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Care to Walk in My Shoes? Repairing Trust after Violations of Benevolence

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Care to Walk in My Shoes? Repairing Trust after Violations of Benevolence

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Abstract

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This dissertation examines how perceived perspective taking relates to trust repair, specifically in the context of a benevolence-based violation. I draw on perspective taking theory, attribution theory, and the integrative model of organizational trust to explore a model of interpersonal trust repair. The extant literature on trust repair primarily focuses on violations of ability and integrity, leaving the third dimension of trustworthiness, benevolence, largely unexplored. Yet, research suggests as many as 96% of workplace employees have been victims of benevolence-based offenses, such as disrespect, condescension, or degradation. The present research expands the theoretical bounds of the extant trust repair literature to better understand how to repair trust after such violations. I posited that the relationship between perceived perspective taking and benevolence is simultaneously mediated by stability attributions and empathy, where cognitive-driven calculations of whether the cause of the event is stable and affect-driven perceptions of empathy lead to updated perceptions of benevolence. In addition, I proposed that these revised perceptions of benevolence are positively related to trust, but that this relationship is qualified by the victim's dispositional forgiveness. I conducted two studies to investigate these relationships. Study 1 involved critical incident technique methodology to evoke salient, real-world, benevolence-based violations in established relationships followed by a questionnaire of focal variables to test the full model. This specifically answered the call of scholars to take trust repair studies out of the lab and into the workplace as well as examining established rather than nascent relationships. Study 2 employed an experimental vignette methodology (EVM) that directly manipulated levels of benevolence along with three social accounts. This follow-up study was expected to replicate the expected findings from study 1 as well as more closely examine the role of benevolence and perspective taking by using experimental control. While the results of study 2 were not interpreted due to poor model fit indices, there were several key findings in study 1. First, the relationship between perceived perspective taking and benevolence was fully explained by perceived empathy, and to a lesser extent, unstable causal attributions. Second, restored perceptions of benevolence predicted trust repair. Additionally, empathy and stability attributions were both significantly related with trust repair. Third and finally, dispositional forgiveness failed to moderate the proximal predictors of trust repair. Thus, the overall model received only partial support. The theoretical and practical implications of the study 1 results are discussed along with limitations and opportunities for future research.

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my wife Sarah, for her unwavering love, support, and sacrifice to help me accomplish this dream; and to my amazing children, Claire, Camille, Clay, and Cora, for being my biggest fans and the highlight of every day.

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Chapter I. Introduction

If you can learn a simple trick, Scout, you'll get along a lot better with all kinds of folks.

You never really understand a person until you consider things from his point of view.

– Harper Lee

Organizational personnel can develop extremely close bonds with their coworkers (Ferres, Connell, & Travaglione, 2004) and supervisors (Steffens, Haslam, & Reicher, 2014). However, risk is inherent within these trust-based relationships (McAllister, 1997). What happens when there is a betrayal of trust, such as when a leader fails to defend a follower, when a coworker does not show any interest in their peer, or when a work associate talks negatively about a colleague behind their back? Transgressions can also occur from lack of action due to unmet expectations, such as a perceived lack of loyalty. Empirical studies looking at incidents of workplace incivility in the form of disrespect, condescension, or degradation have found as many as 71% (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001) to 96% (Porath & Pearson, 2012) of employees have reported being victims. These conflicts lead to harm and stress for the victims, often causing withdrawal and avoidance to prevent further harm (Hershcovis, Cameron, Gervais, & Bozeman, 2018). Such actions may be construed as a lack of goodwill by the transgressor for the offended individual, and thus violate perceptions of the transgressor's benevolence – an important basis of trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Benevolence is "the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 718).

Violations of benevolence may manifest in many different ways, such as a lack of concern for another's welfare, a disregard for their needs, intentionally hurting them, not

supporting their best interest, or a failure to help them (cf. Mayer & Davis, 1999). How can

perceptions of trustworthiness be restored after such transgressions? A benevolence-based

betrayal in established relationships may be particularly challenging to overcome because they

undermine the personal exchange upon which interpersonal trust is built (Fitness, 2001). The

maturity of a relationship may make such a violation cause an even stronger jolt to the relational

equilibrium (Robinson, Dirks, & Ozcelik, 2004). I examine how benevolence-based trust

violations can be repaired in established workplace relationships. Benevolence is a key

dimension of trustworthiness, which is the most proximal predictor of trust. While violations of

benevolence can damage trust, I posit that if perceptions of benevolence can be repaired, then

there is hope for trust to be repaired as long as the victim has a forgiving disposition.

Trust is defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to another party based on

the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor,

irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712).

Meta-analytic testing indicates that trust among coworkers leads to improved job performance,

more organizational citizenship behaviors, higher job satisfaction and added organizational

commitment, while also having a negative relationship with counterproductive workplace

behaviors (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Trust also leads to more cooperative behaviors

among an organization's employees, including leader-member relationships (Dirks & Ferrin,

2001, 2002). Thus, the health and operations of an organization are dependent upon the trust-

based interactions and motivations of its members.

