Doctoral Dissertations   Graduate School

Fall 2008

A forgiving workplace: An investigation of forgiveness climate, individual differences and workplace outcomes

Susie Cox
Louisiana Tech University

A FORGIVING WORKPLACE: AN INVESTIGATION OF

FORGIVENESS CLIMATE, INDIVIDUAL

DIFFERENCES AND WORKPLACE

OUTCOMES

by

Susie Cox, B.S., M.B.A.

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

November 2008

UMI Number: 3334126

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI®

UMI Microform 3334126
Copyright 2008 by ProQuest LLC.
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest LLC
789 E. Eisenhower Parkway
PO Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

September 5, 2008
Date

We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under our supervision

by_____Susie Simon Cox_____

entitled_____"A Forgiving Workplace: An Investigation of_____

_____Forgiveness Climate, Individual Differences and_____

_____Workplace Outcomes"._____

_____

_____

be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration - Management

_____
Supervisor of Dissertation Research

_____
Head of Department

Management and Information Systems
Department

Recommendation concurred in:

_____

_____

_____   Advisory Committee

_____

Approved:

_____
Director of Graduate Studies

_____
Dean of the College

Approved:

_____
Dean of the Graduate School

ABSTRACT

Although forgiveness has been studied for centuries, it is a relatively new area of study in organizational behavior. Organizational climate has a history of influencing individual behaviors. This dissertation considers how a climate of forgiveness may foster a willingness to forgive in individuals. A measure of forgiveness climate is developed and empirically examined. The results of this study support the hypothesis that a cohesive/supportive climate and a trustworthy/integrity climate relate to a climate of forgiveness. Furthermore, this study examines the effects of climate on willingness to forgive. A scenario-based scale to measure willingness to forgive workplace offenses is developed. Willingness to forgive is found to be positively related to job satisfaction and OCB. On the other hand, willingness to forgive was found to be negatively related to job stress and performance. Two individual differences, psychological collectivism and narcissism, were examined as moderators. However, their moderating effect was not supported by the analyses.

APPROVAL FOR SCHOLARLY DISSEMINATION

The author grants to the Prescott Memorial Library of Louisiana Tech University the right to reproduce, by appropriate methods, upon request, any or all portions of this Thesis/Dissertation. It is understood that "proper request" consists of the agreement, on the part of the requesting party, that said reproduction is for his personal use and that subsequent reproduction will not occur without written approval of the author of this Thesis/Dissertation. Further, any portions of the Thesis/Dissertation used in books, papers, and other works must be appropriately referenced to this Thesis/Dissertation.

Finally, the author of this Thesis/Dissertation reserves the right to publish freely, in the literature, at any time, any or all portions of this Thesis/Dissertation.

Author _____

Date ___10/14/2008_____

DEDICATION

Dedicated in memory of two very special women, my mother,

Dorothy Simon, the woman who gave me a thirst for

learning and my mother-in-law, Dr. Camilla Cox, a

beautiful woman who showed me the world was a

much bigger place and inspired me to achieve.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Relationships are an integral part of human existence; the relationships that individuals establish and maintain define who they are and of what they are capable. Relationships allow individuals to bond with others and to develop interdependences that are mutually beneficial. Within the workplace, relationships allow access to necessary resources, to supportive networks, and to different perspectives, thus enriching the workplace experience by facilitating learning, socializing, and development of strong ties (Dutton & Ragins, 2007). The study of positive relationships at work (PRW) is a budding branch of the positive psychology perspective (Snyder & Lopez, 2002).

If in fact, positive relationships at work do offer significant benefits, than maintaining positive relationships within the organization is therefore vital to the organization's success. Nonetheless, in any relationship, there is the possibility for offenses to occur. When this occurs, the offended party must choose how to respond to or cope with the offense. Along with the negative coping responses of avoidance and revenge, is a positive coping mechanism, forgiveness. Forgiveness is one coping mechanism that may facilitate the restoration of the relationship. Forgiveness allows the offended party to move past the offense, to forgo the negative feelings, thoughts, and behaviors associated with unforgiveness.

Forgiveness is a topic of ageless importance; however, its study is often left to theologians and counselors. Examination of forgiveness as a psychological and sociological issue began to surface in the early 1980's (McCullough, Pargament, & Thoresen, 2000). Moreover, only in the past decade have organizational behaviorists began to study the effects of forgiveness on workplace relationships. Forgiveness of workplace offenses offers the victim the ability to cope with hurtful events that may occur. Because functional enduring relationships are an essential element to successful organizational operations, and since the opportunity is present to be offended in workplace relationships, as it is with all relationships, research about forgiveness as a coping response to workplace offenses is of critical importance.

As of yet, forgiveness in the workplace has received a paucity of research attention. Much greater research emphasis has been directed at other coping behaviors such as revenge (Bies & Tripp, 1996; McLean-Parks, 1997; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). It is possible that forgiveness has received significantly less attention for several reasons. First, forgiveness can and has long been viewed by some as a sign of weakness (Nietzsche, 1887/1927). For example, perpetual forgiveness of an abusive supervisor or coworker may be explained by the victim's sense of helplessness or codependence. In the workplace, forgiveness that facilitates an unhealthy relationship or enables dysfunctional behaviors, such as abusive supervision or social loafing could also be viewed as weak and undesirable. Second, forgiveness in the workplace does not garner the same level of attention from the media that other coping behaviors do. More attention is given to violent acts of workplace revenge. This may simply be because these coping reactions are more sensational and hence are more likely to make the headlines and the

evening news. However, the movement in organizational behavior research to embrace the positive psychology aspects of organizations has encouraged researchers to look at a broader range of behaviors. Forgiveness has the potential to reconcile damaged relationships and hence to facilitate better organizational functioning. Therefore, forgiveness of interpersonal offenses in the workplace has gained the interest of some researchers.

A review of past research on forgiveness reveals that forgiveness research has focused on characteristics of the offended individual (personality traits and blame attributions), and of the offense episode (e.g. behavior of the offender, offense types and severity). Furthermore, forgiveness researchers have typically examined forgiveness as an interpersonal behavior between two individuals in some type of intimate relationship. In addition, a few studies have addressed forgiveness at group levels, such as forgiveness granted by Holocaust victims and by victims of apartheid in South Africa. While characteristics of the offense episode and of the victim are of course necessary to understand the forgiveness process, other overlooked factors may be equally important in a workplace setting. For example, yet to be evaluated are the organizational contextual influences that may have an effect on the willingness to forgive workplace offenses. However, few, if any, studies have examined environmental influences on the forgiveness process, especially for forgiveness of offenses that occur in the workplace.

Moreover, behaviors of individuals in the workplace are not based solely on the environment of the organization, of course, nor are they based solely on individual differences. Rather, the behaviors of individuals are a function of their individual personalities and dispositions that interact with the environment of the workplace.

Building on the impassioned plea of Mischel (1968), that "although it is evident that persons are the source from which human responses are evoked, it is the situational stimuli that evoke them and it is changes in conditions that alter them" (p. 296), it seems that there is much more in the context that should be considered in research on forgiveness of workplace offenses. Although offenses are often interpersonal exchanges, the environment in which they occur may have a profound effect on how the offended individual will respond to offenses. Schneider argued, "Individuals need information from their environment so they know the behaviors required by the organization that will help them attain a homeostatic balance with their environment" (1975 p. 459). The influence of the environment may be determined by the perceptions of the organization that an individual or group may hold.

One method of assessing contextual influences may be measured by assessing the perceptions of individuals in the workplace (i.e., organizational climate). Organizational climate has been defined as "a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly and indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior" (Litwin & Stringer, 1968:1). Therefore, organizational climates are the perceptions of the employees of their surrounding environment and these perceptions are believed to influence their behavior.

A review of the organizational climate literature shows that climate has been viewed as a moderating variable in the relationship of individual differences and various outcome variables including performance (Burton, Lauridsen, & Obel, 2004), job satisfaction, and motivation (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Organizational climate's origins are based on the Gestalt and Functionalist theories (Schneider, 1975). These theories

provide the basis for understanding the reasons why individuals attempt to understand and adapt their behaviors to the situation in which they find themselves (Schneider, 1975).

Over the past fifty years of research on climate, researchers have developed numerous typologies of climate in an attempt to define what should be included in the measure of organizational climate. However, there is no "one size fits all" model. Litwin & Stringer (1968) identified nine dimensions of which only three or four seem relevant to interpersonal workplace relationships. Schneider (1975) suggests that when examining organizational climates, the specific elements of climate that should be studied depend on the purpose(s) of the study. Researchers should select the dimensions of climate that seem most relevant to the context of their studies. Therefore, more recently, climates have been defined for very specific contexts of interest. For instance, if one is studying ethical behaviors, using Victor and Cullen's (1987) ethical climate measure would be appropriate. In addition, climate measures have been developed for topics as varied as: psychological safety, physical safety, political, cooperative, and social climate.

When introducing the construct of workplace forgiveness, Aquino, Grover, Goldman, & Folger suggest overcoming betrayal and injustice by "establishing a climate of reconciliation and forgiveness to help defuse the hostility that breeds destructive revenge" (2003: 210). Furthermore, these authors point out that forgiveness can play an important role in relationship maintenance in the workplace. Unlike social settings where individuals may choose with whom to associate, this may not be an option in the workplace. Interacting with certain coworkers may be essential to perform necessary job requirements. If forgiveness can therefore play a vital role in maintaining successful

organizational relationships, what elements would be necessary to establish a 'forgiveness climate' and what impact can it have in the organization? This question reflects the purpose of this dissertation. The purpose of this dissertation is three-fold: (1) to offer insight into the development and definition of what constitutes a climate of forgiveness in the workplace; (2) to test empirically the interactive relationship of individual characteristics with forgiveness climate and the willingness to forgive; and (3) to empirically test the relationship of willingness to forgive and organizational outcomes.

There are two fundamental reasons that I have selected forgiveness climate as a focus of this dissertation. First, positive psychology is a growing field of study in organizational behavior research and the study of positive workplace relationships is a branch of this work. It is a basic assumption that healthy and functional relationships are needed for the successful operation of organizations. Considering that an organization is a nexus of relationships between the individuals within an organization working toward common goals (i.e., organizational objectives), it is evident that functional relationships can play a pivotal role in an organization's success (Jensen, 1983). Relationships in organizations have been examined from numerous perspectives. Network theory (Burt, 1992), leader-member exchange (Graen & Scandura, 1987), and mentoring (Kram, 1985) are theories which build upon developing functional relationships within the work place. Even marketing researchers value the quality of relationships between buyers and suppliers (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987).

Secondly, past research findings have provided evidence that one of the motivations to forgive is the desire to maintain the relationship (Bennett & Cox, 2006). Indeed, in all interpersonal relationships, forgiveness is often a necessary component. At

some point, one party is likely to offend the other party, and to maintain the relationship, forgiveness of the offense will be necessary. Although there are many possible coping mechanisms for dealing with workplace offenses such as avoidance and revenge, forgiveness is the only coping mechanism that can help maintain the relationship. Not only did this previous research find that valued relationships were a primary motivation for forgiveness, but also that individuals who forgave because of their desire to maintain the relationship reported having greater job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions. On the other hand, those who forgave for expedient reasons (i.e., feeling there are no other options) experienced negative outcomes. Therefore, forgiving for the benefit of the relationship may not only help the offended move on, but also may engender other positive outcomes, such as greater job satisfaction and lower desire to leave the organization.

Statement of Problem

This study proposes to examine the relationship of organizational forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive. Specifically, the overarching research question to be addressed is, "What are the dimensions of a forgiveness climate and is there a relationship between climate and forgiveness of interpersonal offenses within the workplace?" To help answer this question, the potential aspects of organizational climate that may influence interpersonal forgiveness will be evaluated. Assessment of the climate rather than the reported culture is preferable because climate is a measure of perceptions whereas culture is a measure of artifacts that describe the environment (Denison, 1996). Since forgiveness involves intrapersonal cognitions and emotions, perceptions of those experiencing workplace offenses seem to be the appropriate focus.

It is the perceptions of the offended individual that are relevant and therefore, it is necessary to assess that individual's perception of the climate and how s/he will respond to the offense. This dissertation attempts to take that initial step in examining this phenomenon.

Although it could be expected that there is a positive relationship between forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive, one must ask if there are potential moderators to this relationship. For example, individual differences, which may affect the relationship between organizational climate and forgiveness, will be examined. Specifically, the interaction between work-unit-level forgiveness climate and individual differences of psychological collectivism and narcissism and the relationship of each with willingness to forgive workplace offenses will be studied. These individual differences are selected for study because psychological collectivism is likely to be associated with individuals caring about the expectations of the group and valuing the group's goals as their own. Narcissism was selected as a study variable because it has been negatively linked to forgiveness. Individuals high in narcissism are likely to be self-centered and unable to develop empathic feelings which are often a necessary part of the forgiveness process (Bennett, Cox, & Aquino, 2008). Narcissist individuals think highly of themselves and therefore their beliefs may affect how they perceive the offense and how they cope with the offense.

Research Questions

1. What specific climate may foster a forgiveness climate?

2. Is the organizational/group forgiveness climate associated with the individual member's willingness to forgive a workplace offense?

3. Do individual differences and organizational climate interact to predict willingness to forgive?

    a. Psychological Collectivism

    b. Narcissism

4. Is willingness to forgive related to other individual and organizational outcomes?

    a. Job satisfaction (individual)

    b. Job stress (individual)

    c. Organizational citizenship behaviors (individual)

    d. School performance scores (organizational)

Note: A model of potential constructs to be included in the forgiveness climate is provided as Figure 1.1. In addition, a model of the interaction is provided as Figure 1.2. Figure 1.3 provides a model of willingness to forgive and the potential outcomes that are to be examined.
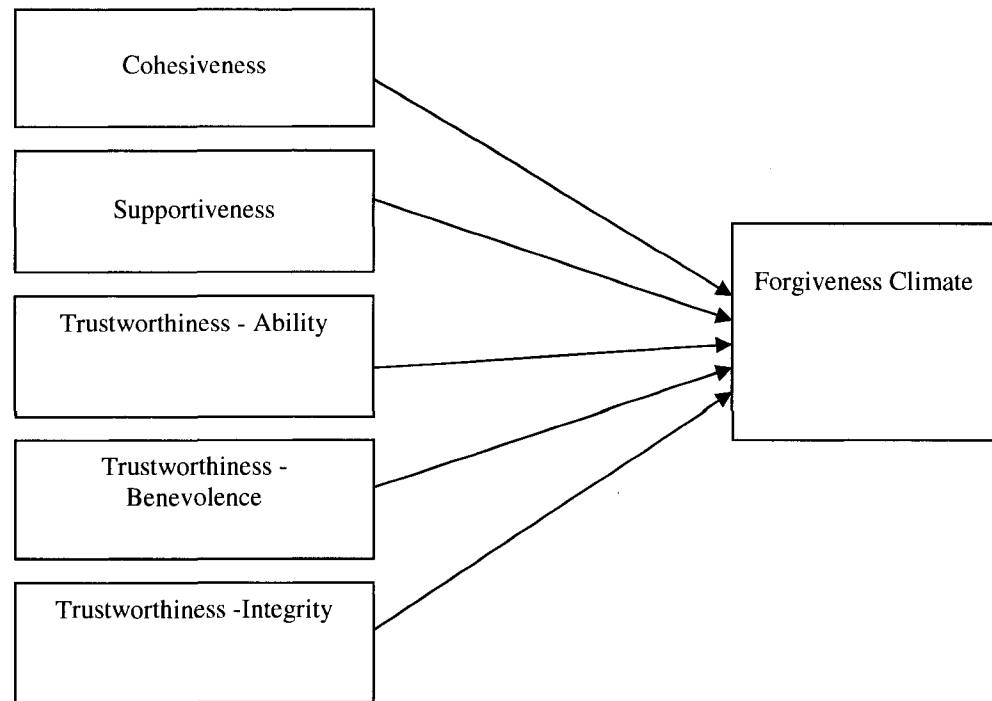
Figure 1.1 Forgiveness climate.
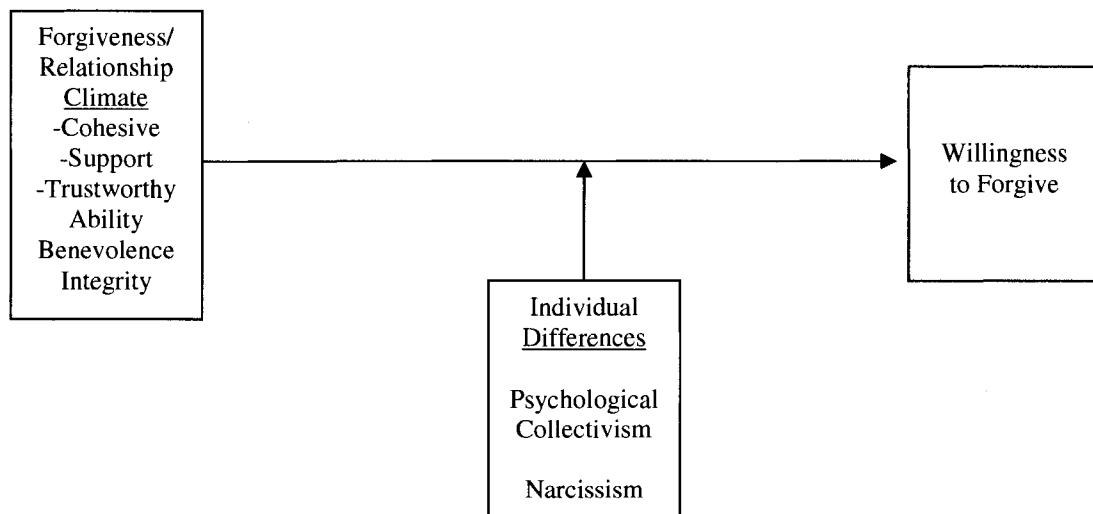
Figure 1.2 Person/climate interaction.
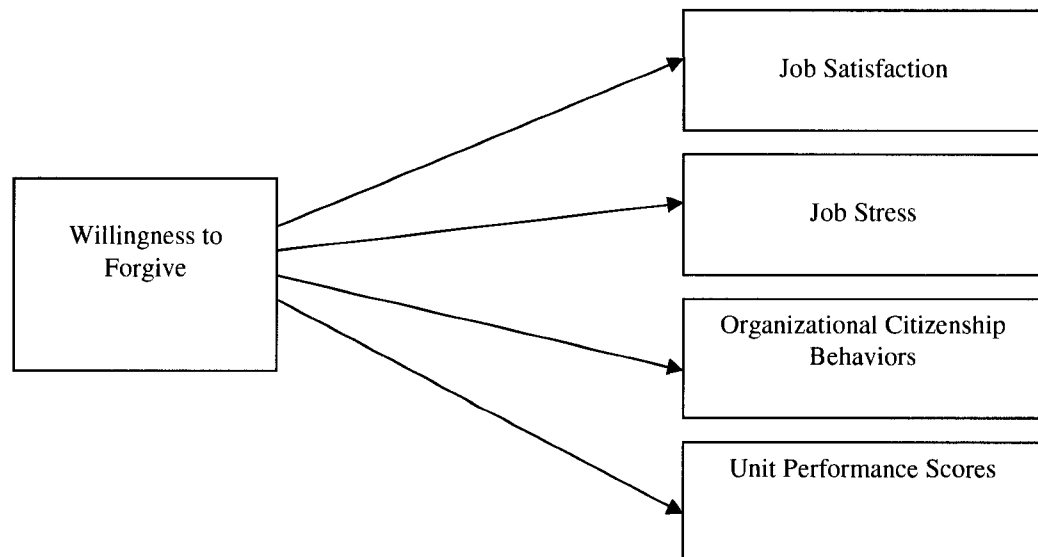
Figure 1.3 Willingness to forgive and outcomes

Contributions of the Study

This dissertation will further the understanding of forgiveness in the workplace in several ways. First, this dissertation offers a first step in determining how climate perceptions may be related to forgiveness. Second, the types of climate sub-dimensions that may enable forgiveness will be evaluated. Third, the interaction of contextual and personality variables will be examined. Fourth, the relationship between willingness to forgive a workplace offenses and other outcome variables will be examined, providing empirical evidence of the significance of forgiveness in the workplace. It is anticipated that this dissertation will provide additional insight and practical implications into how climate perceptions are related to forgiveness intentions and thus influence the quality of relationships that are developed within the organization. Examination of workplace influences such as organizational climate can help managers gain insight into the type of

climate that should be fostered to facilitate a forgiveness climate in an organization, thus helping to maintain interpersonal relationships.

Plan of Study

The remainder of the dissertation will be organized as follows. First, a review of organizational climate and forgiveness will be presented in Chapter Two. In Chapter Three, the proposed statistical methods and procedures to be used for the empirical study will be discussed. A model for the study will be presented and a list of measures to be used in the study will be provided. Chapter Four will present the findings of the empirical study. Finally, Chapter Five will discuss the practical implications of the findings and will provide insight into areas where future research may be directed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Few researchers have addressed the role that forgiveness of workplace offenses should play in organizations even though the potential for positive benefits exists. Kurzynski (1998) noted that forgiveness could play an important role in the maintenance of healthy workplace relationships. Forgiveness frees individuals (both the forgiver and forgiven) to focus on the tasks at hand and the goals of the organization. Furthermore, the cost of unforgiveness can be relatively high including costs such as lost productivity, lower job satisfaction, unnecessary or overpowering stress and decreased goal commitment (Schernerhorn, 1994).

