

The Effects of Anger, Trust, and Trait Competitiveness in Response to Workplace Incivility:  
Implications for Revenge and Working Harder

Jaclyn M. Jensen & Jung Hyun Lee

George Washington University  
Department of Management

*Paper submitted to The George Washington University Doctoral Program*

*September 30, 3008*

**\*\*\* Manuscript Submission in Process \*\*\***

**PLEASE DO NOT CITE OR QUOTE WITHOUT PERMISSION**

The Effects of Anger, Trust, and Trait Competitiveness in Response to Workplace Incivility:  
Implications for Revenge and Working Harder

Abstract

This study examines the relationship between task-related incivility, revenge, and working harder. Based on the literature on cognitive and emotional appraisals in response to interpersonal conflict, we also considered the role that trust and anger would play as mediating the relationship between incivility and our primary outcomes. Moreover, the literature on personality suggests that an individual's level of trait competitiveness would moderate the relationship between appraisals (trust and anger) and outcomes (revenge and working harder). One hundred sixty students participated in an experiment in which incivility was manipulated in a scenario-based study. Results revealed that the relationship between incivility and revenge was mediated by both trust and anger and that the relationship between trust and revenge was moderated by trait competitiveness. Trait competitiveness also moderated the relationship between trust and working harder. Incivility did not have an effect on working harder. In sum, the results of this study demonstrate the processes by which incivility leads to revenge and the role of trait competitiveness in amplifying the consequences of a lack of trust between coworkers.

The Effects of Anger, Trust, and Trait Competitiveness in Response to Workplace Incivility:  
Implications for Revenge and Working Harder

Rude, insulting, and disrespectful conduct are the primary behaviors comprising *workplace incivility*, a growing area of interest and concern for researchers and organizations alike. Workplace incivility is defined as “low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). While much attention has been given to more intense, negative forms of workplace behavior (e.g., workplace deviance, Robinson & Bennett, 1997), these less intense forms of interpersonal mistreatment have increasingly become the focus of a number of research studies. This is due, in part, to the fact that workplace incivility is one of the most pervasive forms of antisocial behavior in the workplace. Reports suggest that 70% of employees have experienced incivility at some point in the previous 5 years (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) and that 20% of employees experience incivility in the workplace each week (Pearson & Porath, 2005). The consequences of incivility range from employees’ diminished occupational and psychological well-being (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008) to lowered individual performance (Pearson & Porath, 2001; Porath & Erez, 2007) and negative effects on a company’s bottom line (Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001). Thus, although the nature of workplace incivility is subtle, its frequency and consequences are not.

Building on the work of Raver and O’Reilly (2006), we sought to explore the relationship between workplace incivility, revenge, and working harder. As organizations seek to temper the consequences of rudeness in the workplace, the literature on spirals of incivility suggest that one response to being treated rudely is to escalate the conflict and seek revenge against the

perpetrator (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Another consequence of rudeness is decreased performance (Porath & Erez, 2007). Both revenge and poor performance are counterproductive – that is, neither outcome is desired by organizations. We suggest that one additional reaction is for the target to *work harder*, or devote additional effort to future performance, in an attempt to rebuff the perpetrator's rude treatment and thus, prove the perpetrator wrong. By working harder, victims of incivility are able to productively manage their response to incivility. Thus, we seek to add to the literature on consequences of incivility by proposing a model that explores both antisocial (revenge) and prosocial (working harder) responses to uncivil treatment.

Moreover, we expect the relationship between incivility and outcomes to be affected by a cognitive and emotional appraisal process that considers target's perceptions of trust and feelings of anger in response to being treated rudely. The appraisal process has been well-documented in the interpersonal conflict literature as targets assess what happened and how they feel in response to being mistreated (e.g., Neuman & Baron, 1996, 2005). Research on the appraisals affecting the relationship between rudeness and outcomes has focused on negative affect, a desire to strike back, and disruption to cognitive process (Porath & Erez, 2007) as well as blame, intent, and anger (Raver & O'Reilly, 2006). In addition to studying anger, we sought to expand this list by considering the effects of trust. Trust develops when employees behave in ways that communicate honesty, respect, and commitment (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996) but can be damaged when one employee's rude criticism violates these expectations. Thus, in the context of incivility, an employee's belief that the perpetrator has committed a trust violation may spark intentions to seek revenge and/or work harder in an attempt to get back or get even.

Finally, we propose that the relationship between trust, anger, revenge, and working harder will be affected by an individual's level of trait competitiveness, a characteristic that has

received limited treatment in the literature despite its connection to interpersonal conflict. Individuals differ in their approach and response to conflict as personality influences one's conflict resolution strategy (Sandy, Boardman, & Deutsch, 2006). Tett and Burnett's (2003) interactionist model of personality suggests that certain situations will activate relevant personality traits, thereby allowing those traits to be expressed. In the context of incivility, we expect that the trait of competitiveness will be relevant when predicting how victims of incivility will respond to interpersonal mistreatment. Highly competitive people, by nature, are driven to compete, win, and be better than others (Platow & Shave, 1995). With evidence that high competitiveness leads to both negative (e.g., coercion, impaired communication) and positive (e.g., goal striving, superior performance) approaches to conflict resolution (Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1998; Deutsch, 2000), we posit that highly competitive individuals will be more motivated to both seek revenge and work harder.

In what follows, we describe the nature of incivility and its relationship to revenge and working harder. We also review the role that anger and trust play in mediating the relationship between incivility and its associated outcomes. Finally, we expand on the nature of trait competitiveness, its role in the current study, and provide hypotheses relating incivility, trust, anger, competitiveness, revenge, and working harder. The methods and results of the study are detailed, followed by theoretical and practical implications. We conclude with directions for future research on incivility, revenge, and working harder.

### Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

#### *Workplace Incivility, Revenge, and Working Harder*

As organizations seek to understand the nature of workplace incivility, it is important to consider the work of Andersson and Pearson (1999). Drawing on social interactionist theories of

aggression (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994), Andersson and Pearson (1999) conceptualized a dynamic model of aggression escalation that begins with minor acts of incivilities and escalates via repeated interpersonal exchange to more serious, violent actions. For example, when a person experiences workplace incivility such as harsh criticism about his/her performance, this serves as the trigger for an aggressive response. Often, the victim's desire to aggress is accompanied by various thoughts, including the belief that his/her social identity has been damaged. This perceived damage stems from actions or words that derogate an individual's status or power (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006; Bies & Tripp, 2005). Examples of derogation include destructive criticism (Baron, 1988), public ridicule aimed to embarrass another employee (Morrill, 1992), and false accusations (Bies & Tripp, 1996). Such types of behaviors can be perceived as identity-threatening acts by the target and often trigger a revengeful behavior (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Bies & Tripp, 2005; Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997; Tripp & Bies, 1997). Aggression is also motivated by the belief that interpersonal trust has been violated (Bies & Tripp, 1998). Because incivility challenges people's views of themselves as "moral entities deserving of fairness, consideration, and respect" (Aquino et al., 2006, p. 662), victims react by escalating conflict (Baron, 1988).

Moreover, the nature of incivility can be further specified by drawing on the distinction between relationship-based conflict and task-based conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995, 1997; Pinkely, 1990; Wall & Nolan, 1986). Relationship-based conflict refers to the interpersonal incompatibility between group members while task-based conflict refers to interpersonal mistreatment that arises over the content of the tasks being performed (Jehn, 1997). Thus, referring to a coworker as "careless and stupid" would be an example of relationship-based incivility while referring to a coworker's "useless presentation and ineffective performance"

would be an example of task-based incivility. Distinguishing between relationship and task conflict makes an important contribution to the literature as past findings examining these two types of conflict have been mixed. In this study, we focus on task-related criticism as a form of workplace incivility. While relationship conflict is consistently related to negative group performance (Saavedra, Earley, & Van Dyne, 1993; Wall & Nolan, 1986), there is some evidence for the positive effects of task conflict on performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Thus, a focus on task conflict allows us to investigate varied consequences of workplace incivility.