Although trust influences many constructive outcomes, it is often violated in the

workplace which can damage relationships and stifle cooperation (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

The circumstances following a trust violation leave the trustor and trustee with a decision on

whether or not to pursue the bilateral process of rebuilding trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Trust repair is "a partial or complete restoration of the willingness to be vulnerable to [another] party following a decline in that willingness" (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009, p. 87). Grover, Hasel, Manville, and Serrano-Archimi (2014) conducted a grounded theory approach to study leader-follower trust violations and proposed that even a single severe violation of benevolence, such as exploitation or denigration, may render trust irreparable, due to withdrawal of the trustor from the relationship. However, I argue that perceived perspective taking may encourage victims of such violations to engage in relationship repair due to perceptions that the violator empathizes with their situation, thus shaping the victim's stability attributions.

Perceived perspective taking is "believing that another person is taking one's perspective" (Goldstein, Vezich, & Shapiro, 2014, p. 942). Perceived perspective taking engages both cognitive and affective mechanisms by seeking to understand the target's viewpoint and their emotional state. Goldstein et al. (2014) provided evidence over several studies that when an individual believes that another has successfully taken their perspective, it has a strong, positive influence on the quality of the relationship. There is also evidence that perceived perspective taking relates to higher levels of trust (Berndsen, Wenzel, Thomas, & Noske, 2018). Others-focused perspective taking requires the goal-directed cognitive effort of an individual separating themselves from their own perceptions in order to adopt another's viewpoint, including their thoughts, feelings, and motives (Parker, Atkins, & Axtell, 2008). A trustee engaged in a well-established relationship will be more motivated to place themselves in the shoes of the violated trustor due to personal interest and connection to the trustor (Cialdini, Brown, Lewis, Luce, & Neuberg, 1997). Prior exposure to the trustor also allows the trustee to be more likely to succeed in understanding the trustor's viewpoint due to their shared experiences (Parker & Axtell, 2001).

I suggest that perceived perspective taking is an impetus through which victims may discern renewed benevolence in the violator, helping to increase the victim's willingness to trust.

When a victim discerns that the offender has actively taken his point of view, it may influence the victim's perceptions of the offender's benevolence toward him. However, the effect on benevolence may occur through the influence of perspective taking on stability attributions and perceived empathy. The determination that the domain-specific cause of an event is unstable means that it is believed to be unlikely to recur (Weiner, 1986). In the context of trust repair, an unstable attribution suggests the trust violation will not happen again (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Stability attributions may be influenced through this rational cognitive process of perspective taking, as a mental exercise in understanding another's thoughts. However, perceived empathy may tap into the affect of the victim, which is triggered by the perspective taker seeking to understand the emotions of the target. Mirroring and acknowledging the victim's pain by showing emotional support may go a long way in restoring perceptions of care.

Benevolence-based violations are prevalent in the workplace (Fraser, 2010; Porath & Pearson, 2012) but the extant empirical literature on trust repair has primarily focused, almost exclusively, on ability- and integrity-based violations (Dirks, Kim, Ferrin, & Cooper, 2011; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks, 2007; Kim, Cooper, Dirks, & Ferrin, 2013; Kim, Dirks, Cooper, & Ferrin, 2006; Kim, Ferrin, Cooper, & Dirks, 2004). Much of the literature in trust repair has assessed the phenomenon in the context of new relationships, still in the early stages of development, where participants have little to no experience or history of interactions (Lount, Zhong, Sivanathan, & Murnighan, 2008; Schweitzer, Hershey, & Bradlow, 2006). While this impressive body of work has been illuminating, it fails to address questions surrounding

benevolence-based violations and by extension, specific strategies by which such violations may be repaired.

Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) suggest that perceptions of ability and integrity form quickly, while it takes much longer to have enough experiences to make an informed judgement on benevolence. There has been some empirical corroboration of this that has shown that perceptions of ability were the easiest to develop while those of integrity and benevolence formulated more slowly over time (S. Jones & Shah, 2016). This lack of understanding regarding the development, violation, and repair of benevolence-based trust leaves a substantial gap in the research seeking to elucidate the theoretical and practical implications for trust repair. Since time plays a significant role in the development of perceptions of benevolence, it is important to provide balance to our collective understanding of trust repair within organizations by exploring well-established relationships with strong feelings of interpersonal care before being fractured. Benevolence-based violations, such as disrespect and disregard for others, are particularly important to understand because they may actually occur more frequently than integrity- and ability-based violations (Fraser, 2010). I seek to continue and extend this conversation by offering a theoretical explanation for how benevolence violations may be repaired through the violator placing themselves in the shoes of the victim to facilitate trust repair.

A trustor's perceptions of trustworthiness predict the level of their willingness to trust (Mayer et al., 1995). However, in the wake of a trust violation, the victim must also grapple with negative affect and its influence on trusting attitudes and beliefs. Affect plays an important role in trust processes (Williams, 2001) and there have been calls for scholars to unravel the precise function it plays in trust repair (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017). I examine forgiveness, which considers whether a victim holds on to negative emotions in the wake of an offense. Research

suggests that positive affect may lead to trust (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005), but this connection does not hold true across all situations (Lount 2010). Dispositional forgiveness is an individual's general tendency to be forgiving (Thompson et al., 2005) and may offer further insight into individual differences in responding to offenses. A central function of forgiveness involves the victim's response to the valence and strength of their own affect (Thompson et al., 2005). However, forgiveness is not purely affect-based. Forgiveness also includes cognitive activities such as estimating the level of threat. This rational calculation of the risk from possible outcomes is considered when choosing whether to forgive and pursue relationship repair with an offender (Fincham, 2015). While trust repair is a bilateral process involving the trustor and the trustee, forgiveness occurs within the trustor, and the level of the victim's dispositional forgiveness may qualify the level of trust repair the victim is willing to tolerate.