As mentioned in Chapter One, there is a need for additional insight into organizational pro-social behaviors and workplace relationships. Forgiveness is one such pro-social behavior that can facilitate the healing of fractured relationships. To enable a more comprehensive understanding of how organizational/work unit climate can affect forgiveness of workplace offenses, a review of these literatures is needed. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of both the forgiveness and the climate literatures.

This review is provided to offer a justification for the need to assess a forgiveness climate within organizations/work groups. A review of the literature of forgiveness and the various definitions and processes of forgiveness are presented from a social-psychological perspective. Although forgiveness has been an important topic for

thousands of years amongst theologians and philosophers, this dissertation does not incorporate in-depth theological or philosophical reviews. Nor does this review focus on forgiveness of self, forgiveness at a group/cultural level (i.e., Holocaust victims' forgiveness). Rather, the focus of this dissertation is on interpersonal forgiveness of offenses that occur in the workplace between individuals that work together as a work unit.

Following the review of the forgiveness literature, a review of the organizational climate literature is provided. Specifically, the literature is reviewed to lay a foundation for the identification and measurement of a forgiveness climate. Various definitions of climate are discussed as well as the different climate dimensions. Furthermore, the difference between climate and culture is reviewed. Hypotheses are then developed to test the effects of organizational/work unit climate on the willingness to forgive. In addition, individual characteristics that may moderate the relationship of climate and forgiveness are introduced. Hypotheses are developed for each of these proposed interaction effects. Furthermore, several potential outcomes of willingness to forgive are proposed and hypotheses are developed for these relationships.

Forgiveness

When an offense occurs, damage to the relationship has been done; physical, moral, or psychological boundaries have been violated. Bies and Tripp (2004) identified three broad categories of workplace offenses: goal obstruction; violation of rules, norms, and promises; and status and power derogation. Goal obstruction is defined as the act (intentional or unintentional) of preventing an employee from reaching a goal. An example of this type of offense is if a fellow employee is given the prized office space

that the offended employee was attempting to secure. Violation of rules, norms, and promises includes the violation of both formal and informal rules, norms, and promises. An example of this type of offense may occur when a manager informally promises to reward a certain level of performance and then fails to do so. Public ridicule and demeaning name-calling are examples of status and power derogation. Aquino and Douglas (2003) noted that status and power derogation offenses are considered identity threats and hence threaten one's self-concept. After experiencing an offense, an individual must decide how to cope with the offense.

Worthington (2001) offered numerous ways that an individual could deal with the violation: attempting to restore justice through revenge or political justice, creating a new narrative (i.e., sensemaking), accepting the misfortune, or using defenses like avoidance and denial. Revenge allows the offended to make the transgressor pay for the offense. The creation of a new narrative allows the offended to make sense of the events from a different perspective and possibly to decide to forgive the offender. Forgiveness is often a result of creating a new narrative, whereby the offender and the offense are viewed from a new perspective. Acceptance, avoidance, or denial of the misfortune may allow the behavior to continue and hence permit the offender to continue acting offensively.

Forgiveness plays a dominate role in all major religions including Judaism, Christianity, and Islam (McCullough & Worthington, 1999). Over the centuries, forgiveness has been discussed at great length; however, it had not been empirically examined by scientists until recently (Kaminer, Stein, MBanga, & Zungu-Dirwayi, 2000). Only in the last 30 years has forgiveness research gained prominence in science disciplines such as developmental psychology (Enright, Santos, & Al-Mabuk, 1989),

social psychology (McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997), and clinical/counseling psychology (McCullough & Worthington, 1995). During this brief period, there has been much debate over the definition of forgiveness.

Defining Forgiveness

Defining forgiveness is no easy task. Numerous studies have attempted to offer clarity to the construct of forgiveness (Macaskill, 2005; Zechmeister & Romero, 2002; Younger, Piferi, Jobe, & Lawler, 2004). However, there remains considerable debate over what forgiveness is or is not. Indeed, there appears to be no consensus on the dimensionality of forgiveness (Toussaint, Williams, Musick, Everson, 2000) or on the process of forgiveness (Denton & Martin, 1998). One reason for this conflict is that forgiveness is complex. Forgiveness can involve affective, cognitive, behavioral, motivational, decisional, and interpersonal aspects (Worthington & Scherer, 2004). Furthermore, forgiveness can be conceptualized as both trait and state. As a trait, forgiveness is seen as the tendency to forgive in a variety of situations and over time (Rye, Lioacono, Folck, Olszewski, Neim, Madia, 2001). As a state, forgiveness is viewed as the affective, cognitive, and behavioral manifestation of desire to release the negative and replace with positive concerning the offense and offender.

What Forgiveness Is Not. Clearly, from the perspective of the researcher, there are constructs associated with forgiveness that are not part of forgiveness. Enright, Freeland, and Rique (1998) claim that forgiveness is more than accepting or tolerating injustice, and is more than forgetting, or simply ceasing the anger felt toward the offender. Furthermore, forgiveness researchers (e.g. Enright & the Human Development Study Group, 1991; Enright and Coyle 1998; Exline, Worthington, Hill, & McCullough

2003) agree that forgiveness is *not* mercy, pardoning, excusing, condoning, or leniency. Mercy can be demonstrated or shown to anyone, not only those who have offended the victim. Pardoning is viewed as a legal act whereby the offender is released from the consequences of the action. Condoning occurs when the offense is overlooked. Leniency would imply a reduction in a sentence or punishment. Although each of these can occur when an offense has taken place, they are not *necessary* for forgiveness to occur. Forgiveness can be granted without forgoing punishment or restitution (North, 1998).

It should also be recognized that forgiveness is not the same as forbearance. McCullough, Fincham, & Tsang (2003) introduced forbearance into their model of forgiveness, defining forbearance as "state of toleration or moderated reaction to a transgression" (p. 542). McCullough et al. (2003) place forbearance in the forgiveness timeline as the point where the victim may forgo revenge for a period of time but also has not granted forgiveness. Forbearance is also viewed similarly to granting leniency. Forbearance occurs when an individual has the opportunity to punish the offense but instead chooses to forgo punishment or to reduce the severity of the punishment. In supervisor-subordinate relationships, this may be viewed as managerial stewardship (Nelson & Dyck, 2005). Managerial stewardship is viewed as the manager taking responsibility of caring for the subordinate, having an empathic understanding of the subordinate's position, and being willing to act on these feelings.

There is no consensus on what forgiveness encompasses. One area of contention among researchers concerning the forgiveness process is whether positive affect, cognitions, and behaviors must replace the negative affect, cognitions, and behaviors

created by the offense. Some researchers believe that forgiveness occurs with the release by the offended of his/her negative feelings and thoughts, and with the offended's decision to forgo negative behaviors such as revenge. Others believe that those negative feelings, thoughts, and behaviors must be replaced with positive ones (Enright et al., 1991). Cox and Bennett (2006) found that the release of negative feelings, thoughts and behaviors did offer the benefits of forgiveness to the forgiver (i.e., less stress and better general health); however, in some cases, replacing those negative feelings, thoughts, and behaviors with positive feelings, thoughts, and behaviors offered additional benefit (i.e., higher job satisfaction).

In addition, one of the areas most often debated is the question of whether reconciliation is a necessary part of forgiveness (Kearns & Fincham, 2004). Reconciliation is the reestablishment of the relationship between the offender and the victim. Enright and his colleagues (1991) argue that forgiveness does not require reconciliation. Forgiveness may play a role in the reconciliation process; however, the terms are not synonymous. However, Worthington (1998) and Hargrave and Sells (1997) stated that reconciliation is an important component of forgiveness.

Researchers who primarily work with families and people in other intimate types of relationships often see reconciliation as part of the healing process; however, others view forgiveness as an intrapersonal experience and recognize that reconciliation is not an integral part of the offended letting go and moving on with his/her life. For example, Berecz (2001) offers a forgiveness model that exposes the notion that forgiveness and reconciliation are not always the best outcome to relationship conflicts. He offers two types of forgiveness outcomes, 'conjunctive forgiveness' where reconciliation is an

outcome and 'disjunctive forgiveness' whereby release is the final outcome. In certain situations, conjunctive forgiveness is seen as the best solution, where the relationship is reconciled. In other situations, reconciliation is not feasible or is best avoided and therefore, disjunctive forgiveness allows the offended to move on but not resume the relationship.

A further point of debate in constructing a forgiveness definition is whether forgiveness must occur between two parties or if it can be an intrapersonal experience. If forgiveness is an intrapersonal experience, the victim has come to terms with the offender's actions and no longer desires to seek retaliation although the relationship between the offender and victim may no longer exist. Some researchers and laypersons view forgiveness as a two way process whereby the offender must express regret for past actions. Denton and Martin (1998) surveyed experienced clinicians and found that roughly 50% agreed that forgiveness could only occur between two parties and the other half felt that forgiveness could be an intrapersonal event. However, other clinicians and researchers would argue that in some circumstances, forgiveness cannot occur between two parties. In some instances, the offender and the victim may never cross paths again; the offender has died; or the offender does not recognize the harm that he/she has done. Nevertheless, it is understood that the post-offense actions of the offender can influence the victim's response, although specific actions by the offender are not necessary to facilitate forgiveness. For example, it would not be possible to reconcile with a deceased parent or friend. Nonetheless, if one could 'let go' (i.e. forgive), personal benefits may be obtained.

To further complicate the development of a clear definition, members of the general public view forgiveness from many different perspectives and offer a host of variations to what should and should not be included in forgiveness including forgetting, condoning, reconciling, and removing negative consequences (Kearns & Fincham, 2004; Fincham, 2000; Jeffress, 2000; Kantz, 2000). In fact, Fincham (2000) found that almost 28% of survey participants agreed that forgetting was part of forgiveness and 21% felt that reconciliation was part of forgiveness. Furthermore, the definition of forgiveness in Merriam Webster's dictionary offers pardon and excuse as synonyms for forgiveness (1989).

What Is Forgiveness? Although, there is not one commonly agreed upon definition of forgiveness, there are some common elements to most forgiveness definitions. Researchers do agree that forgiveness is one potential response to offenses (Enright et al., 1989; Pingleton, 1989; Subkoviak, Enright, Wu et al., 1995). In addition, most researchers agree that forgiveness is a voluntary choice (Hope, 1987; Pingleton, 1989; Kaminer et al., 2000). Thus, forgiveness is viewed by most researchers as a conscious decision to release bitterness and to forgo vengeance. North (1987) defined forgiveness as "a matter of willed change of heart – the successful result of an active endeavor to replace bad thoughts with good, bitterness and anger with compassion and affection." This definition focuses on what the offended can do to grant forgiveness. Enright and colleagues (1991) offer one of the most comprehensive definitions of forgiveness by expanding North's definitions to not only represent the affective changes that facilitate forgiveness but also the cognitions and behaviors associated with forgiveness. However, this definition does not define exactly the time period or specific

affect, cognitions, or behaviors; rather it provides a working definition that can be used as a guiding process. First, someone that is offended and that is motivated to maintain the relationship is willing to release the negative and secondly, to replace those negatives with positive. Enright et al. (1998) define forgiveness as the releasing of negative affect, cognitions, and behaviors and replacing them with positive affect, cognitions, and behaviors. For the purposes of this dissertation, forgiveness is viewed solely as the responsibility of the victim and is in keeping with the perspective of North and Enright. Therefore, I define forgiveness as a process whereby an individual who has suffered an offense voluntarily decides to forgo the negative thoughts, feelings, and behaviors and furthermore, replaces those negatives with positive thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.

Forgiveness Outcomes

Interest in forgiveness and the variables that influence forgiveness gained attention in the early 1980's (McCullough et al., 2000). Worthington and Scherer (2004) noted that in 1997, there were approximately 58 empirical studies on forgiveness in a variety of research areas (e.g., religion, family, and psychology) and by the year 2004 that number had quadrupled. This increase may be motivated by the recognized benefits of forgiveness.

"When people forgive, they become less avoidant, less vengeful, and more benevolent toward the people who have hurt them," (McCullough, Root, & Cohen, 2006: 887). There are several direct benefits of forgiveness at the individual, dyadic, and social level including the reduction of stress, the possibility of reestablishing/repairing the relationship, and the enforcing of the social status quo or norms (Droll, 1984). Other researchers have found support for the idea that forgiveness is associated with a reduction

of negative emotions (Kearns & Fincham, 2004; Hebl & Enright, 1993), and the healing of relationships (McCullough & Worthington, 1995; McCullough, 2000).

Worthington (2004) proposed that forgiveness might reduce hostility in the victim. Hostility remains a key component of unforgiveness. He also proposed that forgiveness could have benefits on health by affecting the immune system at a cellular-level and a neuro-endocrine level. Several researchers have found support for such outcomes as improved physical and psychological health (Lawler, Younger, Piferi, Billington, Jobe, Edmondson, & Jones, 2003; Witvliet, Ludwig, & Van der Laan, 2001; Hebl & Enright, 1993; Mauger et al., 1992).

More recently, researchers have begun to measure directly the effects of forgiveness on physiological outcomes such as heart rate, blood pressure, and cortisol levels. Witvliet, Ludwig, and Van der Laan (2001) found that when study participants rehearsed hurtful memories (i.e., unforgiving), they experienced increased heart rate, blood pressure changes, and more negative emotions. Those participants who recalled a memory of when they forgave a transgression perceived having greater control and lower physiological stress responses. Lawler et al. (2003) interviewed 168 college students concerning interpersonal conflict. They reported that trait and state forgiveness were related to lower blood pressure levels. State forgiveness was also related to a reduced heart rate. Lawler, Younger, Piferi, Jobe, Edmonson, & Jones (2005) found that health was affected by both increases in trait and state forgiveness. State forgiveness was positively related to reports of fewer symptom complaints, fewer medicines taken, better sleep quality, reduced fatigue, and fewer somatic complaints. Trait forgiveness was also related to these outcomes; however, it accounted for less variance explained.

In addition, Droll (1984) acknowledged that forgiveness could benefit not only the individual granting forgiveness but actually could have effects at three different levels. The individual is relieved of the stress of maintaining negative feelings and emotions. Secondly, the interpersonal relationship may be restored. Thirdly, the context in which the individual and the offended party operate (i.e., workplace) also benefits. Thus, the positive outcomes of forgiveness are viewed as potentially beneficial in several ways. It is understandable that with the growing abundance of support for these positive outcomes, forgiveness is often recognized as part of the study of positive psychology. In fact, forgiveness is listed as one of the twenty-four traits or strengths of character and well-being by Park, Peterson, and Seligman (2004).

Positive Psychology and Forgiveness
as Prosocial Workplace Behavior

Most of the research on forgiveness to date has examined interventions and counseling of intimate romantic relationships. Little research has examined the unique dynamics of forgiveness of workplace offenses. Hence, this dissertation offers a view of not only forgiveness of workplace offences but also consideration of the climate in which the forgiveness can occur. As previously discussed, forgiveness is a prosocial behavior that may have positive benefits in the workplace. It has been recognized that there is a need for research to not only examine the negative aspects (i.e., revenge) of interpersonal workplace relationships, but also to incorporate positive psychology in the study of workplace relationships (Snyder & Lopez, 2002). Forgiveness may include prosocial psychological phenomena including accommodation, willingness to sacrifice, and willingness to forgo immediate self-interest, thus contributing to the welfare of another person and engaging in positive relationship interactions (McCullough, 2000).

<u>Conceptualization of Forgiveness</u>

The concept of forgiveness has been modeled in many different ways primarily because forgiveness can be viewed from several different perspectives. These different perspectives offer insight into the way forgiveness may occur and how there may be different motivations that facilitate forgiveness.

<u>Models of Forgiveness.</u> McCullough and Worthington (1994) summarize the developments in forgiveness and provide insight into four categories of forgiveness models. The first type of model is based on established psychological theories. The second type of model offers a typology of forgiveness. The third type of model is based on moral development. Finally, the fourth type of model is described by the psychological tasks encountered in the process of forgiveness. A description and example of the four categories of models are offered below.

Psychological theory based models base forgiveness in various theories including Freudian, Jungian (Todd, 1985), learning, cognitive (Droll, 1984), and existential. Psychological theories of intrapsychic process (i.e., internal psychological process) and personality have been used to help explain the value and function of forgiveness. Although there has been limited empirical research on these models, they offer insight into forgiveness for clinical utility (McCullough & Worthington, 1994).

Typological models use critical features of the offense to categorize phenomena recognizing the different types and levels of forgiveness. For example, Trainer (1981) offers a typology of forgiveness including role-expected forgiveness (as a result of fear or anxiety), role-expedient forgiveness (as a means to an end), and intrinsic forgiveness (as a releasing of negative emotions). Nelson (1992) offers a similar typology, identifying

forgiveness as detached, limited, or full forgiveness. These types of forgiveness offer insight into the various degrees of forgiveness. Bright, Fry, and Cooperrider (2006) theorize three types of forgiveness for workplace offenses: begrudgement, pragmatic, and transcendent. Begrudgement forgiveness is considered a form of false forgiveness or an illusion. Pragmatic forgiveness is viewed as forgiving out of necessity. For example, if an individual is offended by his/her boss and determines that forgiveness is necessary because one cannot change who his/her boss is or how he/she will behave. When forgiveness is granted as a life choice, Bright et al. (2006) entitled it as transcendent. Transcendent forgiveness offers positive benefits for organizations.

Moral development based models relate forgiveness to Kohlberg's (1976) theory of moral development in which researchers attempt to relate forgiveness to the stages of justice reasoning (Nelson, 1992; Enright, Gassin, & Wu, 1992; Enright et al., 1989). For example, if one is at the lowest stage of moral development, then that individual can only forgive if the offender has been punished. Enright et al. (1989) called this level of forgiveness "revengeful forgiveness". At the highest level of the six levels of moral development, one is able to offer forgiveness as love independent of what happens to the offender.

Task-stage models emphasize the phases that one must pass through to achieve forgiveness. Most models are consistent in that one must first recognize that an offense has occurred; second, make a decision to forgive rather that seek out other coping mechanisms (i.e., revenge); and finally, engage in the release of negative emotions, cognitions, and behaviors (McCullough & Worthington, 1994). In addition, most task-stage models note that there is no timeline to the duration of the forgiveness process

(Sells & Hargrave, 1998). These models differ from each other in the number of stages identified and what dimensions constitute 'true' forgiveness. Nevertheless, models such as these are useful in training therapists in how to help facilitate forgiveness (Kaminer, 2000).

An example of a model of forgiveness was presented by Enright and Coyle (1998). This model highlighted four basic phases in the forgiveness process. The first step identified is the uncovering phase, in which the victim recognizes the harm done him/her, acknowledges the anger felt, and attempts to create a new narrative. This is followed by the decision phase. In this second phase, the offended considers granting forgiveness and begins to experience a change of heart. In the third phase, the work phase, the offended reframes the event, possibly developing empathy. In the final phase, the deepening phase, the offended gains awareness that the negative affect, cognitions, and behavior have receded and are replaced with positive affect, cognitions, and behaviors. For an extensive review of forgiveness models, see Strelan and Covic (2006) and Walker and Gorsuch (2004).

Decision-based Forgiveness. Another conceptualization of forgiveness is provided by Worthington and colleagues. Worthington (2006) contends that there are two views of state forgiveness. Decision-making models offer that justice plays a central role and empathy-altruism models offer that empathy is vital for forgiveness to occur. Cognitive models of forgiveness propose that forgiveness is a decision; however, other models of forgiveness are based on emotions driving the willingness to forgive.

Decisional forgiveness is based on a statement of behavioral intention to let go of the offense and to treat the offender as before the offense. The offended makes the

decision to forgive; however, feelings of anger or resentment may still linger. In some cases, the decision to forgive may promote emotional forgiveness (Worthington & Scherer, 2004).

Emotional forgiveness is rooted in emotions and affects motivations (Worthington & Wade, 1999; Worthington, 2000) whereby the negative emotions are replaced by the positive emotions (i.e., empathy, humility, compassion, love) (Worthington, Sharp, Lerner, & Sharp, 2006). Worthington and Scherer's (2004) view of forgiveness is based on emotion-focused coping strategy based on the stress-and-coping framework. Furthermore, Worthington (2006) argues that decisional and emotional forgiveness are enacted in an attempt to remove unforgiveness.

Unforgiveness is defined as "a complex combination of delayed negative emotions toward a person who has transgressed personal boundaries" (Worthington, 2004:386). These negative emotions could be anger and fear. Furthermore, unforgiveness is theorized as developing over time as the perceived injustice gap widens as individuals tend to ruminate over the offending experience.

Forgiveness as a Weakness. The perspective taken thus far suggests forgiveness is a virtue that should be encouraged (Kurzynski, 1998). However, a review of forgiveness should also include the view of some that forgiveness can be a demonstration of weakness. Neitszche (1887/1927) for instance is well known for his claim that the practice of forgiveness is for the weak. Many laypersons appear to share Nietszche's view. Kearns and Fincham (2004) examined forgiveness through prototype analysis and found that many laypersons do view individuals who readily grant forgiveness as having potential weaknesses such as being viewed as a pushover, giving permission to the

offender to hurt once again, and swallowing one's pride. In the extreme case of forgiveness in relationships that are abusive, forgiveness is likely to prolong harm and to put oneself in continued danger. In deed, false forgiveness or temporary forgiveness may simply allow the transgressor to continue with the offensive behavior (Enright et al., 1998).