In response to workplace incivility, and on the basis of Andersson and Pearson's (1999) escalation model, we propose that a consequence of task-related incivility is revenge. Revenge is defined as "an action in response to some perceived harm or wrongdoing by another party that is intended to inflict damage, injury, discomfort or punishment on the party judged responsible" (Bies & Tripp, 2005, p. 66). Revenge can take the full range of aggressive behaviors. For instance, overt forms of revenge include heated verbal confrontations and violent acts while covert forms include refusing to help the perpetrator when asked (Allred, 1999). Tripp and Bies (1997) suggested violating the target's trust and damaging the target's identity are two general reasons that elicit revenge. This is also consistent with the notion that revenge is ultimately intended to cause harm and can be useful in one's attempt to repair a damaged identity (Kim & Smith, 1993). Consequently, revenge has been found to be a key factor in motivating aggression through a reciprocal chain of revenge and counter-revenge (Anderson & Pearson, 1999; Kim & Smith, 1993). In sum, revenge is destructive (e.g., employee theft, Greenberg, 1990), antisocial (Aquino & Douglas, 2003), and deviant (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Drawing on the preceding

arguments regarding the relationship between workplace incivility and revenge, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 1a: Workplace incivility is positively related to intent to enact revenge.*

Many scholars (e.g., Aquino et al., 2006; Bies & Tripp, 2005; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997; McCullough, Rachal, Sandage, Worthington, Brown, & Hight, 1998) have also suggested that not every employee who experiences interpersonal mistreatment at work will seek revenge in a destructive manner. Some people may respond in a non-aggressive way by offering forgiveness and reconciliation (Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; McCullough et al., 1997; McCullough et al., 1998). Others may respond with a productive form of revenge, termed *working harder*. We define working harder as various forms of effort that people are willing to exert in order to heighten the quality of their work performance. This conceptualization of productive revenge is supported by research conducted by Bies and Tripp (1996). Their analysis of MBA students' responses to trust violations revealed that when an individual's identity had been damaged by public criticism of his/her performance, some people reported that their means of revenge was to work harder (Bies & Tripp, 1996). This sense of damaged identity motivated individuals to prove the criticism wrong by performing better. This line of reasoning is also supported by identity theory which states that people strive to maintain a favorable self and social identity (Bies, 1999; Steele, 1988) as identity is usually formed by gaining validation from others (e.g., Baumeister, 1986; Cooley, 1902; Steele, 1988). Thus, it is possible that employees who have encountered harsh criticism may try to work harder as a way of reaffirming their damaged identity.

Working harder as an attempt to restore degraded identity is sometimes described by avengers as a functional consequence of revenge where revenge is perceived as prosocial (Bies

& Tripp, 1996). To our knowledge, there is only one study which has explored working harder from this perspective. This study was conducted by Raver and O'Reilly (2006) and examined the relationship between interpersonal conflict, revenge, and working harder. In a scenario study, Raver and O'Reilly (2006) found that when faced with a colleague's public insult regarding performance, competitive people frequently reported intentions to enact traditional revenge (e.g., bad-mouthing and feuding) and more productive forms of revenge via working harder (e.g., devote oneself to producing much higher-quality work and work extra long hours). Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 1b: Workplace incivility is positively related to intent to work harder.<sup>1</sup>*

*Mediators: Cognitive and Emotional Appraisal Process*

Research on interpersonal conflict has established that cognitive and emotional appraisals are integral parts of a target's reaction to uncivil behavior. Cognitive and emotional appraisal processes have been widely studied in the workplace aggression, revenge, and behavior literatures (e.g., Bies et al., 1997; Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Martinko & Zellars, 1998). When faced with aggressive behaviors, a target engages in a primary and a secondary appraisal process (Neuman & Baron, 1996). The primary process involves making sense of what has occurred and making attributions regarding the perpetrator's actions (e.g., determine the trustworthiness of a perpetrator). A secondary process involves the target's thoughts or intentions of what can be done and what should be done in response to the aggressive behaviors. Following these appraisal processes, the target takes action in either an aggressive or non-aggressive manner. These appraisals are important during aggression episodes because cognitive and emotional evaluations

---

<sup>1</sup> In the present study, we examine revenge and working harder intentions, not actual behaviors. One advantage of examining intentions rather than actual behaviors is that behavioral intentions have been shown to be the best predictor of actual behaviors (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The other advantage of this approach is its usefulness in cases when it is difficult to conduct an experimental study or observe actual revenge behaviors due to, in part, ethical reasons.

determine subsequent behavioral motives of the victimized target (Bies et al., 1997). Thus, we are concerned with the types of attributions that mediate the relationship between incivility and behavioral intent. In this study, we limit our focus to two key appraisals: interpersonal trust and anger.

*Interpersonal trust.* Interpersonal trust refers to the belief that the other party makes efforts to fulfill their implicit and explicit commitments, is honest, and does not take excessive advantage given the opportunity to do so (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996). This belief is a trust in the benevolent motives of others (Deutsch, 1960) and others' sincere desire not to cause harm (Ferrin & Dirks, 2003). Trust among coworkers develops through a process of interpersonal interactions in daily work life. In particular, when group members are working towards the same goal (e.g., preparing a presentation for a client), they are expected to support one another to be successful. However, when a group member behaves uncivilly towards another member by publicly criticizing his/her performance, we believe that the victimized target will view his/her trust in the coworker (i.e., the perpetrator) as weakened. We posit that this perception, in turn, will lead the target to enact revenge. Preliminary research examining the relationship between trust violations and revenge has found a positive relationship between trust violations and destructive organizational revenge in a sample of undergraduate students (Sommers, Schell, & Vodanovich, 2002). Thus, when confronted with task incivility, we posit that the target will intend to enact revenge as mediated by the target's perception of violated trust in the perpetrator.

However, Bies and Tripp (1996) also identified that working harder was one of the target's responses to trust violation. Working harder may be a reasonable response when we consider the fact that violated interpersonal trust can help channel the target's energy toward increased effort, particularly when the individual is motivated to do so (Dirks, 1999). When

individuals do not uphold their commitments (i.e., maintain trust) and are criticized based on their competence (i.e., ineffective technical or interpersonal skills), Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks (2004) suggest that a single trust violation should not be viewed as a sign of the target's overall incompetence. In the current context, a scenario describes a situation where the target of task-related incivility did invest the time into preparing the work, but neglected to include a relevant piece of information. Thus, this oversight was not a reflection of gross incompetence, but rather an isolated mistake. Therefore, we posit that the target will be motivated to repair the trust violation by demonstrating competence and subsequently working harder. In essence, by working harder, the target can fulfill their commitment, work to repair trust, and eliminate perceptions of incompetence. Based on this argument, we propose the target's perception of interpersonal trust will mediate the relationship between task incivility and behavioral intentions.

*Hypothesis 2a: Interpersonal trust mediates the relationship between incivility and revenge intentions.*

*Hypothesis 2b: Interpersonal trust mediates the relationship between incivility and working harder intentions.*

*Anger.* Anger refers to an emotional state that comprises feelings that vary in intensity from mild annoyance to fury and wrath (Spielberger, 1995). When a target perceives that he/she has been poorly treated, the victim often feels negative emotion that, in turn, motivates vengeful behaviors as a counter-response (Bies & Tripp, 1996; Thomas & Pondy, 1977; Tripp & Bies, 1997). Anger is the predominant emotional reaction to negative or harmful experiences (Allred, 1999; Quigley & Tedeschi, 1996). Thus, anger is a principal component in revenge (Bies & Tripp, 2005; Buss, 1961, Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and interpersonal conflict (Baron, 1988; Davidson & Greenhalgh, 1999). Previous literature also confirms that a

consequence of incivility is a negative emotional reaction (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Pearson & Porath, 2005). For example, public criticism of one's performance would lead a target to experience an identity threat and this generates feelings of anger (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Averill, 1983; Bies & Tripp, 1996; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Finally, feelings of anger are closely linked to aggressive behavioral intentions and ensuing behavioral responses (Bies et al., 1997; Thomas, 1992), such as enacting revenge (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999). Therefore, we expect that a target's anger will mediate the relationship between task incivility and revenge intentions.

