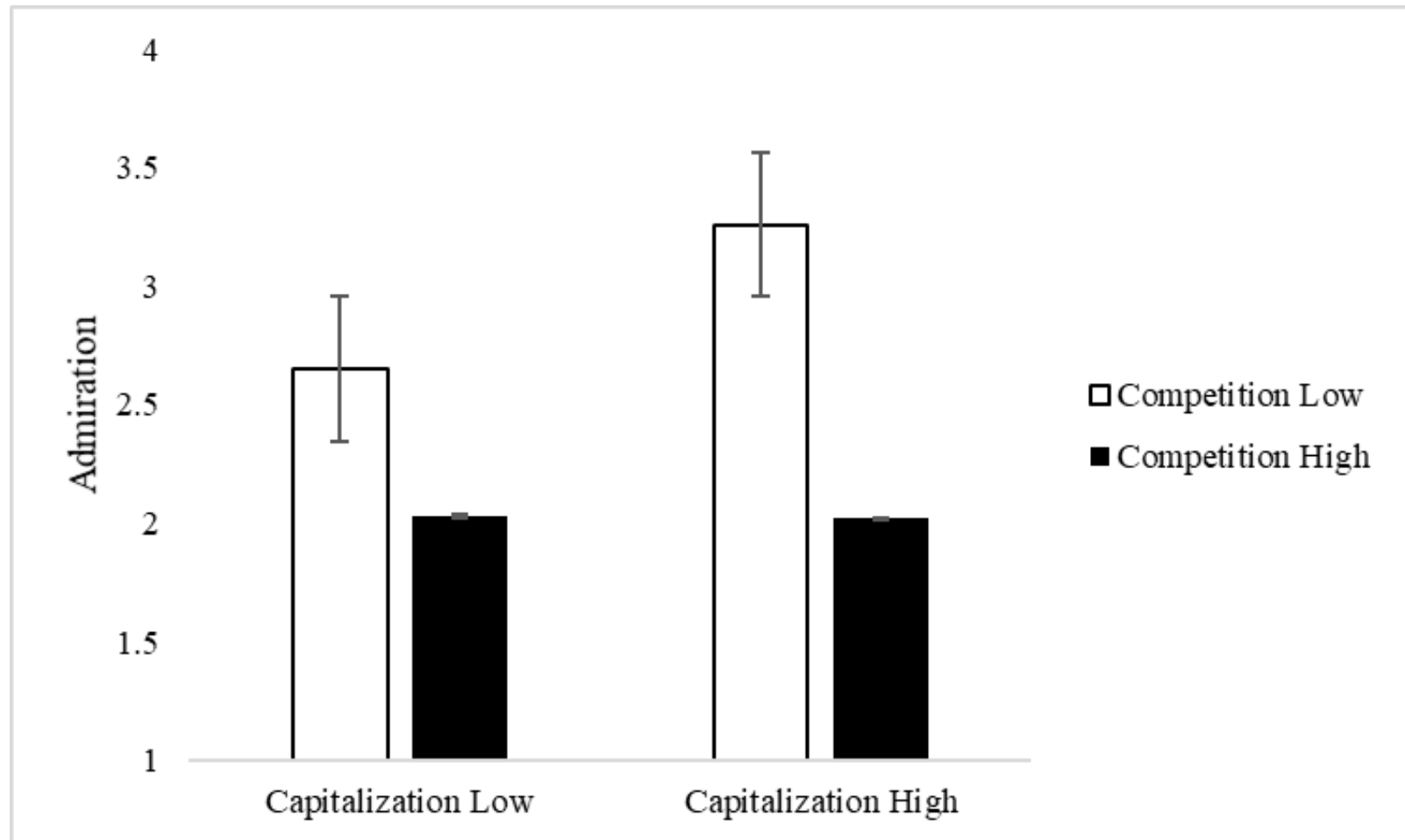
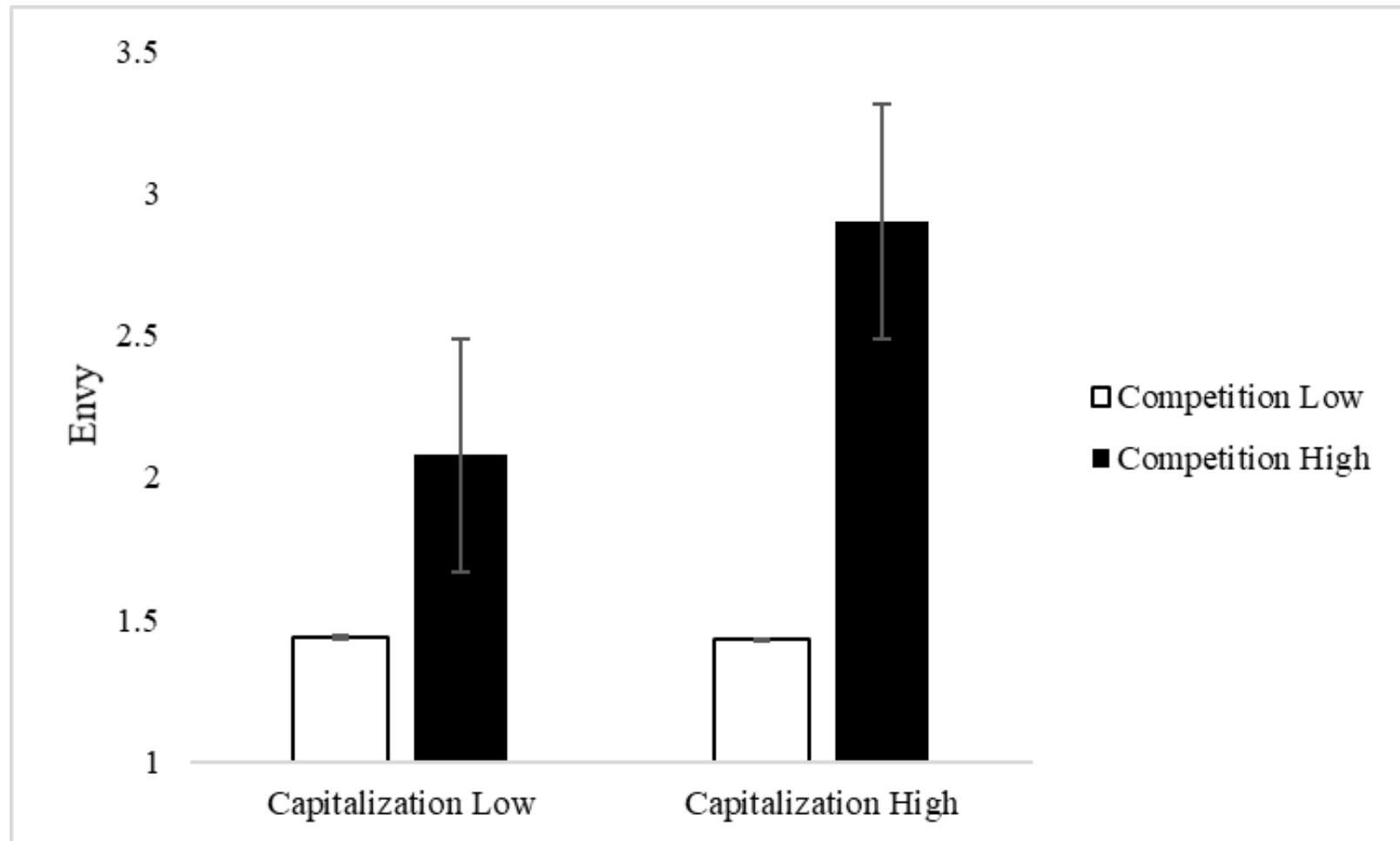


FIGURE 8

Envy Across Conditions for Study 4



APPENDIX A

Actor Scripts for Workplace Capitalization for Study 4

Workplace capitalization high condition

This morning I went to my business finance class and my professor passed out the exams we took last week. I put a lot of time and energy into studying for it. The exam covered stuff like pricing models and derivatives. Our professor said that it was one of the hardest exams he's given. The test was exhausting and took the full two hours. I handed mine in right before time was up, and there were about ten other students in the class that didn't get a chance to finish. **Turns out I aced it.** I went out to lunch with some friends from my class afterwards and **they congratulated me on my score.** **Good** things like this certainly don't happen every day.

Workplace capitalization low condition

This morning I went to my business finance class and my professor passed out the exams we took last week. I put a lot of time and energy into studying for it. The exam covered stuff like pricing models and derivatives. Our professor said that it was one of the hardest exams he's given. The test was exhausting and took the full two hours. I handed mine in right before time was up, and there were about ten students in the class that didn't get a chance to finish. I went out to lunch with some friends from my class afterwards and **we talked about the exam.** Things like this certainly don't happen every day.