This dissertation examines how benevolence-based trust violations may be repaired in the workplace via perceived perspective taking, the mediating effects of perceived empathy and stability attributions, and the moderating effect of dispositional forgiveness between the aforementioned variables and trust repair. The present research offers several theoretical contributions.

First, I contribute to the development of interpersonal trust repair literature by broadening the theoretical network to include benevolence-based violations. While much has been learned through the development of trust repair research focused on ability- and integrity-based violations, it appears that the next logical step for programmatic research is to investigate violations of benevolence.

Second, I extend the emerging literature on perceived perspective taking by applying it as an antecedent to trust repair. Specifically, the belief that an offender has engaged in the act of

perspective taking may influence the victim to perceive a higher degree of benevolence in the accused, which in turn may affect the trustor's level of willingness to place trust in the perpetrator again.

Third, I extend Weiner's (1986) attribution theory by showing how perceived perspective taking shapes stability attributions. Individuals instinctively seek to understand the world around them by collecting information that offers a reasonable explanation (Heider, 1958). Stability is the most salient causal attribution dimension for trust repair because the determination that the cause of a trust violation is unstable means that the trustee views it as unlikely to recur (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Perceptions that the trustee has successfully taken the trustor's viewpoint may be negatively associated with stability attributions because of the expectation that, having vicariously experienced the violation, the trustee would not willfully violate the victim's trust again.

Finally, I integrate forgiveness and trust repair to better understand how dispositional forgiveness may affect the trust repair process. Since trust violations often result in strong negative emotions, and trust repair scholars have called for developing a better understanding of the role emotions play in trust repair, the present research expands the theoretical bounds of trust repair literature by incorporating the function of forgiveness.

Chapter II. Literature Review

This chapter begins with an introduction to the trust repair literature, specifically reviewing the focal dimension of trustworthiness, benevolence. Next, an overview of the perspective taking literature is provided and compared and contrasted with empathy. Finally, a summary of research on stability attributions and dispositional forgiveness is offered.

Trust Repair

Understanding trust repair in the workplace has been a growing area of interest for organizational behavior scholars. This stream of research began with conceptual work regarding how trust might be rebuilt (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996) and has developed to the point of refined empirical examinations regarding the psychological processes at work (Tomlinson, Nelson, & Langlinais, 2020). While the interpersonal trust repair literature is still developing, there has been significant theoretical and empirical work conducted since the turn of the century.

Kramer and Lewicki (2010) advanced a typology of reparative efforts which they refined into social accounts, compensation, and structural solutions. Social accounts are verbal words and expressions that may help defuse the conflict created by the violation. Compensation refers to more tangible actions that are meant to make the victim at least partially whole again, or even overcompensated. Structural solutions create clear consequences for any similar action occurring again or proactively put in place monitoring to prevent it from recurring. Dirks et al. (2011) found that each type of reparative effort works through increasing perceptions of repentance on behalf of the transgressor to overcome violations of ability and integrity. Tomlinson, Nelson, et al. (2020) found support for these unique reparative strategies working through stability attributions and justice perceptions, while controlling for repentance, following ability-based violations.

Apologizing is a particularly useful strategy for the violator to signal to the victim that they know that a transgression has occurred (Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2007). Tomlinson, Dineen, and Lewicki (2004) found that transgressors should seek to employ an explicit apology that is both timely and sincere for maximum effectiveness. Apologies are also most effective when they validate the victim's feelings and perceptions (Lazare, 2005). Further research has shown additional nuances in the optimal response to violations. Specifically, Kim et al. (2004) found that ability-based violations are more effectively repaired through apologies, while integrity-based violations are more effectively repaired through denials. In a similar dichotomy, financial remedies were effective for restoring trust when ability was in question due to a violation, however it was not effective when the violator's integrity was in doubt (Haesevoets, Van Hiel, & Reinders Folmer, 2015). The trust repair process is even more complicated in group settings, where collective trust assessments were harsher and also affect individual assessments, which may be biased in social contexts (Kim et al., 2013). With the primary attention being given to apologies and denials, Ferrin, Kim, et al. (2007) examined reticence, which is a statement refusing to confirm or deny accusations. Reticence was found to be a suboptimal strategy for repairing trust for both ability- and integrity-based violations.

Additional work has given special focus to the perceived intentions of the violator, since attributions regarding the violator's intentions appear to be a major contributor to a victim's perceptions of the accused's trustworthiness. De Cremer, van Dijk, and Pillutla (2010) discovered that denials regarding unfair offers lead to lower judgements of trustworthiness when compared to apologies, but only when there is uncertainty about the allocator's intentions. Similarly, compensations were found to lower ascriptions of bad intent thus encouraging trust repair (Desmet, Cremer, & Dijk, 2011). However, the size of compensations only mattered when

they were voluntarily offered, rather than demanded by a third party (Desmet, De Cremer, & van Dijk, 2010). Structural changes are another form of reparative effort that represents a change in how the relationship functions and serves as a preventative measure against future failures (Kramer & Lewicki, 2010). Structural changes have been operationalized as added monitoring or accountability (Dirks et al., 2011). Looking at the effects of these three strategies, Lewicki and Brinsfield (2017) characterize apologies and compensations as short-term solutions and suggest structural changes as a long-term strategy since it offers new boundaries for the future.