However, we propose that anger can be also associated with more positive behavioral intentions. As noted earlier, Bies and Tripp (1996) found that working harder was one of the unexpected, but positive responses to trust violations. Borrowing from their respondent's words, Bies and Tripp (1996) note that one person wanted to "prove my boss wrong. His characterization of me was flat out wrong, and I would perform so well that he'd have to eat his words" (p. 257). Erroneous judgment of a target is likely to arouse a target's feelings of anger (Averill, 1983) and such anger may induce the target to work harder in order to prove other's judgment wrong. Additional supporting evidence for this argument exists in the study of destructive criticism by Baron (1988). He found destructive criticism of performance engendered subjects' intense feelings of anger, but feelings of anger did not have strong effects on their actual task performance. Regarding such unexpected results, Baron argued some people might have tried to work harder after experiencing feelings of anger upon receiving negative criticism and thus actual task performance was not impaired in the end. This study, therefore, allows us to consider working harder as a target's probable response after experiencing feelings of anger in

cases of incivility. Accordingly, we propose that a target's anger will mediate the relationship between task incivility and behavioral intentions.

*Hypothesis 3a: Anger mediates the relationship between incivility and revenge intentions.*

*Hypothesis 3b: Anger mediates the relationship between incivility and working harder intentions.*

#### *Moderators: Trait Competitiveness*

When we seek to better understand people's reactions to workplace incivility, it is important to consider individual differences in terms of why some people will respond differently to the same event. For instance, as many researchers (e.g., Baron, 1988; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; McCullough et al., 1997; McCullough et al., 1998) have implied, interpersonal mistreatment may not elicit identical responses across all individuals. Situational features can play a role in triggering specific personality traits and leading such personality traits to be activated (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Therefore, individual difference factors may interact with situational factors to influence subsequent intentions and behaviors of victims of incivility. In particular, we focus on trait competitiveness because competitive attributes may influence how individuals react to a coworker's harsh criticism about their performance. Compared to other individual differences (e.g., Type A personality, trait anger, negative affectivity, locus of control) that have been shown to predict destructive reactions, trait competitiveness may be especially relevant in circumstances where interpersonal conflict involves task-directed uncivil behaviors because competitive people regard achievement as crucial to their self-concept (Platow & Shave, 1995).

Trait competitiveness refers to "the enjoyment of interpersonal competition and the desire to win and be better than others" (Spence & Helmreich, 1983, p. 41). Specifically, through a

factor analysis of the seven most frequently-used competitiveness scales, Houston and colleagues (Houston, McIntire, Kinnie, & Terry, 2002) found the two main factors of trait competitiveness were interpersonal success (e.g., winning at all costs) and self-aggrandizement (e.g., validating a grandiose self-image). Evidence supporting the relationship between trait competitiveness and aggressive responses are found in Jelinek (2005) and Raver and O'Reilly (2006). Jelinek (2005) examined the effect of trait competitiveness on salespeople's interpersonal deviance and found that highly competitive salespeople were more likely to engage in deviant behaviors directed at coworkers. Raver and O'Reilly (2006) also found a positive relationship between trait competitiveness and intentions to enact revenge in a scenario study using a sample of undergraduate students. This evidence strongly supports that in general, people high on trait competitiveness will be more likely to engage in various forms of revenge, compared to individuals low on trait competitiveness.

We also argue that trait competitiveness will relate to individual intentions to work harder. Brown and Peterson (1994) found that trait competitiveness was positively connected to sales performance because trait competitiveness drove effort (e.g., Krishnan, Netemeyer, & Boles, 2002). Effort, in turn, enhanced performance. In addition, competitive people usually set higher performance goals (Brown et al., 1998) and ultimately perform better compared to less competitive people (Robie, Brown, & Shepherd, 2005). This evidence allows us to propose that competitive people will intend to work harder because their eventual goal is to win (Kohn, 1992; Spence & Helmreich, 1983) as they consider achievement crucial to their self-concept (Platow & Shave, 1995). Achievement striving relates to intentions to exert effort and work hard (Barrick, Mitchell, & Stewart, 2003) and thus may motivate competitive people to try to work harder.

Based on the relationship between trait competitiveness and behavioral intentions, we propose that trait competitiveness will moderate the relationship between appraisals (trust and anger) and revenge and working harder intentions. In particular, competitive people will more strongly react to trust violations because their strong competitive motives in the interaction may interact with their perception of violated trust (Ferrin & Dirks, 2003). As a result, we propose competitive people will be more likely to judge the perpetrator is untrustworthy and this perception will lead them to intend to enact revenge. Similarly, competitive people are more likely to experience feelings of anger when encountering a personal insult (Raver & O'Reilly, 2006). We expect that highly competitive individuals will more strongly react to their intense feelings of anger because they have a tendency to perceive their success is being blocked by criticism of their performance. Therefore, based upon the preceding arguments, we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 4a: Trait competitiveness will moderate the relationship between trust and revenge intentions such that when trait competitiveness is high, the relationship between trust and revenge intentions will be stronger than when trait competitiveness is low.*

*Hypothesis 4b: Trait competitiveness will moderate the relationship between anger and revenge intentions such that when trait competitiveness is high, the relationship between anger and revenge intentions will be stronger than when trait competitiveness is low.*

In addition, we propose trait competitiveness will moderate the relationship between appraisals (trust and anger) and working harder intentions. In cases of task incivility, being treated poorly by coworkers may threaten the target's social identity (Aquino & Douglas, 2003) via interpersonal trust. As Hypothesis 4a suggested that competitiveness will affect the relationship between trust and revenge, we expect that competitive people will more strongly react to trust violations in a positive way as well. The underlying motivation for why trait

competitiveness moderates the relationship between trust and working harder stems from the derogation in status that accompanies trust violations. Competitive people, in particular, will more strongly react to trust violations by intending to work harder because they have a desire to restore their damaged identity. They can do so, in part, by working harder and “proving” the harsh criticism to be unfounded.

Similarly, we expect trait competitiveness to moderate the relationship between anger and working harder intentions. As Raver and O’Reilly (2006) found the effects of trait competitiveness on working harder were largely due to feelings of anger, the tendency for competitive people to intend to work harder will be more salient when they experience feelings of anger. Thus, competitive people’s desire to win and to be perceived as a competent employee at work will motivate them to work harder. Based upon the preceding arguments, we propose:

*Hypothesis 4c: Trait competitiveness will moderate the relationship between trust and working harder intentions such that when trait competitiveness is high, the relationship between trust and the intent to work harder will be stronger than when trait competitiveness is low.*

*Hypothesis 4d: Trait competitiveness will moderate the relationship between anger and working harder intentions such that when trait competitiveness is high, the relationship between anger and the intent to work harder will be stronger than when trait competitiveness is low.*

These hypotheses imply a moderated mediation model (Figure 1) in which incivility is related to revenge and working harder intentions via the mediators of trust and anger. Furthermore, the relationship between trust and anger and intentions is moderated by trait competitiveness.

## Methods

### *Design and Participants*

This experiment employed a 2 x 3 between subjects fully crossed design. Participants were assigned to an experimental condition (task-incivility or control) based on their level of trait competitiveness (high, moderate, or low). Data were obtained from undergraduate students enrolled in three business courses and one psychology course at a Mid-Atlantic university. Subjects received extra credit in their class for their participation. The experiment was conducted in two parts. Students were eligible to participate in Part B of the study only if they had participated in Part A. Two hundred thirty five students responded to Part A and 160 students participated in Part B. Of the 160 students who responded to both Parts A and B, 73% were Caucasian and 46% percent were women. The average age was 19.8 years old. Ninety one percent of these students had work experience. On average, participants had between 1.5-2 years of work experience and 28.9% had more than three years of experience.