Furthermore, some victims may perceive that the costs of granting forgiveness are too high. One must forgo being the victim if forgiveness is to be offered. By granting forgiveness, victims may feel a loss of face, suffer from wounded pride, be unable to require concessions from the offender, or feel that they are making themselves susceptible to repeat offenses (Baumeister, Exline, & Sommer 1998).

There are many conceptualizations of forgiveness and the processes of forgiveness. Each adds a dimension to a greater appreciation of the power of forgiveness. It is evident that some conceptualizations offer insight for clinicians and can be very helpful in helping victims heal their hurt. Other conceptualizations offer insight for researchers who are attempting to understand the dynamics of forgiveness. Furthermore, to gain a better understanding of how forgiveness works a review of the antecedents provides additional insight.

Antecedents of Forgiveness

In an attempt to gain understanding of forgiveness, research has found support for many constructs relating to forgiveness. These include individual differences, personality traits and states, situational variables, and interpersonal dynamics. Each may uniquely contribute to an individual's willingness to forgive. Individual differences include age and gender. Personality traits include agreeableness, emotional stability, narcissism, and

self-esteem. Individual states include empathy, rumination and suppression, and defensive style. Situational variables include apology, offense type, and severity. Interpersonal dynamics include blame attributions, likeability, status, relational closeness, commitment, and satisfaction.

Demographics. Many individual demographics, traits, and states have been examined. Gender is one demographic that has been evaluated Researchers have claimed that in general, females have more forgiving tendencies than do their male counterparts. However, Worthington, Sandage, and Berry (2000) only found weak support for this claim. In addition, *age* has also been studied. Older individuals exhibit tendencies that are more forgiving (Droll, 1984).

Traits. Individuals displaying high levels of agreeableness and emotional stability are more likely to forgive (Brown, 2003; Berry, Worthington, Parrott, O'Connor, & Wade, 2001; McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001; McCullough, 2001; McCullough & Worthington, 2002). However, these findings were not supported in a replication study with a Nepalese sample, thus suggesting that national culture may influence forgiveness tendencies (Watkins & Regmi, 2004). Furthermore, Fu, Watkins, and Hui (2004) found that in collectivist cultures (i.e., China), forgiveness intentions were driven by social solidarity needs; unlike individualistic cultures (i.e., Western culture) that report forgiveness is related to individualistic personality variables.

Emotional stability is demonstrated by an individual's ability to not be overly vulnerable to negative experiences. Individuals high in this trait are found to be more likely to forgive than their less emotionally stable counterparts (McCullough, 2001).

Narcissism is defined as excessive love or admiration of oneself (Emmons, 1987). Narcissists take a very self-centered approach to dealing with offenses and are therefore more likely to forgo forgiveness. There appears to be a negative correlation between narcissism and seeking (Sandage, Worthington, Hight, & Berry, 2000) and granting forgiveness (Exline et al., 2003).

Studies on the relationship between self-esteem and forgiveness have found mixed results. A few studies have found that forgiveness and increased self-esteem are related (Enright & Coyle, 1998), whereas others have found no relationship between granting forgiveness and level of self-esteem (Tangney, Boon, & Dearing, 2005). Interestingly, Cox, Bennett, and Marler (2008) found that self-esteem was negatively related to both empathy and forgiveness. In this longitudinal study, it was found that a high level of self-esteem was related to lower levels of empathy, and empathy partially mediated the relationship between self-esteem and forgiveness.

Individual States. Individual states define how an individual reacts or feels at a specific point in time or about a specific event. This differs from individual traits in that traits are viewed as consistent behaviors and attitudes of an individual over time. Therefore, individual states consider how an individual may react when he/she encounters a workplace offense.

Empathy can be viewed as both a trait and a state (Lawler-Row, Younger, Piferi, & Jones, 2006). As a trait, empathy has been found to promote forgiveness tendencies. Women display higher levels of empathy than men do, although, this difference did not appear to further influence willingness to forgive. In this study, both men and women who reported having high levels of empathy were more likely to forgive (Macaskill,

Maltby, & Day, 2002). This finding would imply that although women express more empathy as a trait, they are not necessarily more forgiving. Empathy, as a state, has been strongly related to forgiveness, and the development of empathy during interventions helps to facilitate forgiveness (Enright & Fitzgibbons, 2000; McCullough et al., 1998; McCullough et al., 1997; McCullough & Worthington, 1994; 1995).

Worthington (1998) offers an empathy-humility-commitment model of forgiveness developed for family dyads. Forgiveness within family dyads differs from forgiveness of interpersonal offenses in other social settings in that a family will most likely have to continue to live and/or interact together. Therefore, forgiveness that can lead to reconciliation is often desirable and seen as necessary. Worthington argues that it takes both empathy and humility, the ability to put oneself in the offender's shoes, to deny self-interest, and to understand his/her motivations to facilitate forgiveness behaviors.

Rumination of an offense has been related to the desire for revenge and to the deterrence of forgiveness (McCullough et al., 1998; 2001). A longitudinal study revealed that individuals who ruminate about the offense and the offender appear to be more vengeful than others (McCullough et al., 2001). Bono and McCullough (2006) reported that rumination was related to greater revenge and avoidance behaviors, and to lessened benevolence toward the offender.

Situational Variables. The relationship between forgiveness and various situational variables has also been examined. For example, the severity of the offense has a negative relationship with forgiveness (Boon & Sulsky, 1997; Girard & Mullet, 1997).

When an offense or transgression is perceived to be severe, the offended is less likely to grant forgiveness.

The presence of a sincere apology or display of remorse is also positively related to forgiveness (McCullough et al., 1997; McCullough & Witvliet, 2002). McCullough and Witvliet (2002) propose that apologies may reduce negative affect, thus promoting empathy and further enabling forgiveness. Bennett, Cox, & Aquino (2008) also found support for the relationship between apologies and empathy promoting forgiveness cognitions and reconciliatory behaviors. However, not all research has found that apologies promote forgiveness (Zechmeister, Garcia, Romera, & Vas, 2004). Thus, these findings suggesting that intervening variables such as sincerity of the apology should be taken into account. Furthermore, if the offended attributes the offense as intentional and within the control of the offender, forgiveness is less likely (Al-Mabuk, Dedrick, & Vanderah, 1998; McCullough, Fincham, & Tsang, 2003).

Interpersonal Dynamics Models

Interpersonal dynamics models consider the influence of the offender's traits that may influence how the victim responds to the offense.

Blame Attribution and Likeability. Bradfield and Aquino (1999) examined the effects of blame attributions and likeability of the offender on forgiveness and revenge in the workplace. Basing their study on attribution theory and the theory of revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997), this study found that blame attributions influenced revenge cognitions, offense severity influenced attributions of blame, and offender likableness influenced forgiveness cognitions. When an offender is viewed as likable by the offended, the offended is less likely to attribute blame to the offender.

Status. One organizational construct that relates to forgiveness that has received attention is status. Aquino, Tripp, and Bies (2001; 2006) investigated the relationship of victim-offender status and victim's hierarchical status with coping behaviors. Aquino et al. (2001) found that both forms of status moderated the relationship of blame attributions and revenge behaviors but not reconciliation. Aquino et al. (2006) found that high-status victims were more likely to be influenced by procedural justice climate perceptions than low- status victims and were more likely to forgive or reconcile as a result.

Relationship Closeness. In general, when offenses occur in relationships that are high in relational closeness, commitment and satisfaction, the victim is more likely to forgive (McCullough, 2000). McCullough et al. (1998) found that the relationship between closeness and commitment was partially mediated by the ability to have empathy. The importance of the relationship has also been found to be significantly related to forgiveness (Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, & Slovik, 1991). Furthermore, forgiveness in these relationships appears to facilitate the restoration of the quality of the relationship after the offense.

Influence of Norms on Forgiveness

Many antecedents to forgiveness have been defined and empirically tested. However, yet to be empirically addressed are the influence of norms, culture, and climate perceptions. A few scholars have highlighted this gap in their reviews of forgiveness. For example, Worthington et al. (2006) proposed that situations activate social norms. These norms prescribe various behaviors and possible sanctions for violation of norms. Therefore, situations may hinder or advance the process of forgiveness depending on perceptual factors (i.e., climate) and individual characteristics. Furthermore, Droll (1984)

suggests that individuals in interpersonal relationships develop norms and that these norms are exhibited in the way that individuals deal with conflicts (i.e., yelling (contentious norms) vs. calm discussion of issues (collaborative norms)). These situational norms and whether the behaviors of others compare with the expected situational norms will influence the willingness to forgive. To date, one study has taken an initial step in addressing this gap. As mentioned earlier, Aquino et al. (2006) examined the influence of power (i.e., status differences) and procedural justice climate on the victim's coping responses.

Also rare are models that include norms and contextual factors of the external environment. In their review of the forgiveness literature, Sells and Hargrave (1998) concluded that culture should be evaluated as a predictor of forgiveness. Kaminer et al. (2000) offer an integrated theoretical model of forgiveness in which they highlight the importance of both individual and contextual factors that will influence the motivation to forgive. Individual factors include personality style, psychopathology, cognitive-developmental level, religious/philosophical beliefs, and perceived degree of suffering. The contextual factors include cultural norms and practices, nature of offense, time since the offense, offer of remorse/apology, nature of prior relationship, present contact with offender, immediate environmental rewards/sanctions, and justice. Kaminer et al. (2000) acknowledge that most of these factors have been examined; however, cultural norms and practices have yet to be adequately addressed.

The empirical part of this dissertation will attempt to offer some insight into norms and practices by examining the work-unit climate of an organization and how it may affect an individual's willingness to forgive a workplace offense. Many individual

factors such as affect, cognitions, and behaviors have been examined as to their role in forgiveness, however, there is a lack of empirical evidence for the assumption that one's environment can interact with personality traits, emotions, etc. in influencing ones' decision to forgive a transgression. This appears to be the next logical step in forgiveness research. Defining the construct while identifying processes are important endeavors to better understand forgiveness in the workplace and one must recall that forgiveness is complex. Perhaps part of the complexity is due to the perceived environment influences. The way we interpret the world is not by our innate tendencies alone; rather, it is through the interaction with our environment and those in our environment that we learn how we are expected to react unexpected events in our lives.

The workplace is a unique context which allows examination of the climate and how these perceptions can influence the choice to forgive rather than to seek revenge or to avoid. Organizations are created to accomplish goals that would not be possible if people did not work together. Because individuals must work together, relationships are formed. When individuals must interact with others over time, there is the risk of transgressions occurring. In the workplace, an offended employee must decide how to handle the offense. If interaction with the transgressor is required in order to maintain ones employment, avoidance may not be an option. Revenge is also often not a productive option and may result in further offenses or punishment by the organization.

Unlike other social situations where offenses occur, managers have the opportunity to alter the culture and climate of the organization. Although it is not an expedient process, it can occur over time. By defining what constitutes a climate of

forgiveness, this study may assist managers in determining where to focus efforts to adjust the variables that will create a more forgiving climate.

Organizational Climate

When Lewin (1935) first introduced the construct of 'social climate', he attempted to identify the dynamics that linked the general environment and human behavior. Lewin's theory proposed that "the 'atmosphere' or 'climate' was an essential functional link between the person and the environment" (Litwin & Stringer, 1968:37). Discussion of climate later appeared again in the literature in 1968, when Litwin and Stringer published a book on climate defining it as a molar (i.e., comprehensive or encompassing) concept that describes "the subjective nature or quality of the organizational environment. Its properties can be perceived or experienced by members of the organization and reported by them" (p. 187).

Over time, research has focused on a variety of outcomes associated with climate. Climate has been examined as to how it can influence motivations (Litwin & Stringer (1968); how it relates to role ambiguity and role conflict (Bedeian, Armenakis, & Curran, 1981); how it relates to strategic fit and firm performance (Burton, Lauridsen, & Obel, 2004); and how it relates to school district effectiveness (Turnipseed, 1988). In addition, many studies have investigated how climate interacts with other variables to influence performance (i.e., job satisfaction, job involvement, and commitment) (Parker, Baltes, Young, Huff, Altmann, Lacost, & Roberts, 2003). Climate research has provided useful insight into how individuals perceive their workplace environment and how these perceptions affect their behaviors and organizational outcomes.

What Is Climate?

Litwin and Stringer defined climate as "the perceived characteristics of the organizational environment that is shared by those that interact with each other within the organization" (1968). Schneider (1975) provided more insight when he proposed the following climate definition:

> Climate perceptions are psychologically meaningful molar descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedures. By its practices and procedures, a system may create many climates. People perceive climates because the molar perceptions function as frames of reference for the attainment of some congruity between behavior and the system's practices and procedures (p. 474).

In an attempt to clarify some of the 'fuzzy" aspects of climate, James and Jones (1974) reviewed the organizational climate literature and identified three approaches used to address climate with each offering its own view of the definition of climate. The first, a multiple measure, organizational attribute approach, defined climate as a set of enduring characteristics used to describe the organization, to distinguish it from other organizations and to influence the behavior of those within the organization. James and Jones (1974) stated that this definition of climate offers nothing more than what is termed "organizational situation" which includes the structure, leadership processes, rules, etc.

The second viewpoint, characterized as a perceptual measurement, organizational attribute approach, explained climate as the individual perceptions of those within the organization, which may govern the behavior of the individual. This is the form of climate that Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) studied. Building on this

definition, Campbell et al. (1970) identified four factors that should be included in climate: individual autonomy; structure/closeness of supervision; reward orientation; and consideration, warmth, and support. This approach differs from the first approach in that the perceptions about the organization are considered rather than the actual situation. The third method, the perceptual measurement, individual attribute approach, viewed organizational climate as a "set of summary or global perceptions held by individuals about their organizational environment" (James & Jones, 1974:1105). This view of climate posits that perceptions reveal an interaction between both personal and organizational characteristics. This approach provides for the global perceptions of the individual rather than distinct categories of perceptions.

From this discussion of climate, one can draw the conclusion that the definition of climate is likely to differ from one researcher to another and, agreement on the definition of climate is not simple when considering the different perspectives that researchers have taken. Furthermore, when defining climate there are several additional aspects to consider including how culture and climate differ and what are the dimensions of climate to be included in the study. When studying climate one must also consider which level of climate is to be studied and if climate strength should be considered.

How Do Climate and Culture Differ?

With the introduction of the construct of organizational culture to the organizational behavior domain, climate lost some popularity. This may have occurred for several reasons. First, according to Reichers and Schneider (1990), when introducing a 'new' construct there is pressure on researchers to differentiate their construct from existing constructs; however, researchers often fail to address the similarities that the

'new' construct may share with existing constructs. This appears to be the case for organizational culture. A review of the early culture literature will find that climate research is often absent from discussion (Reichers & Schneider, 1990).

Second, the methodology needed to assess climate was not readily available. Climate is a multi-level construct and should be analyzed by multi-level methods. Because the lack of mathematical capability to analyze the propositions offered, advancements in climate research were minimal. Furthermore, because climate can be measured at both the individual and the group level, terminology was needed to note these differences. Therefore, a third possible reason climate lost some of its luster is that the terminology for the construct varied from one researcher to another and confusion abounded as to what term referred to what measured construct, and at what level was the analysis being conducted. Terminology for the construct included psychological climate, collective climate, organizational climate, and organizational culture. In part, this caused climate and culture to become intertwined without a clear conceptualization of what each construct meant and what each construct could provide to the body of knowledge.

Although many have attempted to settle the dispute over the differences between culture and climate (e.g. Denison, 1996; Schneider, 1990), it appears that the misunderstanding and misuse of the climate construct continues. Some writers use the terms interchangeably, others argue that they overlap, and some continue to argue that each is distinct from the other (Glisson & James, 2002). In fact, Verbeke, Volgering, and Hessels' (1998) review and content analysis of organizational climate and culture identified 32 different definitions for climate and 54 different definitions for culture. These definitions were identified and collected by reviewing published articles from 1960

to 1993. Through content analysis, Verbeke et al. (1998) found that culture and climate could be distinguished. Climate can be viewed as the property of the individual and culture viewed as the property of the organization. Simply stated, climate refers to the way people perceive their work environment; whereas, culture is the way things are done in the organization. Others have concluded that culture persists over time (e.g., long-range view) and climate is an evaluation of these elements at any given moment (e.g. snapshot view) (McMurray, 2003). Turnipseed concurred with that view and stated that climate "is a much more dynamic and fluid construct" (1988:17) and therefore may be easier to change than culture of the organization.

Organizational culture has been defined as the shared beliefs, norms and values of those within the organization, whereas organizational climate is an individual's perception of the organizational environment (Denison, 1996). When culture first emerged on the scene, it was seen as requiring qualitative research methods, as being concerned with the long-term view of the system, and as attempting to gain a deep understanding of underlying assumptions. In contrast, climate research used quantitative methods, focused on the impact of the organizational environment on groups and individuals and attempted to identify and categorize the perceptions of the organization's members (Denison, 1996).

Therefore, the distinction appeared clear; however, debate within the field of climate research remained. Researchers continued to debate if climate was a) a perceptual measure of individual attitudes, b) a perceptual measure of the organization's attributes, or c) a combined measure of the organization's attributes and other objective measures (Denison, 1996). Denison's review of the culture and climate literature

addresses the concern that climate and culture may be conceptually different; however, it raised the question that culture and climate may not be examining distinct phenomena, but rather that they are address similar phenomena from different perspectives. Denison (1996) found that culture and climate have many dimensions in which they are compatible, such as their common views of the collectively defined social context, multi-level dimensionality, and the presence of sub-cultures/climates.

McMurray (2003) agreed with Denison (1996) that climate and culture are intertwined. Through examination of climate by quantitative methods and culture through qualitative methods, she found that as organizational culture evolves, it become intertwined with organizational climate perceptions. Although McMurray's (2003) study involved only one institution, her interpretive approach reinforced the belief that "the individual is the carrier of culture within an organization and it is the agreed upon perceptions of the behavio[u]ral manifestations of culture that provide the raw material for the organization's climate" (p. 7).

Summary. As several studies have demonstrated, there are distinct differences between the two constructs. First, each has different origins. Climate developed from Lewinian social psychology, whereas, culture developed from anthropological origins. This helps to explain the difference of the two constructs. Although they often appear to be defining the same phenomenon, each provides a unique perspective. In addition, the original methodology used to assess the construct differed. Climate has usually been assessed by using quantitative methods, whereas, early on, defining an organization's culture was accomplished using qualitative methods. Furthermore, the study of culture attempts to identify the underlying assumptions and values of the organization, while the

study of climate considers the perceptions of the workplace environment. Table 2.1

provides that chart of contrasting organizational culture and climate by Dennison (1996).

Table 2.1 Contrasting organizational culture and organizational
climate research perspectives.

Difference	Culture Literature	Climate Literature
Epistemology	Contextualized & Idiographic	Comparative & nomothetic
Point of View	Emic (Native point of View)	Etic(researcher's viewpoint)
Methodology	Qualitative field observation	Quantitative survey data
Level of Analysis	Underlying values and assumption	Surface-level manifestations
Temporal Orientation	Historical Evolution	A historical snapshot
Theoretical Foundations	Social construction; critical theory	Lewinian field theory
Discipline	Sociology & anthropology	Psychology

The culture/climate paradigm confrontation is likely to continue. As Denison

(1996) concluded from his evaluation of climate and culture, practitioners are likely to

use the term interchangeably and have already integrated the terms. For the purpose of

this dissertation, climate is the terminology used to describe the organizational members'

perceptions of their work environment. Because I am attempting to define a type of

climate (i.e., forgiveness) rather than to assess the organizational climate in its totality, I

will side with Victor and Cullen (1987, 1988), Turnipseed (1988), and Reichers and

Schneider (1990) in arguing that the type of climate I am assessing emerges from the existing culture of the organization or work group.

<u>What Are the Two Levels of Climate?</u>

Climate can be viewed from two levels, psychological and organizational. At an individual level, *psychological climate* refers to the individual group member's perceptions of the work environment. The psychological climate helps an individual make sense of the environment by interpreting workplace events, predicting likely outcomes, and determining the appropriateness of his/her own behaviors (Parker et al., 2003). Therefore, psychological climate is the property of the individual, and the level of analysis is that of the individual (James & Jones, 1974). Psychological climate is not aggregated; rather, analysis remains at the level of the individual. *Organizational climate*, a higher-level construct, is the average agreement or the shared perceptions of the members about the organization or work group (James & James, 1989; James & Jones, 1974; Schneider, 1975; Schneider, 1990). Therefore, when agreement is found between members of the group, their shared perceptions can be aggregated to measure organizational climate.

A review of studies on climate reveals that past researchers have not always used these terms as defined to establish the difference in level of analysis between psychological and organizational climate. For instance, Parker et al. (2003) stated that organizational climate has also been referred as collective climate, and organizational climate has been often misused to refer to the individual level of analysis. Collective climate differs from organizational climate, in that it is statistically generated by cluster analysis whereby individuals are grouped together by their similarities rather than by

their membership. Organizational climate measures use predetermined groups of organizations or workgroups and attempt to measure the climate of the group (Parker et al., 2003).