There are a few common denominators among the aforementioned studies. All of these empirical studies focus on nascent relationships (Kim, Dirks, & Cooper, 2009; Lewicki & Polin, 2012). This may be both a practical and theoretical decision because there may be unmeasured variables conflated with observed variables when examining mature relationships and accounting for their unique histories can be complex. Relatedly, these studies focus on one or both perceived trustworthiness dimensions of ability and integrity. Kim et al. (2009) also noted these same gaps, attributing it to the early stage of the interpersonal trust repair literature. Finally, the aforementioned studies were conducted in lab experiments and there has been a call to move trust repair research to field studies instead of economic-based trust games and scenario-based studies (Kähkönen, Blomqvist, Gillespie, & Vanhala, 2021; Kim et al., 2009; Kramer & Lewicki, 2010; Lewicki & Polin, 2012; Pate, Morgan-Thomas, & Beaumont, 2012).

Kim et al. (2009) called for including benevolence in the growing body of trust repair literature that has predominantly focused on ability and integrity. In contrast, psychology literature related to caring for the welfare of others in close interpersonal relationships has focused their efforts on understanding conflict resolution within marital and family-based contexts (Le, Impett, Lemay Jr, Muise, & Tskhay, 2018). This leaves a mostly unexplored area

of benevolence violations that occur in close, personal workplace relationships. In the course of workplace relationships, it is inevitable that a personal or work-related failure will occur. In either case, the implications for the organization are relevant. The impact is real and the response is pivotal for setting the tone for relationship repair or permanent fracture. Personal betrayals that violate trust do occur and require dedicated attention for the well-being of the relationship and the organization's interests (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998; Morris & Moberg, 1994). These benevolence-based violations can be the hardest to repair because they are emotionally charged and strike at the core of a caring, trust-based relationship (Chen, Saparito, & Belkin, 2011). We know that positive affect helps in fostering benevolent and caring actions that help develop trust (McAllister, 1995). However, trust is often dependent on the level of perceived trustworthiness (Colquitt et al., 2007).

Perceptions of Trustworthiness

There are three distinct dimensions of perceived trustworthiness: ability, integrity, and benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995). Perceived ability is concerned with domain specific competence, perceived benevolence refers to the goodwill and caring a trustee is believed to have for a trustor, and perceived integrity reflects the apparent overlap of the two parties' values and principles. Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) took a multi-disciplinary view of trust and portrayed trustworthiness as consisting of only ability and character, collapsing the dimensions of benevolence and integrity together as one. The ability to act in the correct way has been referred to as the "can do" component of trustworthiness while the components of character regarding whether the trustee will choose to act in the correct way has been referred to as the "will do" component (Colquitt et al., 2007). In an effort to bring clarity to these dimensions, Colquitt et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis to test these different models. They found that

ability, integrity, and benevolence each had significant and unique relationships with trust. The independent role of each of these three dimensions of perceived trustworthiness were shown to predict trust and thus the integrative model has become a dominant conceptual perspective (Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

Perceptions of trustworthiness are widely regarded as antecedents to trust; however, there is less understanding on how and which dimensions of trustworthiness predict affect- versus cognitive-based trust (Tomlinson, Schnackenberg, Dawley, & Ash, 2020). Tomlinson, Schnackenberg, et al. (2020) developed theoretical arguments for the relative impact of specific trustworthiness dimensions on affect- and cognitive-based trust. They predicted that benevolence and values congruence would be relatively more important than ability and behavioral integrity for affect-based trust and found evidence suggesting that benevolence was significantly more important than ability. It is important to distinguish trustworthiness and trust, since the trust repair literature often invokes both constructs. Mayer et al. (1995) propose that trustworthiness considers the trustee's characteristics while trust is the trustor's psychological state. This is critical to trust repair in that breaches of trust often lead to the trustor reducing their beliefs regarding the trustor's trustworthiness, which diminishes subsequent trust. Following the integrative model of trust (Mayer et al., 1995), a significant amount of trust repair research has examined how one might regain positive perceptions of trustworthiness as an antecedent of trust repair.

Benevolence

Benevolence considers the level of care and concern a trustee holds for the trustor, based in prosocial motivations (Mayer et al., 1995). The concept of benevolence has been included as a foundation for trust from very early trust literature (Solomon, 1960; Strickland, 1958). Mayer et

al. (1995) propose that perceptions of benevolence grow as the relationship matures over time. This suggests that perceived benevolence requires significantly more evidence for trustors to judge a trustee. Schoorman et al. (2007) suggest that the unique effect of benevolence becomes more distinguishable further into relationships. S. Jones and Shah (2016) use a longitudinal design to examine how the trustee, trustor, and dyad influences perceptions of trustworthiness. While the trustor was initially the most dominant influence over all dimensions, benevolence was the only one that remained driven by the trustor, while the others were more influenced by the trustee and dyad. This suggests that the trustor continues to look to the trustee for signals of benevolence, even after there is a baseline determination and there is an established relationship.