### *Procedures*

The experiment was separated into two parts to reduce the possibility of socially desirable responses. Part A of the experiment was a survey containing a measure of trait competitiveness along with demographic items. Participants completed this survey on their own time. Part B of the experiment required that students attend an experimental session where they were presented with a paper-and-pencil workplace scenario. This scenario, adopted from Raver and O'Reilly (2006), asked the participant to imagine themselves in the role of a consultant starting a new project for an important client. The material described the relationships the individual had with various members of his/her work team, including a peer team member named Alex, with whom the participant disagreed at their first project meeting. For an upcoming

meeting, the participant learned that both he/she and Alex were asked to prepare a report and deliver a presentation. The scenario continued:

At the next team meeting, Alex is first to present. Alex's presentation is well prepared. You admit to yourself that Alex put a lot of hard work into the analysis. The group seems pleased with Alex's presentation and recommendations of where the group should head next. Even you have nothing major to disagree with in Alex's presentation.

You are the next team member to present. Even though Alex's presentation is a tough act to follow, you are confident in your analysis and it is evident in your presentation. The team also seems pleased your presentation. However, just as the team is about to move on to Pat's [team member] presentation, Alex points out that you did not include the growth rate of the market segments in your analysis. Suddenly members of the team, including Cory [the team leader], look dismayed. You explain that you could not find the information and had to make some educated estimations.

At this point, the experimental manipulation was administered. Individuals in the task-incivility condition read the following:

Alex exclaims, "Without that growth rate information, we can't make good decisions for our client. Your presentation was ineffective. I think the analysis you presented was incomplete and careless, and it should be improved." The rest of the team agrees. Cory asks you to get the information over the weekend. After the meeting, you are the first person to leave the conference room but not before you overhear Alex telling your teammate Pat that he's never seen such a useless presentation.

In the control condition, participants read only that the team leader asked the participant to get the missing information over the weekend.

After reading the scenario, participants were instructed to respond to several Likert-style questions concerning details from the scenario and their personal opinions regarding the situation. Following the surveys, participants were debriefed about the purpose of the study and were asked to indicate whether they would allow the researchers to link their data from Part A to the data from Part B. All participants granted this permission.

### *Measures*

*Manipulation check.* Four items were written to assess whether the experimental manipulation effectively led participants to perceive that they experienced task-related incivility. An example item was: “To what extent did Alex focus on insulting how well you performed the task?” Items were measured with a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*a lot*). Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .75

*Trait competitiveness.* Griffin-Pierson’s (1990) eight item interpersonal competitiveness scale was used to assess trait competitiveness. Participants responded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example item was: “I have always wanted to be better than others.” Cronbach’s alpha reliability was .79.

*Anger.* State anger was assessed through the hostility sub-scale associated with the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, or PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1992). Alpha reliability of the hostility sub-scale was .88.

*Trust.* Interpersonal trust was measured using 7 items derived from Ferrin and Dirks (2003) and Cummings and Bromiley’s (1996) Organizational Trust Inventory. Sample items included: “To what extent do you trust Alex?” “Believe that Alex is a reliable person?” This scale’s reliability was at  $\alpha = .80$ .

*Revenge intentions.* Revenge intentions were assessed via five items, which were derived from Bradfield and Aquino (1999; previously from Wade, 1989). Participants indicated how likely they would engage in the actions listed in response to the situation using a five-point Likert scale (1, “*very slightly or not at all*,” 5, “*extremely*”). Example items were “I will do something to make Alex get what he deserves” and “I will get even with Alex by similar means.” Cronbach’s alpha reliability was .90.

*Working harder intentions.* Working harder intentions were assessed using 6 items written for the purpose of this study. Participants indicated how likely they would engage in the actions listed in response to the situation using a five-point Likert scale (1, “*very slightly or not at all,*” 5, “*extremely*”). These items measured working harder intentions towards the quality of work (e.g., “Ensure that I only submit high quality work in the future” and “Double check my future work to make sure similar mistakes do not happen”). Cronbach’s alpha was .89, similar to the internal consistency of the working harder intent scales used by Raver and O’Reilly (2006).

*Covariates.* Due to concerns about the possibility that negative affect might lead to biased responding, negative affect was used as a control variable. In Part A of the survey, trait negative affectivity was measured by the PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1992); Cronbach’s alpha was .85. Gender was also used as a control variable because past research has suggested gender differences in achievement motivation (Hyde, 2005). These differences have been associated with competition (Platow & Shave, 1995) and might have affected participants’ intent to engage in revenge and/or work harder.

## Results

Table 1 lists the means, standard deviation, and correlations of all study variables.

### *Manipulation Check*

Analysis of variance on the task incivility manipulation check scale revealed a significant effect for experimental condition,  $F(1, 158) = 59.33, p < .001$ . Individuals in the task-incivility condition more strongly perceived task incivility ( $M = 3.91$ ) than individuals in the control condition ( $M = 3.01$ ). Thus, these results provided evidence that participants were sensitive to the experimental manipulation.

### *Hypotheses*

All hypotheses were tested using techniques described in Edwards and Lambert (2007) for examining moderated mediation. These techniques require the examination of three models: (1) the relationship between incivility and revenge/working harder intentions, (2) the relationship between incivility and trust/anger, and (3) the relationship between incivility and revenge/working harder intentions as mediated by trust/anger. Moreover, our hypotheses predicted a significant relationship for trait competitiveness as moderating the relationship between the mediators (trust and anger) and outcomes (revenge and working harder intentions). However, we examined the role of trait competitiveness in two additional places – as moderating the relationship between (a) incivility and revenge/working harder intentions and (b) incivility and trust/anger – to test for the possibility that trait competitiveness had effects beyond what was hypothesized. All results are displayed in Tables 2-5. Analyses were conducted using hierarchical linear regression and all continuous variables were mean centered prior to analysis (Aiken & West, 1991).

Hypothesis 1a predicted a main effect for incivility on participants' revenge intentions and Hypothesis 1b predicted a main effect for incivility on working harder intentions. Incivility was significantly related to revenge intentions ( $\beta = 0.19, p < .01$ ; Table 2, Model 1). Individuals confronted with task-related incivility reported higher revenge intentions ( $M = 1.82$ ) than individuals who were not confronted with incivility ( $M = 1.54$ ). Incivility was not related to working harder intentions ( $\beta = -0.05, p = ns$ ; Table 3, Model 1); thus, Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that trust would mediate the relationship between (a) incivility and revenge intentions and between (b) incivility and working harder intentions. For full mediation to occur, several effects must be observed. First, incivility must be significantly

related to revenge intentions (Hypothesis 1a) and working harder intentions (Hypothesis 1b).

Second, incivility must be significantly related to trust (Table 2, Model 2). Third, the relationship between incivility and revenge/working harder intentions must not be significant when trust is in the model (Tables 2 and 3, Model 3).

Results presented in Table 2 support Hypothesis 2a. As found in Hypothesis 1a, incivility was positively related to revenge intentions. Incivility was also negatively related to trust ( $\beta = -0.36, p < .01$ ; Model 2). Moreover, when trust was included in the model, the relationship between incivility and revenge intentions was no longer significant ( $\beta = 0.10, p = ns$ ; Model 3). However, results do not support Hypothesis 2b because incivility was not related to working harder intentions. Thus, only Hypothesis 2a was supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that anger would mediate the relationship between (a) incivility and revenge intentions and between (b) incivility and working harder intentions. The same pattern of relationships described for Hypothesis 2 would be needed to support anger as a mediator in Hypothesis 3. Consistent with Hypothesis 3a, anger mediated the relationship between incivility and revenge intentions. Incivility was significantly related to revenge intentions (Hypothesis 1a) and anger ( $\beta = 0.51, p < .01$ ; Table 4, Model 2). Moreover, when anger was included in the model, the relationship between incivility and revenge intentions was no longer significant ( $\beta = 0.03, p = ns$ ; Table 4, Model 3). However, results do not support Hypothesis 3b, because incivility was unrelated to working harder intentions. Thus, only Hypothesis 3a was supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that trait competitiveness would moderate the relationships between (a) trust and revenge intentions, (b) anger and revenge intentions, (c) trust and working harder intentions, and (d) anger and working harder intentions. These effects are documented in

Model 3, Tables 2-5. In support of Hypothesis 4a, trait competitiveness moderated the relationship between trust and revenge intentions ( $\beta = -0.13, p < .10$ ). This relationship illustrates that when trust was low, highly competitive people reported higher revenge intentions than when trust was high (Figure 2). However, no effect was observed for trait competitiveness moderating the relationship between anger and revenge intentions ( $\beta = 0.03, p = ns$ ); therefore, Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

Trait competitiveness also moderated the relationship between trust and working harder intentions ( $\beta = -0.20, p < .05$ ). The relationship between trust and working harder intentions was stronger for highly competitive people such that under conditions of high trust, highly competitive people reported the weakest intentions to work harder (Figure 3). No effect was observed for trait competitiveness on the relationship between anger and working harder intentions ( $\beta = 0.04, p = ns$ ). Thus, support was found for Hypothesis 4c while Hypothesis 4d was not supported.