What Is Climate Strength?

The conceptualization of cultural strength as used in compositional models was proposed by Chan (1998). Borrowing from this research, Lindell and Brandt (2000) noted that members of organizations might have similar perceptions and beliefs; however, variance may exist among their perceptions. This variance provides insight into the strength of the organizational climate. Climate strength is predicted by the amount of agreement (i.e. lack of variance) found within the unit (Lindell & Brandt, 2000; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002). This type of measurement is called a dispersion composition model. Furthermore, it is thought that stronger climates will encourage behavior that is more consistent because there is less ambiguity of expectations among members within the organization.

Climate strength has been found to moderate the relationship between climate level and the outcomes under examination. For example, Colquitt, Noe, and Jackson (2002) found that climate strength moderated the relationship between procedural justice climate and both organizational performance and employee absenteeism. In addition, Schneider et al. (2002) found that service climate strength moderated service climate level and service quality.

Schneider et al. (2002) were among the first to introduce and to test climate strength as a moderator of the service climate and customer satisfaction relationship. They developed the construct of climate strength by relating it to Mischel's (1976)

concept of situational strength, arguing that 'strong situations are created when aspects of the situation lead people to perceive events the same way, induce uniform expectations about the most appropriate behavior, and instill necessary skills to perform that behavior" (Schneider et al., 2003: 221). Furthermore, in weak situations, people are less likely to perceive events, expectations, or necessary skills the same way. Therefore, if a climate is both strong and positive, it can be argued that consistent positive behaviors will be likely. If the climate is strong and negative, it is more likely that consistent negative behaviors will occur. When a climate is found to be weak, the behaviors of the individuals within the group are more likely to be inconsistent and highly variable with each other. In other words, the collective climate is not influencing the individuals' behaviors.

What Are the Dimensions of Climate?

Climate as a Molar Construct. Since the inception of the climate construct, researchers have attempted to develop sets of dimensions that encompass the perceptions of the individual about his/her workplace environment. Litwin and Stringer (1968) identified nine dimensions of climate and provided empirical evidence that different types of climates influenced different types of motivations related to McClelland's affiliation, achievement, and power needs theory. These identified dimensions of climate were structure, responsibility, risk, reward, warmth and support, conflict, standards, and identity.

Climate dimensions are numerous (Parker et al., 2003). In order to conduct a meta-analysis, Parker et al., (2003) used James and colleagues' (James & Sells, 1981; Jones & James, 1979) model which includes broadly defined dimensions of job characteristics, leadership characteristics, work group and social characteristics, and

organizational and subsystem attributes. Victor and Cullen (1988) summarized the various climate dimensions into two broad categories: aggregated perceptions of organizational conventions (i.e., rewards and controls) and aggregated perceptions of organizational norms (i.e., warmth and support). Ostroff (1993) classified climates under three broad dimensions: affective, cognitive, and instrumental. Similar to the work of Litwin and Stringer (1968), Schulte, Ostroff, and Kinicki (2006) attempted to define the dimensions of climate in a more comprehensive way and included manager support, company vision, open and clear communication, training focus, team focus, personnel support for services, rewards for service.

Specific Climates. When climate was originally introduced, researchers attempted to build a measure that was inclusive of all dimensions of the organization (i.e., a molar concept). A review of climate studies soon revealed that there are numerous ways to conceptualize the dimensions of the climate of an organization or a work group. Considering that it is possible to have numerous climate dimensions, Schneider (1975) suggested that there are many types of climates within one's organizational climate. He suggested that it is not necessary to measure all dimensions of climate, but only the ones that are relevant to the focus of the study. Furthermore, Carr, Schmidt, Ford, and DeShon (2003) agreed that climate should be studied at the appropriate bandwidth. For example, if job performance or turnover (i.e. broad individual level outcomes) is the focus of the study then there are multiple possible predictors and a molar climate measure would be preferable. However, if safety was the focus of the study, then a safety climate would be a more appropriate bandwidth to measure than the molar climate. The study of a specific part of climate and its relationship with a particular outcome may be helpful in gaining

insight into how interventions may be utilized to obtain the desired results (i.e., improve safety) (Carr et al., 2003: 614).

Researchers have pursued the study of a variety of specific climates. For example, a climate of innovation was studied by Klein and Sorra (1996), a climate of creativity was examined by Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, and Strange (2002), and a service climate was developed by Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, and Holcombe, (2000) and Wiley and Brooks (2000). Furthermore, climates of employee involvement (Richardson & Vandenberg, 2005) and empowerment (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004) have been presented in the literature and empirically examined. Three of these specific types of climate are discussed in more detail to help elaborate the scope of climate research.

Service climate is defined as "employees' shared perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures that are rewarded, supported, and expected concerning customer service" (Schneider et al., 2000). These researchers found that employees' perceptions of service climate were significantly related to customer satisfaction. Schneider and his colleagues (2002) found that climate strength moderated this relationship.

Procedural Justice Climate. Using the work group climate literature as a framework, Naumann and Bennett (2000) developed a procedural justice climate measure. They found that procedural justice climates, as an aggregate measure, did explain unique variance in the relationship between procedural justice and helping behaviors. This measure of procedural justice climate has been used to assess the relationship between this aspect of climate and important organizational and individual outcomes such as helping behaviors and perceived group performance (Naumann &

Bennett, 2002). More recently, Aquino et al. (2006) used another measure of procedural justice climate and found that procedural justice climate may serve as a moderator between status/power variables and coping behaviors of victims of workplace offenses.

Ethical Climate. Ethical climate has also been defined as one part or component of an organization's culture (Victor & Cullen, 1987; 1988; Victor, Cullen, & Stephens, 2001). Ethical climate is defined as a type of work climate that reflects the group's perceptions of the organizational procedures, polices, and practices and the moral consequences of committing a violation (Martin & Cullen, 2006).

Unlike many forms of climate, ethical climate has developed with a sound foundation and consistent measurement of the construct. Victor and Cullen (1988) developed the Ethical Climate Questionnaire (ECQ) to measure the ethical climate of an organization based on two dimensions: the ethical criteria used to make the decision (egoism, benevolence, & principle) and the locus of analysis (individual, local, & cosmopolitan). In strong ethical climates, where there is a strong-shared perception of what is ethical behavior, employees are more likely to choose ethical behaviors when a dilemma arises (Bartels, Harrick, Martell, & Strickland, 1998). Furthermore, Victor et al. (2001) state that an organization's ethical climate is determined by the firm's environment, the firm's form/structure, and the firm's history. Because of a sound foundation, ethical climate researchers have been able to establish relationships between aspects of ethical climate and important outcome variables.

Summary

The climate literature reveals that social environment may shape an individual's reactions to the work environment, perceived obligations, and behavioral expectations (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Climate can be viewed from many angles; however, there is agreement among researchers that climate is measured by assessing organization members' shared perceptions. Climate perceptions gauge the situational contexts, which influence the individuals' behaviors within that environment. Schneider and Reicher (1983) suggest three possible paths to developing group-level cognitions (i.e. climates): 1) shared meanings are developed through social interaction, 2) homogeneity is developed through attraction-selection-attrition, and 3) group members are exposed to the same policies, procedures, and practices. From Schneider and Reicher (1983), it can be concluded that one way climate can be developed in the workplace is by having social interaction. As members of the group interacts within the organizational context, perceptions of what is expected, rewarded, punished are developed, thus, influencing behavior.

Forgiveness Climate

Borrowing from the social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), it is proposed that employees' perceptions of their work environment are affected by both their personal judgments and social factors such as coworkers' cues. Social information processing theory posits "that individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behavior, and beliefs to their social context and to the reality of their own past and present behavior and situation" (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978: 226). For example, climate perceptions are developed as group members make judgments regarding their

own and coworkers' experiences of what is valued in the work environment. Furthermore, an individual's climate perceptions will influence his/her behaviors. Lewin's (1935) maxim that B = (f) P X S suggests individuals do not exist in a vacuum. When studying individuals' behavior, not only should the person (P) be examined, but also the situation (S) should be evaluated for the influence that it may provide in explaining additional variance. There is a notable gap in the forgiveness literature where the situation's influence has not been fully examined.

After reviewing past frameworks of organizational climates and the forgiveness literature consideration is given to what constructs may serve as antecedents to a forgiveness climate. What perceptions of the work climate can help to answer the question, "Should I forgive this offense?" Social interdependence theory provides helpful guidance in suggesting that the positive interdependence in the situation (i.e., work-unit) should be highlighted and used to help resolve conflict (Johnson & Johnson, 2005). Hence, consideration is given to elements of group dynamics that would promote positive interdependence to help identify what aspects of the organizational climate might also be expressions of a forgiveness climate, for example, a cohesive climate, a supportive climate, and a climate of trustworthiness.

The quality of relationships in the work-unit that will help facilitate the willingness to forgive a workplace offense also can be measured by other organizational climates such as cohesiveness, supportiveness, and trustworthiness. Although several different climates may contribute to a climate of forgiveness as antecedents, I make the argument that forgiveness climate can be assessed as a reflective measure with its own indicators. The construct 'forgiveness climate' is developed in this study to measure the

perceptions of the work-units of their collective willingness to forgive. Reflective indicators are developed to assess the climate of forgiveness within the work-units.

There are several decision rules that can be used to assess if a construct is formative or reflective (Jarvis, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). Use of reflective indicators assumes that the items used in the measure are representations of the construct and that the items are correlated (Jarvis et al., 2003). For example, an individual who reports perceptions of a highly supportive climate will also report perceptions of high cohesiveness and cooperativeness. In addition, a review of items previously used to measure these constructs demonstrates that many of the indicators used are very similar and overlap is present. Furthermore, the items appear to be similar enough that dropping one of the items from the measure would not change the construct because the items do share a common theme and are likely to share similar nomological networks (i.e., antecedents and outcomes).

On the other hand, formative measures should consist of indicators that are not expected to be highly correlated because each is measuring a different aspect or characteristic of the higher order construct. In addition, removing one indicator could leave a significant gap in the assessment of the construct (Jarvis et al., 2003).

Cohesive Climate

A cohesive climate is formed through shared meanings of a sense of connectedness that occurs from interacting with members of one's work-unit. Work-unit cohesion is defined as "the extent to which group members are attracted to a group, strongly desire to remain in the group, and mutually influence one another" (Naumann & Bennett, 2000: 882; Chen, Lam, Naumann, & Schaubroeck, 2005: 278). In strongly

cohesive groups, members identify with the group to the extent that self-interest is suppressed (Naumann & Bennett, 2000) and there is a willingness to behave in a manner that benefits the group over self. Studies have found that in a cohesive group, members are less likely to maximize self-interest over the interest of the group thus preserving the group's cohesive climate (Janis & Mann, 1977).

Supportive Climate

A supportive climate has been conceptualized in several ways. Anderson and West (1998) consider work-unit supportive climate and how it relates to encouraging innovation. However, a broad view can be taken that a supportive climate may be beneficial to all work-unit tasks, not only innovation. A supportive climate would include offering a helping hand when needed, assisting others with projects, sharing ideas that are beneficial to others in the work-unit, and having genuine concern for other members of the team. Having a work-unit climate with these supportive characteristics is likely to improve relationships between members of the work-unit. This may lead to valued relationships, which past forgiveness research has demonstrated are an important reason why individuals forgive workplace offenses (Bennett & Cox, 2006)

Trustworthiness Climate

Trust has been identified as a critical component of an organization's climate. It is viewed as an essential prerequisite of positive exchanges (Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). Trust is defined as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the other party will be able to fulfill his/her duties to the relationship (Mayer et al., 1995).

In order for trust to develop, three components must be present (Mayer & Davis, 1999). First, the individual or group to be trusted must have the *ability* to fulfill their obligations. Second, the individual or group to be trusted must have *benevolence*, or a willingness to do good toward each other. Third, the individual or group to be trusted must have the *integrity* to behave fairly toward each other. The perception that these three components are present would then provide evidence that within the work-unit there is a climate of trustworthiness. Individuals that perceive that they are part of a trustworthy climate may be more willing to forgo revenge and offer forgiveness when offenses take place.

Forgiveness Climate

Forgiveness of workplace offenses can have significant impact on the quality of relationships within the organization. There is a need for these relationships to remain functional in order for the organization to remain effective and efficient. As in all relationships where individuals interact with each other, at some point in time, one individual is likely to offend the other. As the amount of interaction increase, so does the likelihood of an offense occurring. Unlike social settings where individuals are allowed to choose with whom they associate, the workplace does not offer such freedom. Individuals that are offended often do not feel they have the option of abandoning the relationship because their job duties require continued interaction.

As previously noted, within organizations there can be multiple types of climate that exist and can be identified. One of these climates may be a climate of forgiveness. An organization or work-unit that possesses a climate of forgiveness would be perceived as a group that is willing to overlook offenses, not hold grudges, and work through

problems that may arise. In addition, there are likely to be other climates that influence the development of a forgiveness climate, these may include a supportive climate, a cohesive climate, and a trustworthy climate.

Therefore, the question asked is what dimensions of the organizational climate may influence the perceptions of the offended individual to value work-unit relationships and hence encourage forgiveness. Within this chapter, five possible dimensions have been reviewed. The forgiveness climate presented proposes to include high levels of perceived cohesiveness, support, and trustworthiness (i.e. ability, integrity, and benevolence). When individuals perceive their work-unit climate to be high in cohesiveness, support, and trustworthiness and a workplace offense occurs, it is more likely that the victims will be willing to forgive. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H1:   A supportive climate will be positively related to an overall forgiveness climate

H2:   A cohesive climate will be positively related to an overall   forgiveness climate

H3:   Each dimension of the trustworthy climate will b positively related to the forgiveness climate: (a) ability; (b) benevolence; (c) integrity.

H4:   An overall forgiveness climate will have a significant positive relationship with willingness to forgive.

<u>Individual Differences</u>

It is commonly accepted that behavior is a function of characteristics of the person and the environment (Lewin, 1935). In all interpersonal encounters, both the situation (as measured by climate) and the individual (as measured by personality and dispositions) play a role in determining how an individual will respond in an exchange relationship. These individual differences can moderate the climate/willingness to forgive relationship. Although there are many other individual differences that could be examined, the scope of this dissertation is limited to two individual differences: psychological collectivism and narcissism. One focus of this dissertation is that forgiveness can facilitate healing of damaged relationships, which are vital to organizations. These two variables were selected because of the effect that each might have on the value an individual places on workplace relationships.

<u>Individualism and Collectivism</u>. Exline et al. (2003) suggests that collectivist cultures will be more likely to assign higher value to forgiveness than those in individualist cultures. Parker et al.'s (2003) meta-analytic findings acknowledge that national culture may play a role in forgiveness. However, most of the samples in prior studies of forgiveness have been conducted in individualistic cultures and this could have an effect on the findings that work attitudes mediate the role between psychological climates and performance. Cultural differences affecting forgiveness responses have been supported by the findings of Fu, Watkins and Hui (2004) and Watkins and Regmi (2004) who both found the antecedents of forgiveness to differ in collective cultures than in individualistic cultures.

Not only have individualism and collectivism been studied at a country level, they have also been studied at the individual or personal level. (Kim, Shapiro, Aquino, Lim, and Bennett, (in press)) Because this study is examining work-unit culture, collectivism will be examined as an individual-level variable. Specifically, the willingness of an individual to be part of a group is examined. Psychological collectivism consists of five dimensions including preference to work in a group, reliance on a group, concern for the group, acceptance of the group's norms, and goal priority (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006).

> H5: Psychological collectivism will moderate the relationship of forgiveness climate and an individual's willingness to forgive. When respondents have high individual psychological collectivism, the relationship between forgiveness climate and an individual's willingness to forgiveness will be stronger than when respondents have low individual psychological collectivism.

Narcissism. Narcissism has been viewed as a self-centered, dominant, and manipulative interpersonal orientation (Emmons, 1987). Individuals who display high levels of narcissism often perceive themselves as being transgressed against more often than do low narcissistic individuals (McCullough, Emmons, Kilpatrick, & Mooney, 2003). Furthermore, the theory of threatened egotism and aggression posits that individuals high in narcissistic traits have a discrepancy between internal and external appraisals (i.e., how they perceive themselves and how others perceive them). Consequently, when faced with an ego threatening offense, these individuals are more

likely to act in an aggressive manner than are low narcissistic individuals (Penney & Spector, 2002; Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). Therefore, it would appear that a forgiveness climate would have little effect on how these individuals perceive and decide to cope with workplace offenses. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered:

> H6: An individual's level of narcissism will moderate the relationship between forgiveness climate and the individual's willingness to forgive such that the relationship between forgiveness climate and the individual's willingness to forgive will be stronger for respondents low in narcissism.

Willingness to Forgive as it Relates
to Other Outcome Variables

The study of forgiveness is carried one step further by relating willingness to forgive to several individual and organizational outcome variables. These include job satisfaction, job stress, organizational citizenship behaviors, and performance scores.

Over time, job satisfaction has received much attention in the organizational literature. Organizations strive to find new ways to increase and improve the satisfaction of their employees. Recognizing that job satisfaction is a desirable outcome for individuals in organizations and that positive outcomes (Schernerhorn, 1994) have been associated with job satisfaction, it is proposed that willingness to forgive will be positively associated with job satisfaction.

> H7: Willingness to forgive will be positively associated with job satisfaction.

Research has found that the unforgiveness has been associated with higher levels stress (Schernerhorn, 1994; Droll, 1984). Workplace offenses that are not forgiven may increase the perceived stressfulness of one's job. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered.

H8: Willingness to forgive will be negatively associated with job stress.

Organizational citizenship behaviors are behaviors that are viewed as not directly related to the job, yet help promote the effective and efficient operations of the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Willingness to forgive can be viewed as a positive behavior in the workplace and may be associated with other positive behaviors in the work place. Forgiveness may be recognized as a form of extra-role behavior; however, this does not signify that it should be considered as an organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered.

H9: Willingness to forgive will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.

Forgiveness has been associated with many positive outcomes in the social psychology literature and research; however, little research has attempted to link forgiveness to performance measures of the organization. Realizing that most work in the organization is interdependent and individuals must work together to accomplish organization objectives, it seems that forgiveness of workplace offenses could be beneficial to the efficient and effective operation of the organization. Efficiency and effectiveness are fundamental to organizational performance. Holding on to a grudge, ruminating, and desiring revenge would all seem to impede the flow of work in an

organization. In that forgiveness is viewed as having positive outcomes, the benefits of forgiveness may extend farther and influence performance of an organization. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered.

H10: Willingness to forgive will be positively related to performance scores of the organization.

Chapter Three provides an explanation of the methods used to conduct the empirical examination of the hypotheses offered.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLE

The objective of this chapter is to identify the methods that will be used to empirically test the hypotheses offered in Chapter Two. The chapter is divided into the following sections: (1) operationalization of the research variables, and (2) statistical methodology.

Operationalization of the Research Variables

Independent Variables

The focus of this study is to assess the influence of work-unit climate on willingness to forgive. Previous research has demonstrated that climate can be measured by adapting previously validated scales. Existing scales have been modified slightly to measure specific climate perceptions of a group, a team, or an organization. For example, Buunk, Zurriaga, Peiro, Nauta, & Goslvex (2005) created a cooperative social climate scale for groups/teams by summing four scales together including – supportive social climate, team cohesiveness, team membership exchange, and team satisfaction.

For this study, several established scales were modified to assess the organizational climate as it may relate to employee's willingness to forgive. Supportive climate will be measured using relevant items selected from the Team

Climate Inventory (Anderson & West, 1998). To measure the *cohesive climate,* the 5-item cohesive subscale of Koys and DeCotiis's (1991) psychological climate scale was modified to reflect the perceived cohesive level of the work-unit. Finally, trustworthiness of the work-unit members will be assessed using the three dimensional Mayer and Davis (1999) scale. Their three dimensions measure the perceptions of benevolence (6-item), ability (5-item), and integrity (7-item) of the group. To conserve space and to reduce the length of the survey, this scale was reduced to four items per dimension. Previous research using the shortened scales of the trustworthiness sub-dimensions reported acceptable reliability for the abbreviated measures (Collins & Smith, 2006). These scales are examined as possible antecedents to forgiveness climate. The scales items are presented in, Table 3.1, Table 3.2, and Table 3.3.

Table 3.1 Items for supportive climate.

---

1. We have a 'we are in it together' attitude.

2. People keep each other informed about work-related issues in the team.

3. People feel understood and accepted by each other.

4. Everyone's view is listened to even if it is in a minority.

5. There is a lot of give and take.

Table 3.2 Items for cohesive climate.

---

1. People pitch in to help each other out.

2. People tend to get along with each other.

3. People take a personal interest in one another.

4. There is a lot of "team spirit" among us.

5. I feel like I have a lot in common with the people I work with.

Table 3.3 Items for trustworthiness climate.