Benevolence may manifest in many different ways in an organizational setting, such as mentorship, thoughtfulness, and compassion. Benevolence represents consideration of the trustee and it "can be fostered by displays of concern and support" (Colquitt & Salam, 2012, p. 401). Levine and Schweitzer (2015) found evidence that prosocial lies increased perceptions of benevolence and trusting behavior when intentions were viewed as altruistic. This supports the conceptualization that perceived benevolence is based on perceptions that the trustee is well-meaning and has good intent. Colquitt and Rodell (2011) noted that while interpersonal and procedural justice significantly predict perceived benevolence, benevolence involves a deeper level of relationship that the justice dimensions do not incorporate, specifically care and loyalty. Poon (2013) found evidence that high perceptions of benevolence were a requirement for being able to identify high levels of trust-in-supervisor, which reiterates the importance of this focal dimension. Interestingly, Levine and Schweitzer (2014) found that prosocial lies were viewed as more moral than truth telling, which suggests that benevolence may be more important than integrity in certain contexts.

In sociology, Granovetter defined the strength of a tie as the "combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie" (1973, p. 1361). These elements that compose strong ties are similar to the components of benevolence. Perceived benevolence is based on time, care, support, and helpfulness (Mayer & Davis, 1999; Schoorman et al., 2007). Granovetter also related his conceptualization of a strong tie to strong trust, equating it with well-established relationships such as close friends and family members. Stronger ties indicate more similarity between the two individuals (Granovetter, 1983), and this type of overlap can make it easier to take on the perspective of a specific other.

Breaches of benevolence have been proposed to cause the deepest and broadest erosion of trust, compared to ability and integrity (Chen et al., 2011). However, Trafimow and Trafimow (1999) suggest that damaged evaluations of benevolence may not be permanent, suggesting that there may be some tolerance for violations, given special circumstances or considerations. From a theoretical standpoint, "we might expect that benevolence attributions would fall somewhere between those of competence and integrity with regard to determining whether the trust-inhibiting qualities of the trustee were ultimately deemed to be fixable versus fixed" (Kim et al., 2009, p. 417).

Perceived Perspective Taking and Empathy

Following a violation of benevolence, the perpetrator may seek to provide evidence that they still care deeply for the victim and that such a violation is unlikely to recur. Perceived perspective taking is a psychological phenomenon that may provide a theoretical basis for how one can improve perceptions of benevolence, and ultimately repair trust, following a betrayal. Perceived perspective taking in this context involves the victim perceiving that the violator has purposefully engaged in taking on the perspective of the victim. The manner in which a victim

frames a trust violation, and any subsequent actions by the offender, has a significant effect on the victim's perceptions of the offender and their willingness to trust them again. While perspective taking itself is a cognitive activity, it is observable through changes in verbal and behavioral expressions. Successful perspective taking may be expressed through voicing clear understanding, asking questions, actively listening, validating the victim's feeling, deferring a decision to the victim, overcompensating for their loss, voluntarily offering accountability to provide the victim with a sense of security, and even vocal or physical cues.

Perspective taking has been proposed as a possible theoretical framework for understanding trust repair (Williams, 2007, 2012). Williams integrates interdisciplinary findings that show that perspective taking leads to individuals having empathetic responses, stronger social bonds, and compassionate behavior towards another party. However, perspective taking being examined empirically as a predictor of trust development is still in its infancy (Schilke & Huang, 2018; Williams, 2016b).

Perspective taking is when an individual chooses to consider a situation from another individual's point of view. Taking action to "adopt the psychological point of view of others" (Davis, 1983, p. 114) has been linked to increased empathy and changes in attributions in the perspective taker. However, there is a significant body of work that has clearly distinguished perspective taking and empathy (Coke, Batson, & McDavis, 1978; Davis, 1980, 1983; Deutsch & Madle, 1975; M. L. Hoffman, 1977; Oswald, 1996). Davis (1980) provided validated measures that theoretically and empirically distinguished perspective taking from empathy. Perspective taking is a predictor of empathy. When an individual stops to consider what an experience was like, how it felt, and the consequences of it, pro-social responses will follow. "It is generally agreed that perspective taking is a cognitive or intellectual process that results in the

affective response of empathy" (Parker & Axtell, 2001, p. 1087). In contrast to perspective taking, perceived empathy is the extent to which an individual believes another has empathized with their experience (Goldstein et al., 2014). Empathy consists of experiencing another's emotions. Some scholars mistakenly have equated perspective taking and empathy. To clarify, perspective taking is the cognitive exercise of taking another's viewpoint while empathy is an emotional reaction that allows an individual to connect with a target. While sometimes referred to as sympathy or compassion, empathy is an affect-based concern for another's distress. Empathy consists of experiencing another's emotions.

Perspective taking is a social skill that may not always be successfully performed by everyone or in any context (Galinsky, Gilin, & Maddux, 2011). Psychologists have noted that young children are incapable of holding another's perspective until further cognitive development, and that perspective taking is a skill which requires practice (Epley, Morewedge, & Keysar, 2004). Perspective taking requires significant effort and requires higher-level cognitive skills (Ryskin, Benjamin, Tullis, & Brown-Schmidt, 2015). This indicates that perspective taking is not an individual's default response. Indeed, an egocentric bias exists that must be overcome through effort, and not always successfully (Epley, Keysar, Van Boven, & Gilovich, 2004).