We also observed a moderation effect for trait competitiveness on the direct relationship between incivility and revenge intentions ( $\beta = 0.47, p < .05$ , Table 2, Model 1). The strongest revenge intentions were seen in highly competitive people who had experienced task incivility (Figure 4).

### Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of anger, trust, and trait competitiveness in response to workplace incivility, specifically with regard to behavioral intentions of revenge and working harder. As hypothesized, workplace incivility was both directly and indirectly related to revenge intentions. That is, when confronted with rude criticism of performance, a victimized target was significantly more likely to report intentions to enact

revenge against the perpetrator. This relationship was fully mediated by a target's perception of interpersonal trust and feelings of anger. Thus, appraisal components in the context of incivility affected targets' subsequent behavioral intentions. These findings provide additional evidence to the interpersonal conflict literature investigating how targets assess task-related mistreatment (e.g., Bies & Tripp, 1996; Bies et al., 1997; Neuman & Baron, 1996, 2005; Raver & O'Reilly, 2006; Thomas, 1992). Furthermore, the result that incivility has an effect on revenge intentions supports the notion of spirals of incivility, as described by Andersson and Pearson (1999). When confronted with rude treatment, the victim's intent was to respond with similarly negative behavior.

Our study builds on the existing literature on incivility and performance in several ways. Principally, we examined the effects of incivility in an experimental setting with an experimental and control group. With a control group, we were able to assess how individuals would respond to general criticism about their work. We could then compare these reactions to the reactions of the group experiencing uncivil criticism and infer that those experiencing uncivil criticism reacted negatively due to the incivility, as opposed to criticism alone. Thus, the causality and experimental control strengthens the conclusions we are able to draw from our findings. In addition, this study examines coworker incivility and goes beyond the recent work of Porath and Erez (2007) who looked at incivility from an authority figure. As incidents of incivility are on the rise, it is highly likely that many rude, disrespectful comments come from coworkers and thus this is an appropriate context for studying individual reactions. As Porath and Erez (2007) suggest, we also examined additional mediators of the incivility-performance relationship and focused on anger and trust.

We tested the interaction effects between trait competitiveness and trust on revenge intentions and found when trait competitiveness was high the relationship between trust and revenge intentions was stronger than when trait competitiveness was low. These findings are consistent with Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk's (1999) thesis that interpersonal mistreatment may not impact everyone in the same manner. These investigators found that when negative affectivity was high, perceptions of unfairness were more strongly related to retaliation. Taken together, this stream of research suggests a target's intention to enact revenge is multi-determined by situational, cognitive, and personality factors (Bies, 1999).

However, the moderating effect of trait competitiveness on the relationship between anger and revenge intentions was not significant. One possible explanation for this result is that trait competitiveness may lead individuals to more strongly react to cognitive appraisals (trust) than emotional appraisals (anger). In addition, trait competitiveness did not moderate the relationship between incivility and appraisal processes. These results suggest trait competitiveness is not a factor when making attributions, yet it matters when individuals think about whether or not to seek revenge and/or work harder. Therefore, we speculate both trait competitiveness and behavioral intentions are constructs relating to a type of rational calculation employed by individuals in pursuit of obtaining certain goals.

These findings demonstrate the processes by which workplace incivility leads to revenge intentions. Insulted individuals who experienced feelings of anger or believed that the perpetrator has committed a trust violation were more likely to intend to enact revenge. However, we did not observe direct effects for incivility on working harder. Contrary to Porath and Erez (2007) who suggested that rudeness will reduce performance, we found no effect for incivility on working harder. For our findings to be consistent, we would have needed to observe a negative

relationship between incivility and working harder. However, incivility did not affect individuals' intentions to enhance the quality of their work. Without data to assess actual task performance, it is unclear whether the mixed findings are due to the nature of our study (scenario-based vs. behavior-based) or whether the outcomes (task performance vs. working harder) are too dissimilar to draw direct comparisons. The literature on working harder as a facet of employee performance is still in early stages of development and references both quality (work smarter) and quantity (work more hours) improvements to work. We do not want to dismiss the relationship between incivility and working harder outright, but believe that the nature of the study limited participants' ability to realistically assess how or why they would work harder in response to uncivil treatment. With literature supporting the conceptual relationship between incivility and working harder, further empirical examination of this relationship is warranted.

Finally, when a trust violation was perceived, competitive people were more likely to intend to work harder, but they were found to intend to enact revenge as well. Research suggests that revenge intentions, in turn, will have a high likelihood of promoting conflict spirals and an aggressive interpersonal relationship in the workplace (Glomb & Liao, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Thus, practical implications for hiring and managing competitive employees can be derived from the findings of this study. Competitive people are frequently viewed as valued workers in organizations due to their motivation to be better than others. However, their strong competitive motives also can engender negative interactions, thus damaging trust among colleagues (Deutsch, 2000). In particular, when faced with minor forms of incivility competitive people were more likely to respond in an aggressive manner. Therefore,

managers and human resource practitioners need to pay attention to the dual-motives of competitive individuals and the consequences of these motives on fellow coworkers.

#### *Limitations and Future Research Directions*

One limitation of the current study is that several of our effects were marginal in size. Specifically, the models examining trust and anger on working harder intentions explained 9% and 7% of the total variance, respectively. Although the interaction effects of trust and trait competitiveness on working harder intentions were significant, the overall effect size of the moderated mediation models of trust and anger on working harder intentions were small. In addition, in the test of trust on revenge intentions, the interaction effects between trust and trait competitiveness were marginally significant at  $p < .10$ . Despite this level, the model explained 25% of the total variance. Due to a paucity of literature relating incivility, revenge, and working harder, we believe our findings lend some support to our hypotheses and suggest that future study in this area is warranted. We may also infer that a victim's intent to work harder in the context of workplace incivility is a low base-rate phenomenon. This issue warrants future research especially as researchers' attention has been paid to other outcomes of incivility, including forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance (Aquino et al., 2006; Bies & Tripp, 2005; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; McCullough et al., 1997; McCullough et al., 1998).

Second, the paper-and-pencil scenario may have lacked the realism of a true work environment. Moreover, respondents were all undergraduate students. Although most of respondents had work experience, they were less experienced than most employees in the field and their jobs were limited in terms of role and scope. Thus, it is hard to generalize the findings from this study to the population of employees in organizations. However, we do provide experimental evidence linking incivility, trust, anger, trait competitiveness, and revenge

intentions that sets the stage for additional research in the field. Future studies will benefit from implementing experimental or observational research that would examine actual revenge and working harder behaviors.

Researchers should also investigate other cognitive appraisal variables involved in a victim's response to incivility including intent, responsibility, and justice. For example, a meta-analysis regarding predictors of workplace aggression revealed that the perpetrator's intent may affect the outcome experienced by a victim (Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, LeBlanc, & Sivanathan, 2007). Bies et al. (1997) found the perception of a perpetrator's responsibility of the event led a victim to make attributions of blame. In addition, interpersonal justice has been found to show a significant relationship with workplace aggression (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Probing these variables will be helpful in advancing our knowledge of the appraisal processes through which workplace incivility relates to a victim's subsequent responses. Finally, integrating other related outcome variables (i.e., working harder by improving the quantity of work performed) will be useful because increased effort at work may not necessarily be limited to quality-related performance improvements.