Ability

1. Members of my work unit are very capable of performing their jobs.

2. Members of my work unit are known to be successful at the things they try to do.

3. Members of my work unit have much knowledge about the work that needs done.

4. I feel very confident about members of my work unit's skills

Benevolence

1. Members of my work unit are very concerned about my welfare.

2. My needs and desires are very important to the other members of my work unit.

3. Members of my work unit really look out for what is important to me.

4. Members of my work unit will go out of their way to help me.

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Integrity

1. Members of my work unit have a strong sense of justice.

2. I never have to wonder whether members of my work unit would stick to their word.

3. Members of my work unit try hard to be fair in dealing with others.

4. Sound principles seem to guide members of my work unit's behavior.

Forgiveness Climate

An overall forgiveness climate scale was developed by generating items from focus group discussions regarding what a forgiveness climate might entail and by modifying items from established forgiveness scales to reflect employee perceptions of forgiveness climate. Items were modified to reflect group level perceptions about forgiveness. Eighteen items were generated. When responding to these forgiveness climate items, participants rated how much they agreed or disagreed based on a five point Likert-type scale. Selecting a "1" would indicate that the respondent strongly disagreed with the statement. Selecting a "5" would indicate that the respondent strongly agreed with the statement.

Item Reduction. In order to reduce the number of items for the forgiveness climate scale, data from a subgroup of the sample was subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The subset was composed of surveys that were eliminated from the data set because they were missing a school identifying number ($n = 99$). This meets the minimum required number of observation as set forth by Hair et al. (2006). Hair

and colleagues state that when conducting EFA that there should be at least five observations per scale item.

Prior to conducting the factor analyses, the appropriateness of factor analyzing the items was assessed. Barlett's test of sphericity, a test that evaluates the presence of correlations among variables, was conducted and was found to be statistically significant ($X^2 = 543.16$, df 45). In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin measure of sampling adequacy was .83, which is considered meritorious. Principal component analysis with Varimax rotation was used. Principal component analysis is commonly used when data reduction is a primary concern. A prior rules applied to the factor analysis were that each individual item must load on a factor at .4 or higher and the difference of the loading on the highest loading and second highest loading for the item must have a difference of at least .2 (Hair et al., 2006). Three factors containing a total of ten items remained after eight items that cross loaded were deleted. Items were deleted one at a time and the EFA was run again each time an item was deleted. Each time eigenvalues and scree plots were examined.

One factor was found to represent a forgiving climate adequately. Two other factors were also present in the final EFA results; however, neither seemed to theoretically contribute to the forgiveness climate construct. One of these factors included all of the negatively coded items and the final factor consisted of forgiveness climate items that did not appear to relate to one another. This factor structure may have been a result of an order biasing effect of having negatively worded items grouped together midway through the list of survey items. Future validation of this scale may attempt to randomize the items to avert this problem. It was determined that

the first factor would be the only factor used in further analyses. The items in the

forgiveness climate factor included, "We do not hold grudges," "We are forgiving of

each other's offenses," "We are willing to overlook most offenses," and "We are able

to work through our differences." Each of these items had face validity, as it appeared

to contribute to an understanding of what may encompass a forgiveness climate in the

workplace. Table 3.4 provides the factor analysis results.

Table 3.4 EFA results for forgiveness climate.

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
We do not hold grudges	.87		
We are forgiving of each other's offenses	.94		
We are willing to overlook most offenses	.90		
We are able to work through our differences	.80		
We avoid those who cause offenses		.82	
We hold on to negative feelings after an offense		.71	
We think offenders are annoying		.82	
We tolerate most offenses			.78
We let go of our anger against those who offend us			.61
We don't stay mad long after an offense			.72
Variance Explained	34.47%	20.99%	17.90%
Total Variance Explained			73.37%

Barlett's test of Sphericity	
$X^2 (df)$	543.16(45)
Signficance	.000
Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin	.83

Dependent Variables

The primary dependent variable or outcome to be examined in this study is 'willingness to forgive.' This study used scenarios to evaluate this outcome variable. Scenarios offer the benefit of controlling the relationship type and duration, offense severity, and offense type. Many forgiveness studies have used narratives or scenarios (Berry, Worthington, Parrott, O'Connor, & Wade, 2001; Berry & Worthington, 2001; Zechmeister & Romero, 2002; McCullough & Hoyt, 2002; Girard & Mullet, 1997) to evaluate individual's willingness or tendencies to forgive certain types of offensive experiences.

Although scenarios have been used in studies of forgiveness in intimate and family relationships, there is not an appropriative scenario-based measure for studying workplace offenses. In this study, scenarios were used to assess if the participant would chose to forgive if he/she were actually in the hypothetical situation described. Scenarios are used for two purposes in this study. First, scenarios allow the researcher to examine willingness to forgive without actually asking about real life offenses. Second, scenarios allow the researcher to control offense severity, time since the offense, offense repetitiveness, and offense type. Scenarios could also define the type and tenure of the relationship in the hypothetical situation. Furthermore, the problem of recall bias is mitigated. The procedure used to develop the scenarios for the willingness to forgive scale follows:

Focus Group

Groups of teachers were recruited to participate in a focus group discussion about offenses they had experienced at work. Focus group participants were each

given a token gift such as a University pen, notepad, or free coffee. Each participant was asked to recall and write down a brief description of two or three offenses that they had experienced in the workplace. If they could not recall one they had personally experienced, they could describe an offense they had witnessed. Each focus group member was asked to list at least one offense that they thought was forgivable and one offense they thought was unforgivable. Below is the scenario they were asked to describe:

> Think back over your time as an employee in your current/past organization to when you were offended by another person. Please write a two or three sentence description of the offense below.

To further facilitate the development of hypothetical offenses, members of the focus group were asked to verbally share their experiences with the group. This brainstorming technique was intended to help invoke recall of additional offenses. All information gathered from these focus groups was kept confidential. No names of focus group participants were attached to any of the data collected.

In addition to collecting accounts of workplace offenses, the focus group members were asked to describe the type of workplace environment that they thought would be a forgiving workplace. This part of the focus group exercise generated qualitative information about the aspects of workplace environments that may influence climate perceptions. I first described what was meant by organizational climate and gave examples of other types of climate (i.e., ethical climate or innovative

climate). Then I asked the group to think about a forgiveness climate. Responses from focus group members helped in developing the forgiveness climate measure.

Evaluation

Twenty-two scenarios were developed from the focus groups' responses. Nine expert raters then evaluated the twenty-two scenarios. They were asked to classify the scenarios as to the type of offense each scenario described and to rate the severity of the offense based on a scale of 1 to 10 where a "1" represented a minor forgivable offense and a "10" indicated a major unforgivable offense. From this pool of scenarios, six offenses were selected to be included in the full-length survey. These six included two from each type of offense: personal, goal obstruction, and norm violation (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006). The scenarios were selected based on the following criteria: (1) agreement on type of offense, (2) agreement that the offenses were not rated as extremely mild (since everyone would likely forgive these) or extremely severe (since no one might forgive those), and (3) variance in willingness to forgive. The second and third criteria are important because of the potentially sensitive nature of the offense scenarios and the risk of extreme loadings that could distort the covariance structure (Nunnally, 1978). Table 3.5 reports the rater agreement for the twenty-two scenarios.

Table 3.5 Rater agreement.

Scenario Type		% Agreement		Scenario Type		% Agreement
1*	Personal	.88		12*	Goal	.88
2*	Personal	1.00		13*	Norm	.88
3	Norms	.75		14*	Goal	.75
4	Norms	.50		15	Goal	.63
5	Personal	.88		16*	Norm	1.00
6	Personal	.75		17	Norm	.75
7*	Personal	.88		18	Norm	.50
8	Personal	.50		19	Norm	.88
9	Norm	.63		20	Norm	.75
10	Personal	.63		21	Norm	.75
11	Goal	.63		22	Goal	.63

* Indicates that the scenario was included in the final survey instrument.

Final Scenarios and Instructions

From the focus group data and the results gathered from the raters, six brief scenarios were finalized and included in the questionnaire to assess the influence of work-unit climate on individuals' willingness to forgive workplace offenses. This scale asked participants to read several brief scenarios about workplace offenses and to respond as to how likely they would be to forgive the offense, thus assessing the individual's willingness to forgive realistic workplace offenses. This scale uses a 5-point Likert-type scale where '1' is labeled 'not likely at all to forgive' and '5' is labeled 'extremely likely to forgive.' Respondents are asked to read each scenario and

to indicate their willingness to forgive as if they were in that situation. The total scores of each respondent will then be average to form one score to represent the variable, willingness to forgive. Table 3.6 provides the six scenarios that were used in the final survey.

Table 3.6 Workplace offense scenarios.

You share something embarrassing about yourself with a coworker who promises to keep the information confidential. However, that person breaks this promise when he/she proceeds to tell several people. You are humiliated.
One of your coworker starts a nasty rumor about you that is not true. As a result, people begin treating you differently at work.
Your organization has yearly performance objectives. One group member fails to carry out assigned duties that will affect your department's goals. This behavior will affect everyone's end of the year bonus.
One of your coworkers always dominates departmental meetings. This makes it difficult to hear others' opinions, and this person's behavior also usually causes meetings to run over the scheduled time.
You had hoped for a special assignment this summer and you shared this information with a coworker. However, when your supervisor asked for volunteers, you are not present. You later find out that the colleague in whom you had confided had volunteered for the position that he/she knew you wanted.
Repeatedly, one of your group members has to leave work for a 'family crisis or emergency' leaving you to do both your job and his/her job. One afternoon, your coworker leaves early for a 'crisis'. Later that day, you see your coworker shopping at the mall with his/her spouse. Apparently, there was no true emergency.

Willingness to Forgive Scale EFA. This scale was developed to assess the individual's willingness to forgive workplace offenses. Two scenarios for each type of offense were included in the final six scenarios included in the questionnaire. These six scenarios were subjected to an EFA using the same sub-group used for the forgiveness climate measure. Again, the appropriateness of factor of analysis of the

items was first assessed. Barlett's test of sphericity, a test that evaluates the presence of correlations among variables, was conducted and found to be statistically significant (X^2 = 1231.02, *df* 15). In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin measure of sampling adequacy was .84, which is considered meritorious. Principal component analysis with Varimax rotation was used. Eigenvalues and scree plots were examined. It was found that the scenarios all loaded on one factor. This EFA did not find significant differences in respondents' perceptions for the different types of offenses.

Other Outcome Variables. In order to assess the relationship of important individual and organizational outcome variables and the newly created willingness to forgive scale, other commonly used outcome variables were examined in this study: job satisfaction, job stress/tension, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and performance scores.

Job Satisfaction was examined as an outcome variable. Six words that were positive in nature were used to assess how satisfied the respondent was with his/her current job. The items asked if the respondent's job had made him/her feel happy, relaxed, comfortable, contented, enthusiastic, and satisfied. Responses were given on a 5-point, Likert-type scale of strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Job Stress/Tension can play a vital role in employee well-being. Job stress was measured by asking respondents to indicate, on a 1-5 Likert-type scale, to what degree they agreed or disagreed that five negative words (miserable, tense, anxious, fearful, and helpless) described their reaction to their work environment. These items were selected to parallel the job satisfaction scale used in the survey.

OCB was evaluated using Williams and Anderson's (1991) 7-item scale that assessed OCB directed at the individual. An example item for this scale is, "I help others who have been absent." Responses were given on a 5-point Likert-type scale of strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). Table 3.7 presents the items used in these scales.

Table 3.7 Dependent variable scale items.

Job Satisfaction	Job Stress/Tension
Happy	Miserable
Relaxed	Tense
Comfortable	Anxious
Contented	Miserable
Enthusiast	Helpless
Satisfied	

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

I help others who have been absent.
I help others who have heavy work loads.
I assist the supervisor with his/her work (when asked).
I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.
I go out of my way to help new employees.
I take a personal interest in other employees.
I pass along information to co-workers.

Performance scores were collected via existing public records. The schoolteachers in the sample were part of public school systems in a southern state that publishes individual school performance scores for schools on a yearly basis. These scores are a composite score based on student achievement on standardized tests, drop out rates, and student absenteeism rates. For this study, the data for the

individual schools were collected from the state's department of education accountability website: (http://www.doe.state.la.us/lde/accountability/home.html).

<u>Moderators</u>

Two individual difference variables were assessed and tested as moderators in this study. These are psychological collectivism and narcissism. Psychological collectivism was measured using Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, and Zapata-Phelan (2006) multi-dimensional scale. Overall, the scale is assessing an individual's comfort level when working in groups. Three of the five dimensions were used in this study. These dimensions included preference, reliance, and goal priority. Each subscale contained three items. Narcissism is an individual trait that may influence one's willingness to forgive. Narcissism has been determined to consist of four distinct dimensions. For the purposes of this study, only the exploitiveness/entitlement dimension was used. This subscale consists of 8-items from Emmon's (1987) multi-dimensional narcissism scale. Responses for both of these scales were given on a 5-point, Likert-type scale of strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). The items used in the survey for the hypothesized moderating variables are listed in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 Moderator variable scale items.

Psychological Collectivism

Preference

    I preferred to work in those groups rather than working alone.

    Working in those groups was better than working alone.

    I wanted to work with those groups as opposed to working alone.

Reliance

    I felt comfortable counting on group members to do their part.

    I was not bothered by the need to rely on group members.

    I felt comfortable trusting group members to handle their tasks.

Goal priority

    I cared more about the goals of those groups than my own goals.

    I emphasized the goals of those groups more than my individual goals.

    Group goals were more important to me than my personal goals.

Narcissism - Exploitiveness/Entitlement

    I expect a great deal from other people.

    I am envious of other people's good fortune.

    I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.

    I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.

    I have strong willpower.

    I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.

    I find it easy to manipulate people.

    I am more capable than other people.

<u>Control Variables</u>

Control variables are often needed because they may explain additional variance of the outcome variable that is not related to the independent variables. By using control variables, this variance is controlled; therefore, the relationships found between the independent and dependent variables can be more clearly understood.

The demographic control variables used in this study include age, gender, tenure, educational level and job type.

Age has been found to be positively associated with forgiveness. Darby and Schlenker (1982) first noted the relationship between forgiveness and age. As individuals age, they typically become more forgiving. This finding has been supported by other studies as well (Girard & Mullet, 1997; Enright et al., 1989). Age was measured in years as a continuous variable.

Gender has also been found to be associated with forgiveness. Women have been found to be more forgiving than their male counterparts are. Female responses were dummy coded with "1" and males were coded as "0".

Tenure was offered as a control variable because the strength and commitment of relationships may build over time, thus effecting forgiveness tendencies. Tenure was recorded in years working with the work-unit. Education level was measured with the intention of using it as a control variable if it was determined to be relevant.

Three personality variables were also included as controls. Agreeableness has been shown to be positively related to willingness to forgive. Furthermore, Emotional Stability/Neuroticism has been found to be negatively related to willingness to forgive (Brown, 2003; Berry et al., 2001; McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001;

McCullough, 2001; McCullough & Worthington, 2002). Abbreviated 4-item scales (Mini-IPIP) were used to assess agreeableness and neuroticism (Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006). In addition, forgiveness tendency was also included in the questionnaire as a potential control variable since some individuals possess an inherent propensity to forgive offenses. A 4-item scale by Brown (2003) was used to assess the respondent's tendency to forgive across situations. Figure 3.1 presents the hypothesized relationships to be tested and Table 3.9 lists the hypotheses for this study.
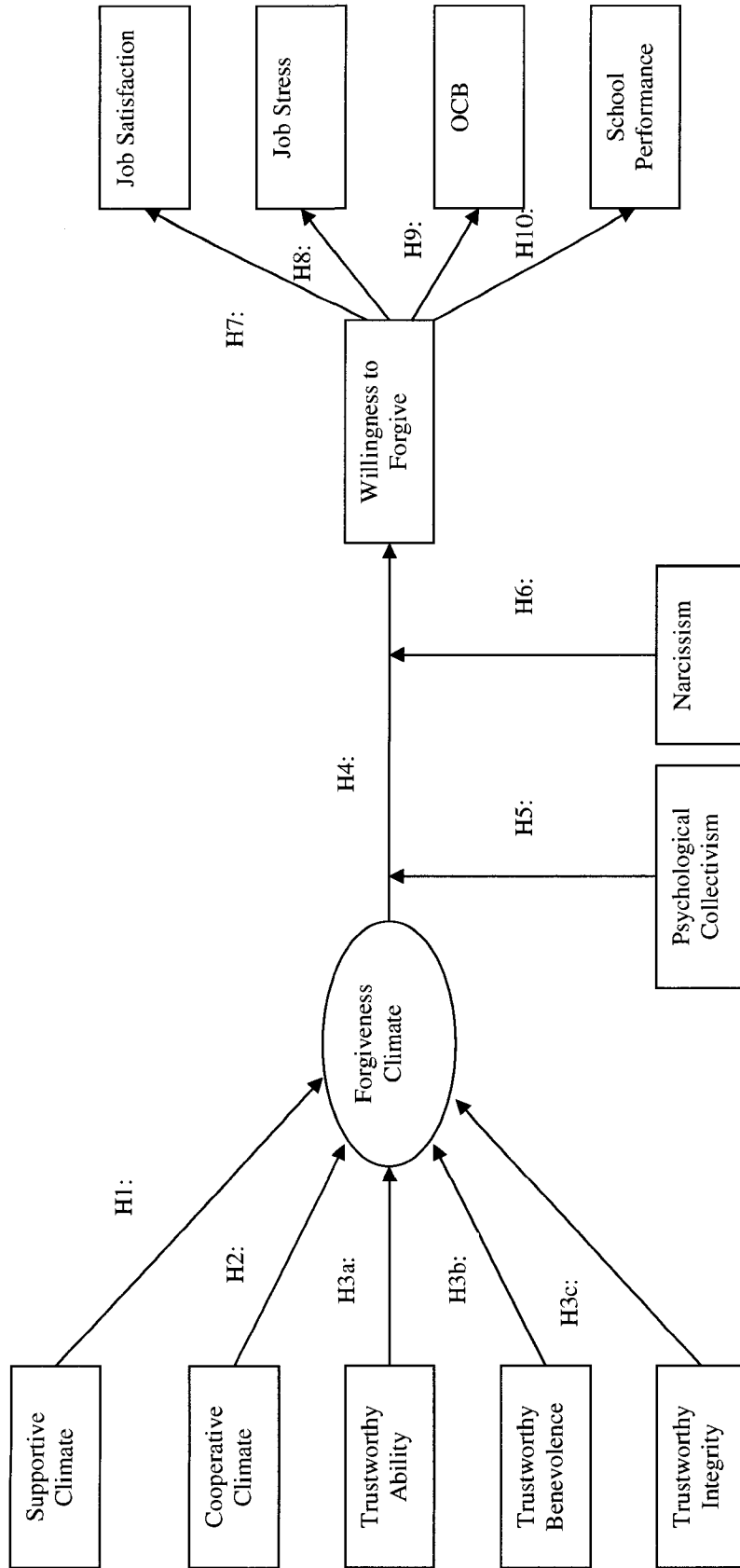
Figure 3.1 Forgiveness model.

Table 3.9 Hypotheses.

H1:	A supportive climate will be positively related to an overall forgiveness climate.
H2:	A cohesive climate will be positively related to an overall forgiveness climate.
H3:	A trustworthy climate will be positively related to an overall forgiveness climate. a. Ability b. Benevolence c. Integrity
H4:	An overall measure of forgiveness climate will have a significant direct effect on willingness to forgive.
H5:	Psychological collectivism will moderate the relationship of forgiveness climate and an individual's willingness to forgive. When respondents have high individual psychological collectivism, the relationship between forgiveness climate and an individual's willingness to forgiveness will be stronger than when respondents have low individual psychological collectivism.
H6:	An individual's level of narcissism will moderate the relationship between forgiveness climate and the individual's willingness to forgive such that the relationship between forgiveness climate and the individual's willingness to forgive will be stronger for respondents low in narcissism.
H7:	Willingness to forgive will be positively associated with job satisfaction.
H8:	Willingness to forgive will be negatively associated with job stress.
H9:	Willingness to forgive will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.
H10:	Willingness to forgive will be positively related to performance scores of the organization.

Procedure

Prior to collecting the data for this study, a request for a review of the focus group

and survey procedures and survey instrument by the university's Human Subjects Use

Committee was made. The committee approved the survey and procedures. Copies of

these letters are provided in Appendix A. The Human Subjects Use Committee requires that the participants complete an informed consent form. A copy of the consent statement is provided in Appendix B.

A third party online surveying firm was used to conduct the survey. Employees of school systems were invited to participate in the study by their school system superintendents. As a follow-up to the superintendent's e-mailed letter of appeal, either the human resource representative or the informational technology representative of the organization forwarded an e-mail from the researcher to all teachers in the participating school systems. The e-mail from the researcher contained the link to the survey. This method was employed to prevent the spam filters from intercepting the e-mail. Approximately one week later, a second e-mail, in similar fashion, was sent to remind teachers of the survey and to again ask for their voluntary participation. The online survey was accessible by the teachers for approximately three weeks. The e-mails informed recipients about the study and asked them to participate voluntarily by clicking on the link and completing the survey. Participants were informed that all data collected was to be kept confidential and that data would only be presented in aggregate. Furthermore, they were informed that no information that could reveal the identity of a specific respondent would be released to the participating organizations.