Evidence suggests that individuals differ in their dispositional tendency to engage in perspective taking, but that context-specific motivation also plays a role in one's willingness to take another's perspective (Galinsky, Magee, Inesi, & Gruenfeld, 2006). Perspective taking offers the individual an opportunity to gather additional information and understand the thoughts and feelings of the affected party (Grant & Berry, 2011). In the context of relationship partners, perceived understanding protected the relationship from negative effects due to expressed

understanding, signaling that the partner was invested in the relationship, leading to greater relationship satisfaction after conflict (Gordon & Chen, 2016).

Since trust repair is a bilateral process (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996), the victim holds the power in the relationship after a violation, because she can choose how to respond to the offense, including exiting the relationship. The lower-power partner is more likely to adapt (Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003), which may prime the violator to be more emotionally attuned to the victim's needs and may encourage their willingness to take the victim's perspective. Thus, perspective taking offers a theoretical framework that may provide trustees a path to meaningfully repair their relationship through revised perceptions of benevolence by the trustor.

Causal Attributions

Attributions have emerged as a key theoretical perspective for explaining the trust repair process (Dirks, Lewicki, & Zaheer, 2009). Individuals instinctively seek to understand the world around them by collecting information that offers a reasonable explanation (Heider, 1958). Weiner's (1986) attribution theory advanced this idea further by offering three causal dimensions of explanations. First, locus of causality indicates whether the cause is internal or external. Trust repair literature has indicated that apologies will be most effective when internal (vs. external) attributions of responsibility for a trust violation are made (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Kim et al., 2006; Tomlinson et al., 2004). Second, controllability considers if the cause of the event is under the trustee's control. Finally, and most important to the present context, there is stability, which refers to whether the cause of an event is stable or unstable across time. Stability is the most salient causal attribution dimension for trust repair because the determination that the cause of a trust violation is unstable means that the trustee views it as unlikely to recur (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009), which indicates the trust violation will not happen again. This attributional

perspective "suggests that trust violations change the victim's attributions of the actor's intentions and behavior from positive to negative, and that trust-repair efforts must largely focus on restoring those attributions back to positive" (Kramer & Lewicki, 2010, p. 250).

Dispositional Forgiveness

While perceiving that an offender cares enough to show empathy by sharing her emotional experience and expresses benevolence by having the trustor's best interest in mind, those feelings may not be enough to regain a high degree of trust for individuals that are low in dispositional forgiveness. Forgiveness is defined as "the framing of a perceived transgression such that one's responses to the transgressor, transgression, and sequelae [aftereffects] of the transgression are transformed from negative to neutral or positive (Thompson et al., 2005, p. 318). Thus, forgiveness is the resolution of negative emotions, such as anger and vengefulness. Forgiveness is a significant element of the emotional recovery involved in interpersonal conflict (Worthington, 2001). "If we are to forgive, our resentment is to be overcome not by denying ourselves the right to that resentment, but by endeavoring to view the wrongdoers with compassion, benevolence, and love while recognizing that he has willfully abandoned his right to them" (North, 1987, p. 50).

Dispositional forgiveness is the general tendency to be forgiving (Thompson et al., 2005). After a perceived transgression, the way a victim views the violator and her actions should depend on the level of dispositional (or trait) forgiveness a violated trustor has. While the victim may not expect the violation to reoccur, they may not be able to overcome the offense emotionally in order to reach a higher degree of trust with the violator again. Desmet et al. (2010) found evidence that trait forgiveness moderates the relationship between perceived repentance and trust, such that those with a high tendency to forgive required less evidence of

repentance to increase trust while those low in forgiveness gave less credence to perceived repentance. This supports the idea that individual differences regarding forgiveness can lead to vastly different levels of trust following repair efforts through interaction effects of the victim's perceptions and judgements. While the focus of the present research is on dispositional (trait) forgiveness, past research suggests that trait forgiveness is predictive of state forgiveness in the context of various violations, even though both forms of forgiveness are distinguishable (Berry, Worthington, O'Connor, Parrott, & Wade, 2005; Brown & Phillips, 2005).

Research conducted in close interpersonal relationships indicates that forgiveness is a pivotal element in the recovery process following an intimate betrayal (Holeman, 2004). Forgiveness is particularly salient to violations of benevolence because perceptions of benevolence are believed to be the element of trustworthiness most closely related to affect and emotions (Chen et al., 2011). There are other individual differences and contextual situations that can affect one's level of forgiveness as well. While the focus of the present studies is on dispositional forgiveness, the discussion of state forgiveness is included for a more complete review. Fulmer and Gelfand (2015) found that collectivistic trustors were not as forgiving following in-group violations that were large versus small, partially due to increased anger. Environments and work climates that support forgiveness and relationship repair have been found to facilitate greater levels of forgiveness after interpersonal transgressions (Radulovic, Thomas, Epitropaki, & Legood, 2019). This atmosphere is created through support and behavior that demonstrates restorative justice, compassion, and temperance (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012). Very few trust repair studies have included forgiveness as a focal construct providing an opportunity for new exploration to create a better understanding of the role it plays in rebuilding trust.