### *Conclusion*

There is growing concern about the prevalence of work incivility in organizations and its detrimental effects on employees' psychological well-being, performance, and firms' bottom lines. This study suggests that situational, cognitive, and personality factors are critical in shaping individual responses to incivility. A victimized target's response is related to revenge intentions through his/her perception of interpersonal trust and feelings of anger. Thus, this study suggests organizations seeking to create a pleasant and productive workplace need to understand

the victim's cognitive and emotional experiences in response to incivility. Moreover, managers and HR practitioners should be aware of both constructive and destructive aspects of competitive employees and consider the effects of competitiveness on revenge and working harder in organizations.

## References

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Allred, K. G. (1999). Anger and retaliation: Toward an understanding of impassioned conflict in organizations. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & R. J. Bies (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 7, pp. 27-58). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, *24*, 452-471.
- Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *90*, 195-208.
- Aquino, K., Lewis, M. U., & Bradfield, M. (1999). Justice constructs, negative affectivity, and employee deviance: A proposed model and empirical test. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *20*, 1073-1091.
- Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2001). How employees respond to personal offense: The effects of blame attribution, victim status, and offender status on revenge and reconciliation in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 52-59.
- Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power, procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 653-668.
- Averill, J. R. (1983). Studies on anger and aggression. *American Psychologist*, *38*, 1145-1159.
- Baron, R. A. (1988). Negative effects of destructive criticism: Impact on conflict, self-efficacy, and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*, 199-207.
- Barrick, M. R., Mitchell, T. R., & Stewart, G. L. (2003). Situational and motivational influences on trait-behavior relationships. In M. R. Barrick & A. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Personality and work* (pp. 60-82). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1986). *Identity: Cultural change and the struggle for self*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Baumeister, R., Smart, L., & Boden, J. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of self-esteem. *Psychological Review*, *103*, 5-33.
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*, 349-360.

- Bies, R. J. (1999). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational behavior* (pp. 89-118). San Francisco: The New Lexington Press.
- Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1996). Beyond distrust: "Getting even" and the need for revenge. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations* (pp. 246-260). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1998). Revenge in organizations: The good, the bad, and the ugly. In R. W. Griffin, A. M. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. M. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Non-violent dysfunctional behavior* (pp. 49-67). Greenwich, CT: Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (2005). The study of revenge in the workplace: Conceptual, ideological, and empirical issues. In S. Fox & P.E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 65-81). Washington, DC: APA.
- Bies, R. J., Tripp, T. M., & Kramer, R. M. (1997). At the breaking point: Cognitive and social dynamics of revenge in organizations. In R. Giacalone & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp.18-36). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bradfield, M., & Aquino, K. (1999). The effects of blame attributions and offender likeableness on forgiveness and revenge in the workplace. *Journal of Management*, 25, 607-631.
- Brown, S. P., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, Jr., J. W. (1998). Effects of trait competitiveness and perceived intra-organizational competition on salesperson goal setting and performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 62, 88-98.
- Brown, S. P., & Peterson, R. A. (1994). The effect of effort on sales performance and job satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 58, 70-80.
- Buss, A. (1961). *The psychology of aggression*. New York: Wiley.
- Cooley, C. H. (1902). *Human nature and social order*. New York: Scribners.
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6, 64-80.
- Cummings, L. L., & Bromiley, P. (1996). The organizational trust inventory (OTI): Development and validation. In R. Kramer & T. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations* (pp. 302-329). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Davidson, M. N., & Greenhalgh, L. (1999). The role of emotion in negotiation: The impact of anger. In R. J. Bies, R. J. Lewicki, & B. H. Sheppard (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (pp. 3-26). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press Inc.

- De Dreu, C. K. W., & Weingart, L. R. (2003). Task versus relationship conflict and team effectiveness: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 741-749.
- Deutsch, M. (1960). Trust, trustworthiness, and the F scale. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 61*, 138-140.
- Deutsch, M. (2000). Cooperation and competition. In M. Deutsch & P. T. Coleman (Eds.), *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory and practice* (pp. 21-40). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Dirks, K. T. (1999). The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 445-455.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods, 12*, 1-22.
- Ferrin, D. L., & Dirks, K. T. (2003). The use of rewards to increase and decrease trust: Mediating processes and differential effects. *Organization Science, 14*, 18-31.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (1998). A popcorn metaphor employee metaphor for employee aggression. In R.W. Griffin, A. M. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. M. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Violent and deviant behavior* (pp. 43-81). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Glomb, T. M., & Liao, H. (2003). Interpersonal aggression in work groups: Social influence, reciprocal, and individual effects. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*, 486-496.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Employee theft as a reaction to underpayment inequity: The hidden cost of pay cuts. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 561-568.
- Griffin-Pierson, S. (1990). The competitive questionnaire: A measure of two components of competitiveness. *Measurement & Evaluation in Counseling & Development, 23*, 108-115.
- Hershcovis, S. M., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupre, K. E., Inness, M., LeBlanc, M. M., & Sivanathan, N. (2007). Right on target? A meta-analysis of the predictors of insider-initiated workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 228-238.
- Houston, J. M., McIntire, S., Kinnie, J., & Terry, C. (2002). A factor analysis of scales measuring competitiveness. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 62*, 284-298.
- Hyde, J. S. (2005). The gender similarities hypothesis. *American Psychologist, 60*, 581-592.

- Jelinek, R. L. (2005). *Uncovering the enemy within: Examining salesperson deviance and its determinants*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Connecticut, Storrs.
- Jehn, K. A. (1995). A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 256-282.
- Jehn, K. A. (1997). A qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42, 530-557.
- Kim, P. H., Ferrin, D. L., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. (2004). Removing the shadow of suspicion: The effects of apology vs. denial for repairing ability- vs. integrity-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 104-118.
- Kim, S. H., & Smith, R. H. (1993). Revenge and conflict escalation. *Negotiation Journal*, 9, 37-43.
- Kohn, A. (1992) *No contest: The case against competition*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Krishnan, B. C., Netemeyer, R. G., & Boles, J. S. (2002). Self-efficacy, competitiveness, and effort as antecedents of salesperson performance. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 22, 285-296.
- Lim, S., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Personal and workplace incivility: Impact on work and health outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93, 95-107.
- Martinko, M. J., & Zellars, K. L. (1998). Toward a theory of workplace violence: A cognitive appraisal perspective. In R. W. Griffin, A. M. O'Leary-Kelly, & J. M. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Violent and deviant behavior* (pp. 1-42). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- McCullough, M. E., Rachal, K. C., Sandage, S. J., Worthington, E. L., Brown, S. W., & Hight, T. L. (1998). Interpersonal forgiving in close relationships: II. Theoretical elaboration and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 1586-1603.
- McCullough, M. E., Worthington, E. L., & Rachal, K. C. (1997). Interpersonal forgiving in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73, 321-336.
- Morrill, C. (1992). Vengeance among executives. *Virginia Review of Sociology*, 1, 51-76.
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1996). Aggression in the workplace. In R.A Giacalone & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp. 37-67). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (2005). Aggression in the workplace: A social-psychological perspective. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 13-40). Washington, DC: APA.

- Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Wegner, J. W. (2001). When workers flout conventions: A study of workplace incivility. *Human Relations, 51*, 1387-1419.
- Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2001). The effects of incivility on the target: Fight, flee or take care of me? Paper presented at the meeting of the Academy of Management, Washington, DC.
- Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). On the nature, consequences and remedies of workplace incivility: No time for 'nice'? Think again. *Academy of Management Executive, 19*, 1-12.
- Pinkley, R. L. (1990). Dimensions of conflict frame: Disputant interpretations of conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 117-126.
- Platow, M. J., & Shave, R. (1995). Social value orientations and the expression of achievement motivation. *Journal of Social Psychology, 135*, 71-81.
- Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2007). Does rudeness really matter? The effects of rudeness on task performance and helpfulness. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*, 1181-1197.
- Quigley, B. M., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1996). Mediating effects of blame attributions on feelings of anger. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*, 1280-1288.
- Raver, J. L., & O'Reilly, J. (2006). Trait competitiveness in harmful interpersonal conflicts: Implications for revenge and working harder. Paper presented at the meeting of the International Association for Conflict Management, Montreal, Canada.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1997). Workplace deviance: Its definition, its nature and its causes. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & R. J. Bies (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 7, pp. 3-27). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 658-672.
- Robie, C., Brown, D. J., & Shepherd, W. J. (2005). Interdependence as a moderator of the relationship between competitiveness and objective sales performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 13*, 274-281.
- Saavedra, R., Earley, P. C., & Van Dyne, L. (1993). Complex interdependence in task-performing groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 61-67.
- Sandy, S. V., Boardman, S. K., & Deutsch, M. (2006). Personality and conflict. In M. Deutsch, P. T. Coleman, & E. Marcus (Eds.), *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory and practice*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp. 331-355). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive,