Data Collection

Six school systems were invited to participate in the study. One school system declined. Another school system did not have the technology available to use the online survey format. Therefore, teachers from four school systems across a southern state participated in an online survey. From the four school systems, 41 individual schools

were identified. These four school systems each exhibit unique circumstances. One school system was located in a mid-size urban area. Another school system was a newly created system and located in an urban area. The other two school systems were located in rural parts of the state, with one being in an extremely rural area.

Once the online survey was deactivated, the data were downloaded. Initially, a dummy variable was added to identify the school system where the respondent worked. Then another dummy variable was added to numerically code the specific schools within the different school systems where the respondents worked. This enabled the grouping of respondents by schools. A total of 1146 e-mails with a link to the online survey were sent out. Six hundred two completed surveys were received for a 52% response rate. Surveys were removed for the following reasons: (1) The respondent did not indicate the school in which he/she was employed, (2) current school performance data were not available, and (3) the respondent failed to complete a majority of the survey items. This resulted in 173 surveys being removed; resulting in a final number of completed matched surveys of four hundred twenty-nine.

Statistical Methodology

Several statistical tools were used to analysis the data. Exploratory factor analysis using SPSS was conducted to determine the initial dimensionality of the newly created scales and to reduce items that demonstrated low inter-item correlations. The results of this initial examination were used in subsequent analyses (Babin, Boles, & Robin, 2000). ANOVA was used to determine the feasibility of aggregating the data to a higher level. Finally, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the hypotheses offered.

SEM has the advantage of being able to estimate "a series of separate, but interdependent,

multiple regression equations simultaneously" (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham,

2006, p. 711).

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the effect of climate on an individual's willingness to forgive. This chapter will provide the results of this study. Chapter Five will offer a discussion of findings, conclusions, and implications drawn from these results.

Demographic Characteristics of Sample

The participants in this study were elementary and secondary schoolteachers working in public schools in one state in the southern United States. Of the respondents, 10% were male and 87.2% were female, 2.8 % failed to provide information concerning their gender. African Americans made up 22.4% of the total respondents and 73.7% of the respondents identified themselves as Caucasian. The remaining respondents were classified as other (.4%) and not identified (3.5%). The average age of the respondent was 42.2 years, (s. d. 10.46). The average tenure of the respondents was 6.58 years (s .d. 6.90). The education level of the respondents included 61.1% with a 4-year college degree and 38.9% with a Master's degree or higher.

Missing Data

Missing data, if severe enough, can be problematic for any type of data analysis. Therefore, all raw data should be examined to determine if the missing data is minimal

and nonrandom. Furthermore, since AMOS was being used for the SEM analyses and AMOS does not directly account for missing data points; an analysis was conducted to create a working data set free of any missing data. Only a limited number of data points were missing (less than 10 percent) and there was no identifiable pattern to the missing data; consequently, mean substitution was used to replace the missing observations. Mean substitution method simply replaces the empty data point with the mean value of the same variable. Because this method may reduce variance, it is not recommended if there is a large portion of data missing from any one specific variable.

<u>Descriptive Statistics</u>

The means, standard deviations, Cronbach alphas, and zero-order correlations for the primary sample are presented in Table 4.1. This initial examination of the data was conducted using SPSS. The significant correlations found in the chart demonstrate that most of the variables of primary interest in the study are statistically significantly correlated. Only one control variable appeared to be strongly correlated to the outcome variables in the study. Forgiveness tendency was found to be correlated with all five outcome variables. As a result of these findings, only forgiveness tendency was used as a control variable in the structural equation measurement model.

Table 4.1 Descriptives and correlation table.

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Performance Scores	81.72	20.39												
2.Willingness to Forgive	3.00	.80	-.10*	(.87)										
3.OCB	4.27	.48	.06	.18**	(.86)									
4.Job Satisfaction	3.61	.79	.03	.24**	.29**	(.92)								
5.Job Stress	2.19	.76	-.07	-.20**	-.11	-.58**	(.80)							
6.Cohesive/Supportive Climate	3.86	1.00	.18**	.08	.22**	.42**	-.30**	(.96)						
7.Trustworthiness Climate Ability	4.21	.85	.20**	.13**	.21**	.29**	-.20**	.64**	(.96)					
8.Trustworthiness Climate Benevolence	3.65	1.03	.19**	.21**	.28**	.39**	-.23**	.72**	.70**	(.95)				
9.Trustworthiness Climate Integrity	3.83	.97	.19**	.21**	.27**	.39**	-.26**	.72**	.73**	.84**	(.94)			

Table 4.1 (Continued)

Variable	Mean	s.d	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
10.Forgiveness Climate	3.68	.89	.14**	.23**	.27**	.43**	-.28**	.60**	.49**	.61**	.64**	(.93)		
11.Psychological Collectivism	3.58	.77	.12*	.19**	.32**	.24**	-.05	.41**	.40**	.46**	.46**	.26**	(.91)	
12.Narcissism – Arrogance	2.20	.68	.00	-.15**	-.06	-.17**	.21**	-.09	-.14**	-.11*	-.12*	-.12*	-.13*	(.63)
13.Forgiveness Tendency	3.52	.74	.01	.41**	.18**	.23**	-.30**	.13**	.14**	.20**	.20**	.21**	.17**	-.23**
14.Agreeableness	4.17	.56	.00	.17**	.40**	.30**	-.13**	.12*	.15**	.19**	.20**	.12*	.25**	-.22**
15.Emotional Stability	3.58	.66	-.02	.26**	.20**	.33**	-.35**	.07	.06	.13**	.13**	.13**	-.10	-.22**
16.Age	42.23	10.46	-.01	.05	.08	.17**	-.15**	.03	.07	.01	.07	.02	.05	-.09
17.Gender	.90	.30	.08	-.04	.06	-.03	.05	.00	.05	-.01	-.01	.02	.09	-.22**
18.Race	na	na	.22**	-.14**	.07	-.08	.07	.12*	.13**	.10*	.13**	.08	.06	.07
19.Tenure	6.58	6.90	.05	.03	.11*	.10*	-.08	.01	-.03	.05	.02	.04	-.02	.00
20.Education	na	na	-.01	.00	-.04	-.01	.04	.01	-.00	.02	.02	.05	-.01	.06

Table 4.1 (Continued)

Variable	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
13.Forgiveness Tendency	(.74)						
14.Agreeableness	.19**	(.67)					
15.Emotional Stability	.48**	.21**	(.61)				
16.Age	.14**	.20**	.14**				
17.Gender	-.05	.11*	-.07	-.01			
18.Race	-.13**	-.02	-.11*	-.05	.03		
19.Tenure	.11**	-.10*	.07	.41**	-.08	-.12*	
20.Education	-.04	.02	.05	.06	-.04	.02	.06

* = p < .05; ** = p<.01
n = 429
alphas are reported on the diagonal

Assessing the Appropriateness of
Multi-Level Analysis

Prior to conducting analysis, the data was evaluated to determine if multi-level

analysis was appropriate. As previously stated, one of the objectives of this dissertation

was to examine the effects of school climate at the group level on the individual's

willingness to forgive. However, after examination of the data to determine if

aggregation was appropriate, it was determined that group agreement did not meet the

standard for aggregation. The determination was made by calculating the intra-class

correlation coefficients ICC(1) and ICC(2) using the one-way random-effects ANOVA

(Bliese, 2000). These measures test the relative consistency of the responses among

raters as expressed by deviations from the overall mean. ICC(1) is a measure of the inter-

rater reliability (i.e., the extent to which rater are substitutable) (James, 1982) and is

determined to be justifiable if the F-test is significant. ICC(2) assesses the reliability of

the group means (James, 1982) The acceptable value for ICC(2) is .7 (Klein et al., 2000).

Having an ICC(2) value above .7 indicates that there appears to be differences between

groups; whereas, a value below .7 indicates that the groups may be too similar. The

results of the calculations for the ICC(2) ranged between .56 and .61. Thus, there appears

to be significant within-group agreement; however, there does not appear to be the

significantly reliable mean value differences between groups needed to detect emerging

relationships. The results of ICC(1) and ICC(2) are stated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Results of ICC(1) and ICC(2).

Variable	ICC(1)	ICC(2)
Cohesive/Supportive	.13*	.61
Trustworthy- Ability	.11*	.58
Trustworthy-Benevolence	.11*	.56
Trustworthy-Integrity	.13*	.61
Forgiveness Climate	.11*	.57

Therefore, after examination of the data and the feasibility to aggregate indicators, it was determined that aggregation was not appropriate. As a result the data was analyzed at the individual level. In climate research, this is referred to as analysis at the psychological level. Climate is measured by the perceptions of the individual of the *group's* belief and behaviors. The items for the survey were written so that the individual is assessing group perceptions. For example, one of the forgiveness climate items asked how strongly the individual agrees with the statement "We do not hold grudges". Data can be analyzed by either aggregating the individual group member's responses or relying on the individual's perceptions of the group. When aggregation of the data is not appropriate, then analyses at the individual level can be conducted.

Structural Equation Modeling

For testing the hypotheses, a two-step SEM process is used. First, the proposed measurement model was tested for fit and construct validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1992). This measurement model also provided the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the scales used in the study. After a satisfactory measurement model was obtained, the structural theory was tested. This process is viewed as a better method than only testing

the structural model (Hair et al., 2006). By assessing the measurement model first, the researcher is able to ensure that the measures used in the study are adequate. Furthermore, the CFA provides a good basis for understanding the structural model results.

Measurement Model Validation
with CFA

As a first step, an EFA was conducted on scales that would be used in the measurement model. All previously validated scales' factors loaded as expected with the exception of cohesive/supportiveness climate scale and trustworthiness-benevolence. For each of these scales, one item was dropped to improve the reliability of the scale. In addition, although the cohesive/supportiveness climate was derived from two different scales it was determined that these two scales were highly correlated and should be evaluated as one scale. Examination of the items for face validity revealed that the items from each scale appeared to be related. In addition, the correlation between the two original scale items was .96. Furthermore, CFA was conducted to test if one latent variable or two was a better fit for the scale items. It was found that one latent variable formed a better fit due to the lower chi-square value obtained for the one latent variable model.

After this initial investigation, the measurement model was constructed and tested for content validity. Four important components were assessed. Convergent validity was evaluated by examination of the factor loadings. All factor loadings appeared to be higher than the .5 guideline and all were statistically significant. In addition, the variance extracted was calculated for each construct. Only two constructs, job stress and forgiveness tendencies, fell below the .5 rule of thumb. A construct that has variance

extracted below .5 signifies that more error remains in the items than variance explained and may be problematic. Furthermore, the convergent validity of these two scales, job stress and forgiveness tendencies, is low. The variance extracted is report in Table 4.3.

Reliability, an indication of internal consistency, was assessed by calculating the construct reliability (CR) value for each construct. A value of .7 or higher is desirable. Acceptable values were found for all variables. Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the variance extracted percentages of the constructs with the square of the correlation estimate between the constructs. This comparison yielded no problematic constructs. All constructs had variance extracted percentages higher that the squared correlation estimate of the construct being examined.

The next step was to assess the adequate fit of the measurement model. Three fit indices were reviewed to determine if there was adequate fit. For an Absolute Fit Measure, chi-square was used for the assessment. For the overall measurement model, the chi-square was 2597.97 (df 1229). The p-value associated with this result was .000. This is a significant value of p using a Type I error rate of .05. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was used for the incremental fit index. The CFI for this overall measurement model was .92. The RMSEA is used as an absolute fit index. The RMSEA for the overall measurement model was .051. Using a 90% confidence interval for this RMSEA, the true value of RMSEA can be concluded to between .048 and .054. As a rule of thumb for the sample size and the number of constructs used in this study, the CFI should be greater than .90 and the RMSEA should be less than .07 (Hair et al., 2006). These findings are within the generally accepted guidelines, thus the CFA results suggest that.

Table 4.3 CFA results of standardized measurement coefficients from confirmatory factor analysis.[a]

	Construct									
	CSC	TWC-A	TWC-B	TWC-I	FC	TF	JSat	JStr	OCB	WF
Cohesive/Supportive Climate (CSC)										
We have a 'we are in it together' attitude.	0.85									
People keep each other informed about work-related issues in the team.	0.75									
People feel understood and accepted by each other.	0.88									
Everyone's view is listened to even if it is in a minority.	0.79									
There is a lot of give and take.	0.81									
People pitch in to help each other out.	0.87									
People tend to get along with each other.	0.84									
People take a personal interest in one another.	0.87									
There is a lot of "team spirit" among us.	0.91									
Trustworthiness Climate										
Ability (TWC-A)										
Members of my work unit are very capable of performing its job.		0.92								
Members of my work unit are known to be successful at the things they try to do.		0.91								
Members of my work unit have much knowledge about the work that needs done.		0.92								
I feel very confident about members of my work unit's skills.		0.93								

Table 4.3 (Continued)

Construct

	CSC	TWC-A	TWC-B	TWC-I	FC	TF	JSat	JStr	OCB	WF
Benevolence (TWC-B)										
Members of my work unit are very concerned about my welfare.			0.92							
My needs and desires are very important to the other members of my work unit.			0.96							
Members of my work unit really look out for what is important to me.			0.94							
Integrity (TWC-I)										
Members of my work unit have a strong sense of justice.				0.89						
I never have to wonder whether members of my work unit would stick to their word.				0.86						
Members of my work unit try hard to be fair in dealing with others.				0.91						
Sound principles seem to guide members of my work unit's behavior.				0.91						
Forgiveness Climate (FC)										
We do not hold grudges.					0.88					
We are forgiving of each other's offenses.					0.93					
We are willing to overlook most offenses.					0.86					
We are able to work through their differences.					0.85					

Table 4.3 (Continued)

| | Construct | | | | | | | | | |
	CSC	TWC-A	TWC-B	TWC-I	FC	TF	JSat	JStr	OCB	WF
Tendency to Forgive (TF)										
I tend to get over it quickly when someone hurts my feelings.						0.60				
If someone wrongs me, I often think about it a lot afterward (R)						0.63				
I have a tendency to harbor grudges (R)						0.77				
When people wrong me, my approach is just to forgive and forget.						0.60				
Job Satisfaction (JSat)										
Happy							0.84			
Relaxed							0.68			
Comfortable							0.85			
Contented							0.91			
Enthusiastic							0.81			
Satisfied							0.80			
Job Stress (JStr)										
Miserable								0.77		
Tense								0.68		
Anxious								0.61		
Fearful								0.59		
Helpless								0.67		
OCB										
I help others who have been absent.									0.65	
I help others who have heavy work loads.									0.67	
I assist the supervisor with his/her work (when asked).									0.59	

Table 4.3 (Continued)

Construct

	CSC	TWC-A	TWC-B	TWC-I	FC	TF	JSat	JStr	OCB	WF
OCB cont.										
I take time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.									0.74	
I go out of my way to help new employees.									0.71	
I take a personal interest in other employees.									0.78	
I pass along information to co-workers.									0.71	
Willingness to Forgive (WF)										
Scenario One										0.78
Scenario Two										0.79
Scenario Three										0.78
Scenario Four										0.58
Scenario Five										0.75
Scenario Six										0.65
Variance Extracted	0.71	0.84	0.88	0.79	0.77	0.42	0.67	0.44	0.48	0.53

[a] chi-squared = 2597.97, 1229 degrees of freedom (p< .000), CFI = .92, RMSE = .051

the measurement model provides a reasonably good fit. Table 4.3 provides the standardized measurement coefficients from the confirmatory factor analysis

Structural Model Testing

After the measurement model was tested and was found to be adequate, a structural model was developed to test the hypotheses of the study. The results of the fit assessments for this model and the measurement model are reported in Table 4.4. In addition, Figure 4.1 reports the significant standardized estimates for each relationship.

Table 4.4 Fit indices for measurement model and structural model.

	Null Model	Measurement Model	Model 1
Chi-Square	19220.16	2597.97	3031.45
df	1326	1229	1306
CMIN/df	14.50	2.11	2.32
GFI	.14	.81	.84
CFI	.00	.92	.90
RMSEA	.175	.051	.056

In general, the results of the structural model supported most of the hypotheses. From these results, Hypothesis 1 and 2 are found to be supported ($B = .26, p < .00$). These hypotheses suggested that a supportive/cohesive climate will be positively related to an overall forgiveness climate. Hypothesis 3 stated that a trustworthy climate would be positively related to an overall forgiveness climate. This hypothesis was partially supported. A significant positive relationship between trustworthy-integrity and forgiveness climate was found ($B = .42, p < .00$). However, no significant relationships

were found between trustworthy-ability ($B = -.08$, $p < .24$) or trustworthy-benevolence ($B = .13$, $p < .15$) and forgiveness climate.

The results of the study supported Hypothesis 4 ($B = .16$, $p < .00$), in which an overall measure of forgiveness climate was found to be significantly related to willingness to forgive. Furthermore, hypotheses seven, eight, and nine were all supported. Hypothesis seven stated that willingness to forgive will be positively associated with job satisfaction ($B = .31$, $p < .00$). Hypothesis eight stated the willingness to forgive will be negatively associated with job stress ($B = -.27$, $p < .00$). And Hypothesis nine stated that willingness to forgive will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors ($B = .24$, $p < .00$). Hypothesis 10 was not supported in the predicted direction; however, a significant negative relationship between willingness to forgive and performance scores of the schools was found ($B = -.10$, $p < .06$).
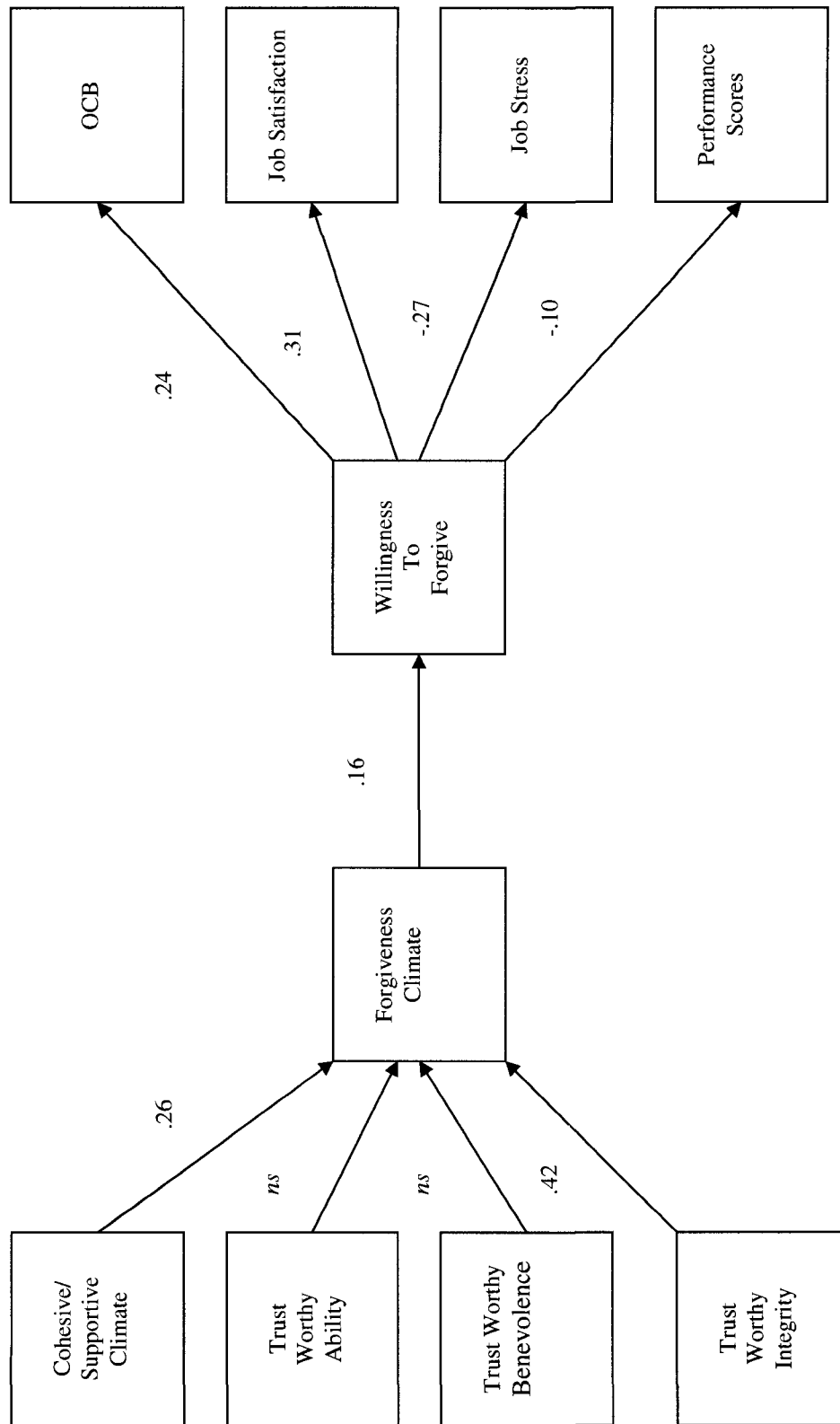
Figure 4.1 Structural model standardized estimates.