This present study seeks to answer the call of Kim et al. (2009) to incorporate benevolence-based violations into the emerging body of trust repair literature. It also seeks to couple perceived perspective taking theory with stability attributions to provide a theoretical perspective in which perceptions of benevolence may be restored after a violation, subsequently leading to the rebuilding of trust. It also seeks to discover the impact of dispositional forgiveness on trust repair following a violation of benevolence. An important distinction is that the present study will consider dispositional forgiveness, and not state forgiveness which focuses on a particular situation (Riek & Mania, 2012). Collectively these three areas will provide theoretical extensions for understanding trust repair in caring and well-established relationships.

Chapter III. Hypothesis Development

This dissertation provides insight into how benevolence-based trust violations may be repaired. I argue that perspective taking is a valuable strategy through which offenders process offense-related information from the opposite viewpoint, that of the victim, providing the offender a more nuanced understanding of the impact of their violation. When the victim perceives this effort, they may in turn also perceive an empathetic offender and highly unstable causal attributions regarding the offense, and hence, renewed benevolence. These restored perceptions of benevolence should lead to trust repair. However, that relationship may be qualified by the dispositional forgiveness of the victim. Despite evidence of benevolence, individuals low in dispositional forgiveness may hold back in their willingness to trust in the offender again. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual model and indicates the hypothesized relationships.

Parker, Atkins, and Axtell (2008) specify that perspective taking is an intentional act and a goal-directed process, in contrast to an automatic reaction or subconscious thoughts. "Active perspective taking occurs when an observer tries to understand, in a nonjudgmental way, the thoughts, motives, and/or feelings of a target, as well as why they think and/or feel the way they do" (Parker et al., 2008, p. 4). Others-focused perspective taking is not simply imagining oneself in another's position; it is understanding how the victim is uniquely affected by the events by fully taking their point of view (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000). An offender in an established relationship should be motivated to conduct this cognitive exercise in order to gain an understanding of the negative outcomes faced by the victim. Liking and closeness are antecedents of perspective taking (Ku, Wang, & Galinsky, 2015), thus an offender that values the damaged relationship may be more willing to take the time and energy necessary to put

themselves in the other's shoes. However, perspective taking requires full awareness, focused attention, and vulnerability. Feelings of shame may lead the offender to assume a defensive strategy where both the victim and the blame are avoided (Tangney, Stuewig, & Hafez, 2011).

There are four primary objectives for this present research involving the repair of benevolence-based trust violations. First, I extend the nascent literature on perceived perspective taking by applying it to the domain of trust repair. Second, I extend the programmatic work in trust repair by exploring the role of perceived empathy on the efficacy of a reparative action. Third, I extend Weiner's attribution theory by integrating it with perceived perspective taking. Fourth, and finally, I examine the relationship of dispositional forgiveness and trust repair by seeking to clarify the relationship between these constructs.

Hypothesis Development

Perceived Perspective Taking and Perceptions of Benevolence

Perspective taking has been linked to empathy and increased concern for others' welfare. In the wake of a negative event such as a trust violation, the victim of that event will instinctively seek to understand the cause (Heider, 1958). Trust may be able to be repaired if the offender can successfully reaffirm their commitment to the relationship in the eyes of the victim (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000). However, the degree of willingness to be vulnerable to the offender first depends on reestablishing trustworthiness in the eyes of the victim, and this may be especially challenging for violations of benevolence (Chen et al., 2011). Benevolence-based violations may leave the victim feeling betrayed and disregarded to an even deeper level than other dimensions of trustworthiness, because ability suggests a certain incapacity and integrity suggests it is part of the transgressor's inherent nature. Benevolence is more personal, because it speaks to the level of goodwill toward the victim, and the victim will not feel cared for after trust has been violated.

Perspective taking may offer a particularly salient lens to examine benevolence-based violations because walking in the victim's shoes can allow the offender to fully understand the negative effect of the transgression and include that information in the reparative efforts. In addition, perspective taking has been linked to perceived restraint from self-serving behavior that takes advantage of others, which reinforces perceptions of benevolence on behalf of the actor for the target (Williams, 2016b). While perspective taking has amassed a rich collection of research, perceived perspective taking, which focuses on the impact on the target after perceiving their perspective was taken, has only recently been proposed as a unique area for scholarly emphasis (Goldstein et al., 2014). Batson, Turk, Shaw, and Klein (1995) notes that perspective taking motivates the actor to address the needs of the target and prompts them to provide statements of concern and considerate actions. Those responses are precisely the types of indicators that lead to positive assessments of benevolence (Schoorman et al., 2007), which will allow the victim to regard the offender as more trustworthy due to improved judgements of benevolence.

When individuals share similarities and closeness with others, it can create a sense of familiarity and comfort. Newcomb's (1956) proposition of propinquity states that the close contact between individuals makes it more likely they will be attracted to one another. In addition, he proposed that if an individual discerns that another individual cares about him, he will tend to reciprocate with positive feelings as well. This interpersonal attraction is also driven by perceived similarity. Drawing on relational competency theory, Long and Andrews (1990) found evidence that perspective taking and perceived perspective taking by spouses significantly predicted their marital adjustment. This interpersonal and relational development occurs through interactions which help the two to conform to each other.