- procedural and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 434-443.
- Skarlicki, D. P., Folger, R., & Tesluk, P. (1999). Personality as a moderator in the relationship between fairness and retaliation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42, 100-108.
- Sommers, J. A., Schell, T. L., & Vodanovich, S. J. (2002). Developing a measure of individual differences in organizational revenge. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17, 207-222.
- Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1983). Achievement-related motives and behavior. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives: Psychological and sociological dimensions* (pp. 7-74). San Francisco: Freeman.
- Spielberger, C. D. (1995). *State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory: Professional Manual*. Odessa: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Steele, C. M. (1988). The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 21, pp. 261-302). New York: Academic Press.
- Tedeschi, J., & Felson, R. B. (1994). *Violence, aggression, and coercive actions*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Tett, R. P., & Burnett, D. (2003). A personality trait-based interactionist model of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 500-551.
- Thomas, K. W. (1992). Conflict and negotiation processes in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 651-717). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Thomas, K. W., & Pondy, L. R. (1977). Toward an intent model of conflict management among principal parties. *Human Relations*, 30, 1089-1102.
- Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (1997). What's good about revenge? The avenger's perspective. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & R. J. Bies (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 6, pp. 145-160). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Wade, S. H. (1989). *The development of a scale to measure forgiveness*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fuller Theological Seminary, Pasadena.
- Wall, V., & Nolan, L. (1986). Perceptions of inequity, satisfaction, and conflict in task-oriented groups. *Human Relations*, 39, 1033-105.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1992). On traits and temperament: General and specific factors of emotional experience and their relation to the five-factor model. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 441-476.



Table 1

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Study Variables*

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Trait negative affect	2.07	0.66								
2 Gender	1.54	0.50	-0.13							
3 Condition	1.49	0.50	0.09	-0.17						
4 Trait competitiveness	3.16	0.70	0.20	0.06	-0.09					
5 Manipulation check	3.46	0.86	0.08	-0.19	0.53	-0.02				
6 Trust	2.29	0.72	-0.06	0.05	-0.35	0.03	-0.40			
7 Anger	2.55	1.01	0.17	-0.06	0.50	0.04	0.56	-0.64		
8 Working harder intentions	4.45	0.61	0.00	-0.13	-0.04	-0.04	0.06	-0.13	0.13	
9 Revenge intentions	1.68	0.86	0.14	0.18	0.12	0.27	-0.01	-0.31	0.34	-0.05

*Note.*  $|r| > .15$   $p < .05$ ;  $|r| > .20$   $p < .01$ . Gender: 1 = male; 2 = female. Condition: 1 = control; 2 = task incivility.

Table 2

*Hierarchical Regression Models for Testing the Moderated Mediation of Trust on Revenge Intentions*

Predictor variable	Revenge					
	Revenge		Trust		Revenge	
	(Model 1)	$\Delta R^2$	(Model 2)	$\Delta R^2$	(Model 3)	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1						
Trait negative affect	0.16*	0.06**	-0.05	0.01	0.16*	0.06**
Gender	0.20**		0.04		0.20**	
Step 2						
Trait negative affect	0.07	0.11**	-0.01	0.12**	0.08	0.19**
Gender	0.21**		-0.01		0.19**	
Condition	0.19**		-0.36**		0.10	
Trait competitiveness	-0.19		0.09		-0.08	
Condition x TC	0.47*		-0.09		0.34	
Trust					-0.26**	
Trust x TC					-0.13+	

*Note.* Values are standardized beta coefficients. TC = trait competitiveness. Gender 1 = male; 2 = female. Condition 1 = control; 2 = incivility.

+  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Table 3

*Hierarchical Regression Models for Testing the Moderated Mediation of Trust on Working Harder Intentions*

Predictor variable	Working Harder					
	Working harder (Model 1)		Trust (Model 2)		Working harder (Model 3)	
		$\Delta R^2$		$\Delta R^2$		$\Delta R^2$
Step 1						
Trait negative affect	-0.01	0.02	-0.05	0.01	-0.01	0.02
Gender	-0.13		0.04		-0.13	
Step 2						
Trait negative affect	-0.02	0.01	-0.01	0.12**	-0.01	0.07*
Gender	-0.14+		-0.01		-0.15+	
Condition	-0.05		-0.36**		-0.10	
Trait competitiveness	-0.34		0.09		-0.19	
Condition x TC	0.32		-0.09		0.14	
Trust					-0.11	
Trust x TC					-0.20*	

*Note.* Values are standardized beta coefficients. TC = trait competitiveness. Gender 1 = male; 2 = female. Condition 1 = control; 2 = incivility.

+  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Table 4

*Hierarchical Regression Models for Testing the Moderated Mediation of Anger on Revenge Intentions*

Predictor variable	Revenge					
	Revenge		Anger		Revenge	
	(Model 1)	$\Delta R^2$	(Model 2)	$\Delta R^2$	(Model 3)	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1						
Trait negative affect	0.16*	0.06**	0.17*	0.03+	0.16*	0.06**
Gender	0.20**		-0.04		0.20**	
Step 2						
Trait negative affect	0.07	0.11**	0.10	0.25**	0.04	0.17**
Gender	0.21**		0.04		0.19**	
Condition	0.19**		0.51**		0.03	
Trait competitiveness	-0.19		-0.02		-0.14	
Condition x TC	0.47*		0.08		0.40	
Anger					0.31**	
Anger x TC					0.03	

*Note.* Values are standardized beta coefficients. TC = trait competitiveness. Gender 1 = male; 2 = female. Condition 1 = control; 2 = incivility.

+  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Table 5

*Hierarchical Regression Models for Testing the Moderated Mediation of Anger on Working Harder Intentions*

Predictor variable	Working Harder					
	Working harder (Model 1)		Anger (Model 2)		Working harder (Model 3)	
		$\Delta R^2$		$\Delta R^2$		$\Delta R^2$
Step 1						
Trait negative affect	-0.01	0.02	0.17*	0.03+	-0.01	0.02
Gender	-0.13		-0.04		-0.13	
Step 2						
Trait negative affect	-0.02	0.01	0.10	0.25**	-0.03	0.05
Gender	-0.14		0.04		-0.14+	
Condition	-0.05		0.51**		-0.16+	
Trait competitiveness	-0.34		-0.02		-0.27	
Condition x TC	0.32		0.08		0.24	
Anger					0.20*	
Anger x TC					0.04	

*Note.* Values are standardized beta coefficients. TC = trait competitiveness. Gender 1 = male; 2 = female. Condition 1 = control; 2 = incivility.