Moderation Hypothesis Testing

Two variables were examined as potential moderators of the relationship of forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive. These two moderators were psychological collectivism and narcissism. Hypothesis five stated that psychological collectivism would moderate the relationship of forgiveness climate and an individual's willingness to forgive. When respondents have high levels of psychological collectivism, the relationship between forgiveness climate and their willingness to forgive will be stronger than when respondents have low psychological collectivism. To test for moderation, the sample was divided into high and low psychological collectivism groups. To determine how these groups were formed, the mean for the moderating variable was calculated. Then approximately 15% percent of the cases above the mean and 15% of the cases below the mean were removed or about one-third (Hair et al., 2006).

Multiple group analysis in AMOS was used to test if there was a significant difference between those that reported a high preference for working in groups and those that reported a low preference for working in groups. To determine if a significant difference existed, a constrained model's chi-squared was compared to the unconstrained model's chi-square. In the constrained model, a constraint was added to the model by setting the path from forgiveness climate to willingness to forgive as equal between the two groups. In the unconstrained model the estimates were freely estimated in each group. The two models were then tested. No significant difference was found between the chi-squares of the unconstrained and constrained models ($p < .25$). Therefore, support for psychological collectivism as a moderator of the relationship between forgiveness climate

and willingness to forgive was not found. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Test for moderation – psychological collectivism.

	Total Free Model	Forg Climate → Will to Forg	Change X^2
		Is Equal	
X^2	4574.51	4575.83	1.31
df	2612	2613	1
CFI	.85	.85	
RMSEA	.05	.05	

The second moderator variable examined was the personality characteristic of narcissism. Hypothesis six stated that an individual's level of narcissism will moderate the relationship between forgiveness climate and the individual's willingness to forgive such that the relationship between forgiveness climate and the individual's willingness to forgive will be stronger for respondents low in narcissism. The same procedure of dividing the sample into a high and a low group was followed as suggested by Hair et al. (2006). The chi-squared difference between the two models was insignificant ($p < .83$), suggesting that the relationships are the same in each group. From this analysis, Hypothesis six was not found to be supported. The results of this analysis were that narcissism did not moderate the relationship between forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Test for moderation – narcissism.

	Total Free Model	Forg Climate → Will to Forg	Change X^2
		Is Equal	
X^2	4589.93	4589.97	.04
df	2612	2613	1
CFI	.96	.96	
RMSEA	.05	.05	

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the empirical results of the study. The techniques used to analyze the data were described and results for the testing of each hypothesis were provided. The following chapter provides a discussion of these findings, outlines limitations of the study, and highlights areas for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the findings from the empirical analyses presented in Chapter IV, to discuss the implications and limitations of the study, and to offer potential areas of future research.

The overall objective of this dissertation was to explore the relationship between the specific aspects of organizational climate, forgiveness climate, and the individual's willingness to forgive. In addition, the relationship with willingness to forgive and organizational outcomes was examined. In order to examine these relationships, two scales were developed. The 4-item forgiveness climate scale was developed to assess the perceptions of the members of the organization about how those within the organization handled offenses. The 6-item willingness to forgive scenario-based scale was developed to assess an individual's willingness to forgive various workplace offenses. These scales were included in a more comprehensive model that explored the relationships between other relevant organizational climates and forgiveness climate and the relationships between willingness to forgive and various workplace outcomes. This model was tested using structural equation modeling.

In general, the results of this study supported the majority of the hypotheses tested. Four antecedents to forgiveness climate were examined. Of these four antecedents two were found to be significantly related to forgiveness climate.

Cohesive/supportive climate and trustworthy-integrity climate were found to be related to forgiveness climate. Two sub-dimensions of trustworthiness, ability and benevolence, were not found to be significantly related to a forgiveness climate. For individuals to view others in the organization as forgiving it appears that having cohesive/supportive and integrity climates help to facilitate this perception. This finding may indicate that the perception of forgiveness of others may be developed by honesty and strong character that is present in the integrity sub-dimension of trustworthiness. In addition, a caring, close-knit climate results in greater forgiveness climate and hence greater forgiveness. When offenses do occur, these individuals are more likely to forgive and work out their differences.

Support was found for the presence of forgiveness climate being related to willingness to forgive. Two moderators were tested for the relationship between forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive. Empirical results found that psychological collectivism and narcissism did not moderate this relationship. However, these findings should not be construed to rule out the role of either psychological collectivism or narcissism in the nomological network of workplace forgiveness. These results simply do not support the moderating effect of either variable in the direct relationship of forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive.

Willingness to forgive was found to be related to both positive and negative outcomes in the organization. These positive outcomes include higher job satisfaction, lower job stress, and increased organizational citizenship behaviors. One interesting yet counterintuitive finding was that willingness to forgive was significantly negatively related to organizational (school) performance scores. Although this was not the

anticipated finding, there is some rationale why this may occur. In organizations, individuals that break rules or violate norms need to be held accountable. If an individual feels that all will be forgiven no matter what behaviors he or she may engage in, the individual may decide to slack off or to behave in a destructive manner. Too much forgiveness and no accountability may lead to poor performance. Having a workplace climate that is too lax and too forgiving is not necessarily good for organizations wanting to improve performance. In the future, researchers studying forgiveness climate should also assess whether the organization also has an accountability climate.

Managerial Applications

Considering the cost of hiring, training, and managing the workforce, it would seem imperative that management would be concerned with maintaining healthy relationships within the workplace. As the nature of work shifts from manufacturing to service and knowledge work, employees are required to interact more with each other; therefore, the opportunity for disagreements to occur increases. Additionally, the shift to faster paced, leaner staffed, and competitive work environments and the greater diversity in the workplace of today can increase pressure and stress on employees and result in more offenses transpiring.

Therefore, recognizing that workplace offenses can destroy relationships and that forgiveness provides an opportunity to restore broken relationships, there are several practical implications that can be drawn from the study presented in this dissertation. Managers should consider how organizational climate, and, in particular, what specific aspects of organizational climate, will enhance the forgiveness of interpersonal offenses in the workplace. If the organizational climate is not conducive to forgiveness, then

organizational management teams should consider strategic changes in the organizational culture that may facilitate a climate where forgiveness is granted when appropriate. Specifically, organizational climate should facilitate forgiveness that can help promote interpersonal relationships that encourage the effective and efficient attainment of the organization's goals and objectives. Building a climate that demonstrates cohesiveness and supportiveness among workgroup members is likely to influence their willingness to forgive when workplace offenses occur.

However, organization climate should not encourage individuals to be forgiving without holding the offenders to a certain standard or level of accountability. Worthington (2006) emphasizes that there is nobility of forgiving others of their transgression; however, he also notes that this can be taken to the extreme which would lead to overall negative results. This study's finding that willingness to forgive was correlated with poor performance supports his claim. Forgiveness does not mean forgoing punishment. Forgiveness can be granted and punishment by the organization can still be administered for the same offense. Overall, willingness to forgive and unwillingness to hold offenders accountable may have a negative impact on performance of the organization or work group.

Directions for Future Research

Other environmental influences that were not considered in this dissertation may play an important role in maintaining a climate of forgiveness. Future research should examine additional antecedents of a forgiveness climate such as justice perceptions. Individuals that feel that the organization will handle offenders in a just manner may be more willing to let go and to forgive the offender than individuals that perceive the

organization allowing individuals to get away with offensive behaviors. Individuals that perceive justice to be lower in the organization may feel that they must administer the punishment to offenders.

Although trust was examined in this study, the findings were mixed. Trustworthiness as defined as the perceived ability, benevolence, and integrity perceptions of the individuals about the group was measured. Only trustworthy-integrity climate was found to be significantly related to a forgiveness climate. Further research on the other aspects of trustworthiness climate (possibly using different measures of trust) is an area that is worthy of additional investigation.

When examining group dynamics and the forgiveness process, Worthington (2006) suggests that power dynamics should be considered. Power, status, and authority structure within groups and organizations may influence how offences are perceived and handled by the offended. Aquino, Tripp, and Bies (2006) found that power and status do influence justice perceptions and responses to offenses. The current study was not able to examine power and status because all respondents were perceived to hold the same job level. This is an area worthy of future research.

Furthermore, understanding that there are several motives for why individuals choose to grant forgiveness may offer insight into why some forgiveness is better or more productive than other motivations. If an individual feels compelled to grant forgiveness because there is no other choice, then the outcomes may not be as positive as if the individual forgives because of a desire to keep the relationship intact. Indeed, determining when and why forgiveness is appropriate is an area that could benefit from future research.

This dissertation does offer an initial glimpse of how individual perceptions of the work unit climate can affect individual's willingness to forgive. Research should continue to evaluate and define a 'forgiveness climate' and what outcomes may be reaped from promoting forgiveness within the workplace. Future research into forgiveness in the workplace should continue to evaluate not only the individual involved in the forgiveness but also to consider the environment in which the offense occurred. Multilevel analysis allows a more comprehensive perspective of the forgiveness process. When analyzing forgiveness in a group setting, group similarity, group tenure, task interdependence, and trust among group members may all influence the individual's decision to forgive.

Limitations of the Study

Measure of Actual Behavior.

This study measured behavioral intentions, rather than actual behavior. This approach raises some questions about the validity of the study. However, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action supports the notion that beliefs and attitudes directly influence the actual behaviors of an individual. Hence, by questioning individuals about their behavioral intentions, researchers are able to assess the possibility of actual behavior.

Self-report of Behavioral Measures.

All measures of the study were collected by self-report. The study was carried out in this manner to protect the individuals' identities' because workplace offenses and one's opinion of the workplace environment can be very sensitive topics. To minimize self-report bias, respondents were insured confidentially of their responses and data was

collected in a manner that would make it extremely difficult to identify a respondent. Furthermore, the use of scenarios rather that recall of actual workplace offenses offered additional protection to the respondents.

Research Design.

Although the use of scenarios may help to reduce self-report bias, it may also be a limitation of the study. Only six scenarios were used in the study, thus limiting the type and severity of the offenses described. Care was taken to develop and use scenarios that provided three different types of offenses as described by Aquino, Tripp, and Bies (2006). These scenarios were also pretested to insure that variability or responses were present.

Sample Composition.

This study was conducted using public school systems. Because of this, the sample was largely female. The lack of gender difference may have had some influence on the findings. In addition, only one type of occupation was considered (i.e., school teachers). The interdependence of the nature of this occupation may influence the forgiveness process differently than in other occupations. Generalization of these findings to other occupations or industry is greatly reduced and is not recommended.

Furthermore, having only four school systems all located in one state limited the variability between groups; therefore, the data was not appropriate for multilevel analyses. Gathering data from a nationwide sample or from a variety of industries and occupations may provide the between group variance needed to successfully conduct multilevel analysis.

This study would benefit from additional examination of the data and possibly the collection of data from other occupations or a nationwide sample of schools. This could provide the necessary variation between groups and thus illuminate any forgiveness tendencies and outcome differences between groups with a very forgiving climate and those with a low forgiving climate.

Conclusion

In spite of the limitations, this study offers several contributions to the body of knowledge on workplace behaviors. First, a scale was developed to assess the presence of a forgiveness climate. Second, the study considered other climates that relate to the forgiveness climate. Cohesive/supportive climate and trustworthiness climate were found to be positively related to the forgiveness climate. This offers insight into how an organization may develop a forgiveness climate in the workplace. Third, moderating variables for the relationship between forgiveness climate and willingness to forgive were examined to determine if psychological collectivism or narcissism moderated the relationship. Fourth, a scenario-based scale to assess the willingness to forgive workplace offenses was developed and tested. Finally, willingness to forgive was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors and negatively related to job stress and performance. A finding such as this provides insight into the positive and negative outcomes of forgiveness in the workplace. Furthermore, it provides evidence that too much of a good thing may be problematic.

This study provides a glimpse into how forgiveness may play an important role in relationships in the organization. Empirical evidence provided support for the belief that

the presence of a forgiveness climate and the resulting willingness to forgive are related to important workplace outcomes. The vitality of relationships in the workplace impacts not only to the health and satisfaction of the workers but also the effectiveness and efficiency of the operations of the organization. This is supported by the findings of this study.

APPENDIX A

HUMAN SUBJECT LETTER

LOUISIANA TECH
U N I V E R S I T Y

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

MEMORANDUM

TO: Ms. Susie Cox and Dr. Rebecca Bennett

FROM: Barbara Talbot, University Research

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: April 29, 2008

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"Focus Group on Workplace Offenses and Forgiveness Climate/
An Exploratory Study of Forgiveness Climate"

HUC-577 Part I

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on April 24, 2008 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond April 24, 2009.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-4315.

LOUISIANA TECH
U N I V E R S I T Y

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

MEMORANDUM

TO: Ms. Susie Cox and Dr. Rebecca Bennett

FROM: Barbara Talbot, University Research

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: MAY 2, 2008

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"An Exploratory Study of Forgiveness Climate"

HUC-577 Part II

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on April 30, 2008 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond April 30, 2009.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-4315.

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

This survey is to explore and gain a better understanding or workplace environments. You are being asked to complete an online survey. Your participation is voluntary.

Informed Consent Statement- The survey contains items that address your perceptions of your work group. Your information will be kept confidential. There are no risks involved in this study. All responses are anonymous. No individual responses will be released; all data will be presented in aggregate. If you choose not to participate in the study, no negative consequences will follow. The participant understands that Louisiana Tech is not able to offer financial compensation nor to absorb the costs of medical treatment should you be injured as a result of participating in this research.

Please read the following statement and indicate yes or no that you are willing to participate in the survey.

I acknowledge that I have read and understood the description of the study, "Workplace Climate and Forgiveness", and its purposes and methods. I understand that my participation in this research is strictly voluntary and my participation or refusal to participate in this study will not affect my relationship with Louisiana Tech University or my employment. Further, I understand that I may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any questions without penalty. Upon completion of the study, I understand that the aggregate results will be freely available to me upon request. I understand that the results of my survey will be confidential, accessible only to the principal investigators, myself, or a legally appointed representative. I have not been requested to waive nor do I waive any of my rights related to participating in this study.

YES **NO**

REFERENCES

Al-Mabuk, R. H., Dedrick, C.V. L., & Vanderah, K. M. (1998). Attribution retraining in forgiveness therapy. *Journal of Family Psychotherapy, 9,* 11-30.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1992). Assumptions and comparative strengths of the two-step approach. *Social Methods and Research 20,* 321-333.

Anderson, N. R., & West, M. A. (1998). Measuring climate for work group innovation: Development and validation of the team climate inventory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19,* 235-258.

Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior: The moderating effects of individual difference, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 90,* 195-208.

Aquino, K., Grover, S. L., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2003). When push doesn't come to shove: Interpersonal forgiveness in workplace relationships. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 12,* 209-216.

Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2001). How employees respond to interpersonal offense: The effects of blame attributions, offender status and victim 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 offenses as predictors of revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(3), 653-668.

Babin, B. J., Boles, J., & Robin, D. (2000). "Representing the perceived ethical work climate among marketing employees," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28,* 345-359.

Bartels, L., Harrick, E., Martell, K., Strickland, D. (1998). The relationship between ethical climate and ethical problems within human resource management. *Journal of Business Ethics, 17,* 799-804.

Baskin, T. W., & Enright, R. D. (2004). Intervention Studies on Forgiveness: A Meta-analysis. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 82,* 79-90.

115

Baumeister, R. F., Exline, J. J., & Sommer, K. L. (1998). The victim role, grudge theory, and two dimensions of forgiveness. In E. L. Worthington (Ed.), *Dimensions of Forgiveness* (pp. 79–104). Radnor, PA: Templeton Foundation Press.

Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L., & Boden, J. M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of self-esteem. *Psychological Review, 103*, 5-33.

Bedeian, A. G., Armenakis, A. A., & Curran, S. M. (1981). The relationship between role stress and job-related, interpersonal, and organization climate factors. *Journal of Social Psychology, 113*, 247-260.

Bennett, R. J., Cox, S. S. & Aquino, K. (2008). *Workplace Offenders' Apologies and Excuses: Effects on Empathy, Forgiveness and Revenge*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Anaheim, CA.

Bennett, R. J., & Cox, S. S. (2006). *Forgiveness in the workplace: Identifying motives and outcomes*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.

Berecz, J. M. (2001). All that glitters is not gold: Bad forgiveness in counseling and preaching. *Pastoral Psychology, 49*(4), 253-275.

Berry, J. W., & Worthington, E. L., Jr. (2001). Forgiveness, relationship quality, stress while imagining relationship events, and physical and mental health. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45*(4), 447-455.

Berry, J. W., Worthington, E. L., Jr., Parrott, L., III, O'Connor, L. E, & Wade, N. (2001). Dispostional forgiveness: Development and construct validity of the Transgression Narrative Test of Forgiveness (TNTF). *Personality and Social Psychology Bullentin, 27*, 1277-1290.

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: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 246-260). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (2004). The study of revenge in the workplace: Conceptual, ideological, and empirical issues. In Fox, S. & Spector, P. E. (Eds.), *Counterproductive workplace behavior: An integration of both actor and recipient perspectives on causes and consequences* (pp. 65-81.)Washington, DC: APA Press.

Bies, R. J., Tripp, T. M., & Kramer, R. M. (1997). At the breaking point: Cognitive and social dynamics of revenge in organizations. In R. A. Giacalone and J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp. 18-36). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein and S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349-381). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bono, G., & McCullough, M. E. (2006). Positive responses to benefit and harm: Bringing forgiveness and gratitude into cognitive psychotherapy. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy: An International Quarterly, 20*(2), 147-158.

Boon, S. C., & Sulsky, L. M. (1997). Attributions of blame and forgiveness in romantic relationships: A policy-capturing study. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 1,* 19-44.

Bradfield, M., & Aquino, K. (1999). The effects of blame attributions and offender likeableness on forgiveness and revenge in the workplace. *Journal of Management, 25*(5), 607-631.

Bright, D. S., Fry, R. E., & Cooperrider, D. L. (2006). Forgiveness from the perspectives of three response modes: Begrudgement, pragmatism and transcendence. *Journal of Management Spirituality and Religion,* 2/3 (1).

Brown, R. P. (2003). Measuring individual difference in the tendency to forgive: Construct validity and links with depression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29,* 1-13.

Burt, R. S. (1992). *Structural Holes.* Cambridge, MS: Harvard University Press.

Burton, R. M., Lauridsen, J., & Obel, B. (2004). The impact of organizational climate and strategic fit on firm performance. *Human Relations, 43*(1), 67-82.

Buunk, B. P., Zurriaga, R., Peiro, J. M., Nauta, A., & Gosalvez, I. (2005). Social comparisons at work as related to a cooperative social climate and to individual differences in social comparison orientation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 54*(1), 61-80.

Campbell, J. P., Dunnette, M. D., Lawler, E. E. III., & Weick, K. E., Jr. (1970). *Managerial behavior, performance, and effectiveness.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Carr, J. Z., Schmidt, A. M., Ford, K., & DeShon, R. P. (2003). Climate perceptions matter: A meta-analytic path analysis relating molar climate, cognitive and affective states, and individual level work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(4), 605-619.

Chan, D. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same context domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 234-246.

Chatman, J. A., & Barsade, S. G. (1995). Personality, Organizational Culture, and Cooperation: Evidence from a Business Simulation. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 40*(3), 423-443.

Chatman, J.A., & Flynn, F.J. (2001). The influence of demographic composition on the emergence and consequences of cooperative norms in work teams. *Academy of Management Journal, 44*(5), 956-974.

Chen, X-P., Lam, S. S. K., Naumann, S. E., & Schaubroeck, J. (2005). Group citizenship behaviour: Conceptualization and preliminary tests of its antecedents and consequences. *Management and Organizational Review 1*(2), 273-300.

Collins, C. J., & Smith, K. G. (2006). Knowledge exchange and combination: The role of human resource practices in the performance of high-technology firms. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(3), 544-560.

Colquitt, J. A., Noe, R. A., & Jackson, C. L. (2002). Justice in Teams: Antecedents and consequences of procedural justice climate. *Personnel Psychology, 55*, 83-110.

Cox, S. S., & Bennett, R. J. (2006). *Is letting go enough? The influence of forgiveness on health and job satisfaction.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of Southern Management Association, Clearwater Beach, FL.

Cox, S. S., Bennett, R. J., & Marler, L. E. (2008). *Effects of high self-esteem and empathy on forgiveness.* Poster session presented at the annual meeting of Society of Industrial and Organization Psychology, San Francisco, CA.

Denison, D. R. (1996). What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review, 21*(3), 619-654.

Denton, R. T., & Martin, M. W. (1998). Defining forgiveness: An empirical exploration of process and role. *American Journal of Family Therapy, 26*(4), 282-292.

Dickson, M. W., Resick, C. J., & Hanges, P. J. (2006). When organizational climate is unambiguous, it is also strong. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(2), 351-364.

Donnellan, M. B., Oswald, F. L., Baird, B. M., & Lucas, R. E. (2006) The mini-IPIP Scales: Tiny-yet-effective measures of the big five factors of personality. *Psychological Assessment, 18*(2), 192-203.

Droll, D. M. (1984). *Forgiveness: Theory and Research. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.* University of Nevada-Reno.

Dutton, J. E., & Ragins, B. R. (2007). *Exploring Positive Relationship at Work: Building a Theoretical and Research Foundation.* Mahwah, New Jersey: E A Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dwyer, F. R., Schurr, P. H., & Oh, S. (1987). Developing buyer-seller relationships. *Journal of Marketing,* 11-27.

Emmons, R. A. (1987). Narcissism: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52,* 11-17.