+  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Figure 1

*Proposed Model*

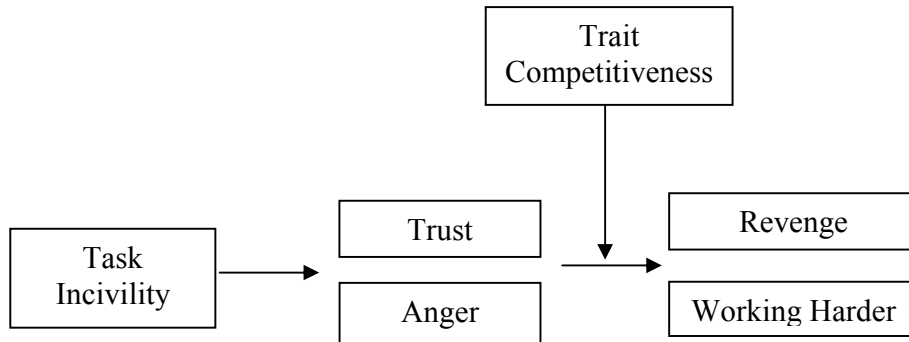


Figure 2

*Relationship between Trust, Revenge Intentions, and Trait Competitiveness*

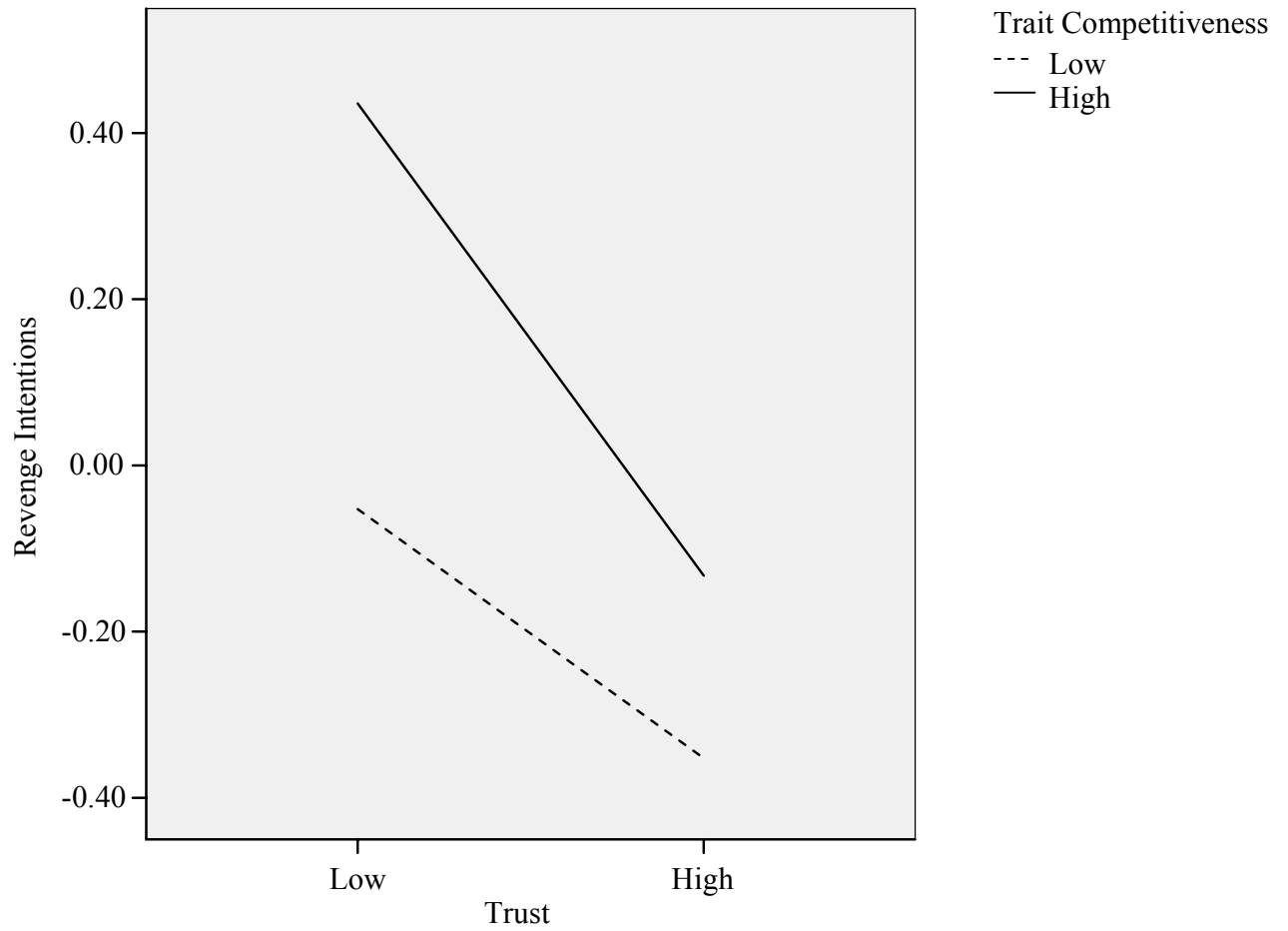


Figure 3

*Relationship between Trust, Working Harder Intentions, and Trait Competitiveness*

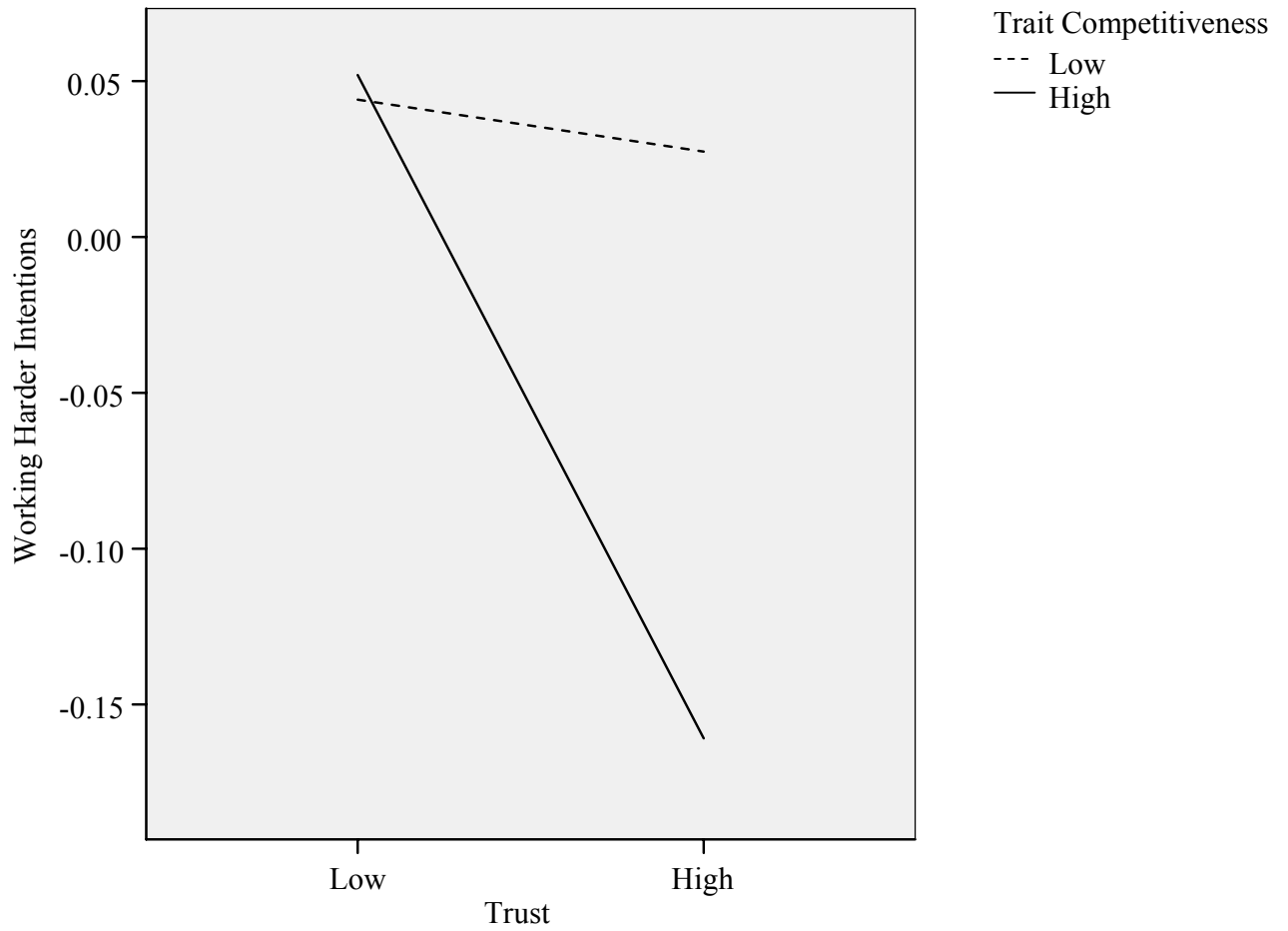


Figure 4

*Relationship between Incivility, Revenge Intentions, and Trait Competitiveness*