Enright, R. D., & Human Development Study Group. (1991). The moral development of forgiveness. In W. Kurtines & J. Gewritz (Eds.) *Handbook of Moral Behavior and Development.* (Vol. 1, pp. 123-152) Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Enright, R. D. & Coyle, C. T. (1998). Researching the process of forgiveness within psychological interventions. In E. L. Worthington, Jr. (Ed.) *Dimensions of Forgiveness* (pp. 139-161). Philadelphia: Templeton Foundation Press.

Enright, R. D., & Fitzgibbons, R. P. (2000). *Helping clients forgive: An empirical guide for resolving anger and restoring hope.* Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Enright, R.D., Freedman, S., & Rique, J. (1998). The psychology of interpersonal forgiveness. In R.D. Enright & J. North (Eds.), *Exploring forgiveness* (pp. 46-62.) Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.

Enright, R. D., Gassin, E. A., & Wu, C. (1992). Forgiveness: A developmental view. *Journal of Moral Education, 2,* 99-114.

Enright, R. D., Santos, M. J. D., & Al-Mabuk, R. (1989). The adolescent forgiver. *Journal of Adolescence, 12,* 95-110.

Exline, J. J., Worthington, E. L. Jr., Hill, P., & McCullough, M. E. (2003). Forgiveness and Justice: A research agenda for social and personality psychology. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 7*(4), 337-348.

Fincham, F.D. (2000). The kiss of the porcupines: From attributing responsibility to forgiving. *Personal Relationships, 7,* 1-23.

Finkel, E. J., Rusbult, C. E., Kumashiro, M., & Hannon, P. A. (2002). Dealing with betrayal in close relationships: Does commitment promote forgiveness? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*(6), 956-974.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen., I. (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intentions and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research.* Boston, Massachusetts. Addison-Wesley.

Fu, H., Watkins, D., & Hui, E. K. P. (2004). Personality correlates of the disposition towards interpersonal forgiveness: A Chinese perspective. *International Journal of Psychology, 39*(4), 305-316.

Girard, M., & Mullet, E. (1997). Forgiveness in adolescents, young, middle-aged, and older adults. *Journal of Adult Development, 4,* 209-220.

Glisson, C., & James, L. R. (2002). The cross-level effects of culture and climate in human service teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23,* 767-794.

Goldberg, L.R. (1999). A broad-bandwidth, public domain, personality inventory measuring the lower-level facets of several five-factor models. In I. Mervielde, I. Deary, F. DeFruyt, & F. Ostendorf (Eds.) *Personality Psychology in Europe* (pp. 7-28). Tilburg, The Netherlands: Tilburg University Press.

Gould-Williams, J. (2007). HR Practices, organisational climate and employee outcomes: evaluating social exchange relationships in local government organisations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 18*(9), 1627-1647.

Gould-Williams, J., & Davies, F. (2005). Using Social Exchange Theory to Predict the Effects of HRM practice on Employee Outcomes: An Analysis of public Sector Workers. *Public Management Review, 7* (1), 25-47.

Graen, G. & Scandura, T.A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 9,* 175-208.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Mulivariate Data Analysis 6e.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hargrave, T. D., & Sells, J. N. (1997). The development of a forgiveness scale. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 23,* 41-62.

Hebl, J. H., & Enright, R. D. (1993). Forgiveness as a psychotherapeutic goal with elderly females. *Psychotherapy, 30,* 658-667.

Hope, D. (1987). The healing paradox of forgiveness. *Psychotherapy, 24,* 240-244.

Jackson, C. L., Colquitt, J. A., Wesson, M. J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2006). Psychological collectivism: A measurement validation and linkage to group member performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(4), 884-899.

James, L. R. (1982). Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67,* 219-229.

James, L. A., & James, L. R. (1989). Integrating work environment perspectives: Exploration into the measurement of meaning. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 739-751.

James, L. R., & Jones, A. P. (1974). Organizational climate: A review of theory and research. *Psychological Bulletin, 81,* 1096-1112.

James, L. R., & Sells, S. B. (1981). Psychological Climate: Theoretical perspectives and empirical research. In D. Magnusson (Ed.), *Toward a Psychology of Situations: An interactional perspective* (pp. 275-450). Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Janis, I.L., & Mann, L. (1977). *Decision Making: A Psychological Analysis of Conflict, Choice and Commitment.* New York, Free Press.

Jarvis, C. B., MacKenzie, S. B. and Podsakoff, P. M. (2003). A Critical Review of Construct Indicators and Measurement Model Misspecification in Marketing and Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 30,* 199-218.

Jeffress, R. (2000). *Why forgiveness doesn't make sense.* Colorado Springs, CO: Waterbrook.

Jensen, M. C. (1983). Organizational Theory and Methodology. *The Accounting Review,* 58(2), 319-339.

Johnson. D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2005). New developments in social interdependence theory. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 131*(4), 285-358.

Jones, A.P. & James, L.R. (1979). Psychological climate: Dimensions and relationships of individual and aggregated work environment perceptions. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 23,* 201-50.

Kaminer, D., Stein, D. J., Mbanga, I., & Zungu-Dirwayi, N. (2000). Forgiveness: Toward an integration of theoretical models. *Psychiatry, 63*(4), 344-357.

Kearns, J. N., & Fincham, F. D. (2004). A prototype analysis of forgiveness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(7), 838-855.

Kim, T., Shapiro, D. L., Aquino, K., Lim, V. K., & Bennett, R. J. (in press) Workplace Offense and Victims' Reactions: The Effects of Victim-Offender (Dis)similarity, Offense Type, and Cultural Differences. *Journal of Organizational Behavior.*

Klein, K. J., Bliese, P. D., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Dansereau, F., Gavin, M. B., Griffin, et al., (2000).Multilevel analytical techniques: Commonalities, differences, and continuing questions. In K. J. Klein and S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 512-553). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Klein, K. J., & Sorra, J. S. (1996). The Challenge of Innovation Implementation. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(4), 1055-1080.

Kohlberg, L. (1976). Moral stages and moralization: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory and research* (pp. 347-480). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Koys, D. J., & Decotiis, T. A. (1991). Inductive Measures of Psychological Climate. *Human Relations, 44*(3), 265-285.

Koza, K. L., & Dant, R. P. (2007). Effects of relationship climate, control mechanism, and communications on conflict resolution behavior and performance outcomes. *Journal of Retailing, 83*(3), 279-296.

Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foreman and Company.

Kumar, N., Scheer, L. K., Steenkamp, J.E. M. (1995). The Effects of Perceived Interdependence on Dealer Attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research, 32*(3), 348-356.

Kurzynski, M. J. (1998). The virtue of forgiveness as a human resource strategy. *Journal of Business Ethics, 17*, 77-85.

Lawler, K. A., Younger, J. W., Piferi, R. L., Billington, E., Jobe, R., Edmondson, K., Jones, W. H. (2003). A change of heart: Cardiovascular correlates of forgiveness in response to interpersonal conflict. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 26*(5), 373-393.

Lawler, K. A., Younger, J. W., Piferi, R. L., Jobe, R., Edmonson, K. A. & Jones, W. H. (2005). The unique effects of forgiveness on health: An exploration of pathways. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 28*(2), 157-167.

Lawler-Row, K. A., Younger, J. W., Piferi, R. L., & Jones, W. H. (2006). The role of adult attachment style in forgiveness following an interpersonal offense. *Journal of counseling and Development, 84*, 493-502.

Lewin, K. (1935). *A dynamic theory of personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lindell, M. K., & Brandt, C. J. (2000). Climate quality and climate consensus as mediators of the relationship between organizational antecedents and outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85,* 331-348.

Litwin, G., & Stringer, R. (1968). *Motivation and organizational climate.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Louisiana Department of Education. http://www.doe.state.la.us/lde/accountability/home.html. Accessed on July 26, 2008

Maltby, J., & Day, L. (2004). Forgiveness and defense style. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 165*(1), 99-109.

Macaskill, A. (2005). Defining forgiveness: Christian clergy and general population perspectives. *Journal of Personality, 73*(5), 1237-1266.

Macaskill, A., Maltby, J., & Day, L. (2002). Forgiveness of self and others and emotional empathy. *Journal of Social Psychology, 142*(5), 663-665.

Martin, K. D., & Cullen, J. B. (2006). Continuities and Extensions of Ethical Climate Theory: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Journal of Business Ethics, 69*(2), 175-194.

Mauger, P.A., Perry, J.E., Freeman, T., & Grove, D.C. (1992). The measurement of forgiveness: Preliminary research. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity, 11*(2), 170-180.

Mayer, R., C., & Davis, J.H. (1999). The Effect of the Performance Appraisal System on Trust in Management: A Field Quasi-Experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1), 123-136.

Mayer, R.C., Davis, J.H., & Schoorman, F.D. (1995). An Integration Model of Organizational Trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3), 709-734.

McCullough, M. E. (2000). Forgiveness as human strength: Theory, measurement, and links to well-being. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 19,* 43-55.

McCullough, M. E. (2001). Forgiveness: Who does it and how do they do it? *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 10,* 194-197.

McCullough, M. E., Bellah, C. G., Kilpatrick, S. D., & Johnson, J. L. (2001). Vengefulness: Relationships with forgiveness, rumination, well-being, and the Big Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27,* 601-610.

McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., Kilpatrick. S. D., & Mooney, C. N. (2003). Narcissists as "Victims": The role of narcissism in the perception of transgressions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29,* 885-893.

McCullough, M. E., Fincham, F. D., & Tsang, J. (2003). Forgiveness, forbearance, and time: The temporal unfolding of transgression-related interpersonal motivations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*(3), 540 - 557.

McCullough, M. E., & Hoyt, W. T. (2002). Transgression-related motivational dispositions: Personality substrates of forgiveness and their links to the Big Five. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28,* 1556-1573.

McCullough, M.E., Pargament, K.I., & Thoresen, C.E. (2000). The psychology of forgiveness: History, conceptual issues, and overview. In M.E. McCullough, K.I. Pargament, & C.E. Thoresen (Eds.) *Forgiveness: Theory, Research, and Practice.* New York: Guilford Press.

McCullough, M. E., Rachal, K. C., Sandage, S. J., Worthington, E. L., Jr., 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., Root, L. M., & Cohen, A. D. (2006). Writing about the benefits of an interpersonal transgression facilitates forgiveness. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 74,* 887-897.

McCullough, M. E., & Witvliet, C. V. (2002). The Psychology of Forgiveness. Eds. C. R. Snyder and S. J. Lopez, *Handbook of Positive Psychology.* New York: Oxford University Press.

McCullough, M. E., & Worthington, E. L. (1994). Models of interpersonal forgiveness and their applications in counseling: Review and critique. *Counseling and Values, 39,* 3-14.

McCullough, M. E. & Worthington, E. L., Jr. (1994). Encouraging clients to forgive people who have hurt them: Review, critique, and research prospectus. *Journal of Psychology and Theology, 22,* 3-20.

McCullough, M. E., & Worthington, E. L. (1995). Promoting forgiveness: A comparison of two brief psychoeducational group interventions with a waiting-list control. *Counseling and Values, 40*(1), 55-68.

McCullough, M. E. & Worthington, E. L., Jr. (1999). Religion and the forgiving personality. *Journal of Personality, 67*(6), 1141-1164.

McCullough, M. E., Worthington, E. L., Jr., & Rachal, K. C. (1997). Interpersonal forgiving in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73,* 321-336.

McLean-Parks, J. M. (1997). The fourth arm of justice: The art and science of revenge. In R. J. Lewicki, R. J. Bies, and B. H. Sheppard (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 6, pp. 113-144). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

McMurray, A. J. (2003). The relationship between organizational climate and organizational culture. *Journal of American Academy of Business, 3*(1), 3-14.

Merriam-Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary. (1989). Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster Inc.

Mischel, W. (1977). The interaction of person and situation. In D. Magnusson & N. S. Endler (Eds.), *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology* (pp. 333-352). Hillsdale, NJ: Earlbaum.

Mischel, W. (1976). Towards a cognitive social model learning reconceptualization of personality. In N. S. Endler & D. Magnusson (Eds.) *Interactional psychology and personality* (pp. 166-207). New York: Wiley.

Mischel, W. (1968). *Personality and Assessment.* New York: Wiley.

Mumford, M. D., Scott, G. M., Gaddis B., & Strange, J. M. (2002). Leading creative people: Orchestrating expertise and relationships. *Leadership Quarterly, 13*(6), 705-750.

Nietzsche, F. W. (1887/1927). *The genealogy of morals. The philosophy of Nietzsche.* (Translator, T. Trans.). New York: Modern Library. (Original work published 1887).

Nelson, M. K. (1992). *A new theory of forgiveness.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN.

Nelson, G., & Dyck, J. (2005). Forbearance in leadership: Opportunities and risks involved in cutting followers some slack. *Leadership Quarterly, 16,* 53-70.

Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. (2000). A case for procedural justice climate: Development and test of a multilevel model. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(5), 881-889.

Naumann, S. E., & Bennett, N. (2002). The effects of procedural justice climate on work group performance. *Small Group Research, 33*(3): 361-377.

North, J. (1987). Wrongdoing and forgiveness. *Philosophy, 62,* 499-508.

North, J. (1998). The "Ideal" of forgiveness: A Philosopher's exploration. In R. D. Enright and J. North (Eds.) *Exploring Forgiveness,* (pp. 15-34), University of Wisconsin Press: Madison, Wisconsin.

Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ostroff, C. (1993). The effects of climate and persona influences on individual behavior and attitudes in organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process, 56*, 56-90.

Park, N., Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. (2004). Strengths of character and well-being. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 23*, 603-619.

Parker, C. P., Baltes, B. B., Young, S. A., Huff, J. W., Altmann, R. A., Lacost, H. A., & Roberts, J. E. (2003). Relationships between psychological climate perceptions and work outcomes: a meta-analytic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*, 389-416.

Penney, L. M., & Spector, P. (2002). Narcissism and counterproductive behavior: Do bigger egos mean bigger problems? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1), 126-134.

Pingleton, J. P. (1989). The role and function of forgiveness in the psychotherapeutic process. *Journal of Psychology and Theology, 1*, 27-35.

Reichers, A. E., & Schneider, B. (1990). Climate and culture: An evolution of constructs. B. Schneider (ed.) In *Organizational Climate and Culture*, (pp. 5-39). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Richardson, H.A., & Vandenberg, R.J. (2005). Integrating managerial perceptions and transformational leadership into a work-unit level model of employee involvement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 561-589.

Rusbult, C. E., Verette, J., Whitney, G. A., Slovik, L. F., & Lipkus, I. (1991). Accommodation processes in close relationships: Theory and preliminary empirical evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*, 53-78.

Rye, M. S., Lioacono, D. M., Folck, C. D., Olszewski, B. T., Heim, T. A., Madia, B. P. (2001). Evaluation of the psychometric properties of two forgiveness scales. *Current Psychology, 20*(3), 260-277.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*, 224-252.

Sandage, S.J., Worthington, E.L., Jr., Hight, T.L., & Berry, J.W. (2000). Seeking forgiveness: Theoretical context and initial empirical study. *Journal of Psychology and Theology, 28*, 21-35.

Schneider, B. (1975). Organizational climates: An essay. *Personnel Psychology, 28*, 447-479.

Schneider. B. (1990). *Organizational climate and culture*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, B., Bowen, D. E., Ehrhart, M. G., & Holcombe, K. M. (2000). The climate for service: Evolution of a construct. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. Wilderom, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate* (pp. 21-36). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Schneider, B., & Reicher, A. (1983). On the etiology of climates. *Personnel Psychology, 36*, 19-40.

Schneider, B., Salvaggio, A. N., & Subirats, M. (2002). Climate strength: A new direction for climate research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 220-229.

Schulte, M., Ostroff, C., & Kinicki, A. J. (2006). Organizational climate systems and psychological climate perceptions: A cross-level study of climate-satisfaction relationships. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79*, 645-671.

Seibert, S. E., Silver, S. R., & Randolph, W. A. (2004). Taking empowerment to the next level: A multiple-level model of empowerment, performance, and satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(3), 332–49.

Sells, J. N., & Hargrave, T. D. (1998). Forgiveness: A review of the theoretical and empirical literature. *Journal of Family Therapy, 20*, 21-36.

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.

Snyder, C. R., & Lopez, S. J. (Eds.) (2002). *The handbook of positive psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Strelan, P. & Covic, T. (2006). A review of forgiveness process models and a coping framework to guide future research. *Journal of Clinical and Social Psychology, 25*, 1059-1085.

Subkoviak, M.J., Enright, R.D., Wu, C., Gassin, E.A., Freedman, S., Olson, L.M., & Sarinopoulos, I.C. (1995). Measuring interpersonal forgiveness in late adolescence and middle adulthood. *Journal of Adolescence, 18*, 641-655.

Tangney, J. P., Boone, A. L., & Dearing, R. (2005). Forgiving the self: Conceptual issues and empirical findings. In E. L. Worthington, Jr. (Ed.), *Handbook of forgiveness* (pp.143-158). New York: Brunner-Rutledge.

Trainer, M. F. (1981). *Forgiveness: Intrinsic, role-expected, expedient, in the context of divorce*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University, Boston, MA.

Todd, E. (1985). The value of confession and forgiveness according to Jung. *Journal of Religion and Health, 24,* 39-48.

Toussaint, L. L., Williams, D. R., Musick, M. A., Everson, S. A. (2001). Forgiveness and health: Age differences in a U.S. probability sample. *Journal of Adult Development, 8*(4), 249-257.

Turnipseed, D. L. (1988). An integrated, interactive model of organizational climate, culture, and effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 9*(5), 17-21.

Verbeke, W., Volgering, M., & Hessels, M. (1998). Exploring the conceptual expansion within the field of organizational behavior: organizational climate and organizational culture. *Journal of Management Studies, 35*(3), 303-329.

Victor, B., & Cullen, J. B. (1987). A theory and measure of ethical climate in organizations. In W.C. Fredrick (Ed.), *Research in Corporate Social performance and Policy* (pp. 51-71). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Victor, B., & Cullen, J. B. (1988). The organizational bases of ethical work climates. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 33,* 101-125.

Victor, J. B., Cullen, B., & Stephens, C. (2001). An ethical weather report: Assessing the organization's ethical climate. *Organizational Dynamics,* 50-62.

Watkins, D., & Regmi, M. (2004). Personality and forgiveness: A Nepalese Perspective. *Journal of Social Psychology, 144*(5), 539-540.

Wagner, J. A., III. (1995). Studies of individualism-collectivism: Effects on cooperation in groups. *Academy of Management Journal, 38,* 152-172.

Walker, D. F., & Gorsuch, R. L. (2002). Forgiveness within the Big Five personality model. *Personality and Individual Differences, 32,* 1127-1137.

Watkins, D., & Regimi, M. P. (2004). Personality and Forgiveness: A Nepalese Perspective. *Journal of Social Psychology. 144*(5), 539-540.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E., (1991). Job Satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 601-617.

Witvliet, C. V., Ludwig, T. E., & Vander Laan, K. L. (2001). Granting forgiveness or harboring grudges: Implications for emotion, physiology, and health. *Psychological Science, 12*(2), 117-123.

Worthington, E. L., Jr. (1998). An empathy-humility-commitment model of forgiveness applied within family dyads. *Journal of Family Therapy, 20,* 59-76.

Worthington, E. L., Jr. (2000). Is there a place for forgiveness in the justice system? *Fordham Urban Law Journal, 27,* 1721-1734.

Worthington, E. L., Jr. (2001). *Five steps to forgiveness: The art and science of forgiving.* New York: Crown Publishers.

Worthington, E. L., Jr. (2006). *Forgiveness and Reconciliation: Theory and Application,* NY, NY: Rutledge.

Worthington, E. L., Jr., Sandage, S. J., Berry, J. W. (2000). Group Interventions to Promote Forgiveness: What researchers and clinicians ought to know. In M.E. McCullough, K.I. Pargament, & C.E. Thoresen (Eds.) *Forgiveness: Theory, Research, and Practice.* New York: Guilford Press.

Worthington, E. L., Jr., & Scherer, M. (2004). Forgiveness is an emption-focused coping strategy that can reduce health risks and promote health resilience: Theory, review, and hypotheses. *Psychology and Health, 19*(3), 385-405.

Worthington, E. L., Jr., Sharp, C. B., Lerner, A. J., & Sharp, J. R. (2006). Interpersonal forgiveness as an example of loving one's enemies. *Journal of Psychology and Theology, 34*(1), 32-42.

Worthington, E. L., Jr., & Wade, N. G. (1999). The psychology of unforgiveness and forgiveness and implications for clinical practice. *Journal of Social & Clinical Psychology 18*(4), 385-418.

Younger, J. W., Piferi, R. L., Jobe, R. L., & Lawler, K. A. (2004). Dimensions of forgiveness: The views of laypersons. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 21*(6), 837-855.

Zechmeister, J. S., & Romero, C. (2002). Victim and offender accounts of interpersonal conflict: Autobiographical narratives of forgiveness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*(4), 675-686.

Zechmeister, J. S., Garcia, S., Romero, C., & Vas, S. N. (2004). Don't apologize unless you mean it: A laboratory investigation of forgiveness and retaliation. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 23,* 532-564.