A group of studies utilizing dyadic negotiations found that perspective taking led to the most mutually beneficial solutions (Galinsky, Maddux, Gilin, & White, 2008). The individuals that had a perspective taking partner were more satisfied with how they were treated throughout the process. Negotiators that have a stronger dispositional tendency for perspective taking were also found to achieve more positive outcomes (Neale & Bazerman, 1983).

Self-verification theory posits that individuals wish to be seen by others as they see themselves (Swann, 2012). Thus, an individual will gravitate toward others that hold self-confirming evaluations. Conversely, an individual is more likely to exit a relationship when they fail to receive self-verification (Swann, De La Ronde, & Hixon, 1994). In the context of a trust violation, self-verification theory suggests that that the victim would seek to be viewed by the offender in the same way the victim views themselves. This overlaps with the previous description of perceived perspective taking, in which the target of the perspective taking believes the actor has taken on the victim's point of view. Self-verification requires the relationship to survive in order for verifications to perpetuate, which in turn motivates the individual seeking verification to accept reasonable accuracy on behalf of the perceiver to satisfy their need for congruent perspectives (Gill & Swann, 2004). This suggests that the perceived act of perspective taking may influence a victim to be motivated toward relationship repair.

Perceiving that the offender has successfully taken their point of view should lead a victim to recognize concern and support from the offender, which are hallmark traits of benevolence (Colquitt & Salam, 2012). This supportiveness is demonstrative of benevolence, which is more concerned about the intimacy of the relationship rather than simply the fairness of a situation (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). Perspective taking leads to helping behavior by orienting the perspective taker toward the needs of the target (Batson, 1991). Recognizing that perspective

taking has occurred may lead the victim to crediting the offender with higher levels of benevolence for their victim-focused efforts. Even the perceptions that the perspective taker is restraining from doing any further harm serve as reinforcement of benevolent motivations. However, a very shrewd or cynical victim may feel that the offender is taking on their point of view to gain information for defensive or selfish purposes.

In sum, perceived perspective taking suggests that the offender has taken a specific effort that shows benevolence toward the victim. Perspective taking may be perceived through the form or content of an apology, the size or delivery of compensation, the type of structural change made, and perhaps even a change in observable behavior, such as deferred actions. The act of perspective taking illustrates a willingness to exert effort and also gain understanding of the victim's experience. Further, this act of concern for the victim illustrates support for the victim, despite the fact that the offender was the cause of the initial distress. Perceiving that the offender has taken her perspective reaffirms in the victim the belief that the offender truly does care, and that the initial transgression is not illustrative of how the offender truly feels toward her. Thus, I contend:

> *Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between perceived perspective taking and perceived benevolence.*

Perceived Perspective Taking and Perceptions of Empathy

Extant literature has found that perspective taking by the actor is positively related to empathy in the actor (Okun, Shepard, & Eisenberg, 2000). These constructs are often studied together and require distinction because they are conceptually distinct. Perspective taking involves a focused cognitive activity of understanding what a target has experienced while empathy taps into how the actor feels toward the target, such as compassion or concern (see Ku

et al., 2015 for a review). Parker and Axtell (2001) succinctly explain that the collective

literature indicates that perspective taking involves a cognitive process that leads to an affective

reaction of empathy. Perspective taking provides a cognitive understanding of the target's

thoughts and viewpoints, while empathy provides understanding of how they feel (Longmire &

Harrison, 2018). Thus, evidence suggests these constructs and their outcomes are unique.

For the offender to have empathy, they must first be aware that the target's emotional

state was due to some event in order to gain understanding of the target's feelings in context (M.

L. Hoffman, 1975). As the victim attempts to understand the cause and nature of the trust

violation, they should also read signals displayed by the offender following the violation.

Williams (2007) notes that perspective taking creates better understanding and empathy, and

promotes caring actions. She also posits that perspective taking and its outcomes may also play a

major role in developing trust and trust repair (Williams, 2012).

In sum, when a victim perceives that the offender has taken the victim's perspective, it

will communicate that the offender understands the victim and empathizes with the victim's

feelings. As previously discussed in the literature review, perspective taking shares similarity

with empathy, but also distinctions. Perspective taking is the cognitive activity that leads to

empathy, which is an emotional response and sense of connection. The most salient aspect here

is that through the process of walking in the victim's shoes, the offender is able to identify with

the victim and their feelings. Thus, I contend:

> *Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between perceived perspective taking and*
> *perceived empathy.*

Perceived Empathy and Perceptions of Benevolence

Empathy focuses on emotions that are produced out of concern for another's welfare (Ku et al., 2015). There are various definitions and conceptualizations of empathy that hold specific meanings in different contexts. The present research regards empathy as compassion and care. Feeling understood may help the victim develop positive affect regarding the perspective taker (Williams, 2007), which may influence the victim's judgements of the offender's benevolence. Perceived empathy is unique from benevolence in that the former is an expression of emotion at a moment in time while the latter is an assessment of an individual's character. An individual can have an empathetic response to a stranger without holding any real regard for their personal welfare. Perceived benevolence considers the trustor's belief that the trustee has good intentions toward them while empathy is simply an emotional expression that may not have lasting implications.

Batson (2009) noted that empathy is a leading predictor of helping behavior and altruism, in terms of seeking to promote another's welfare. This concern for the welfare of another individual fits squarely in the definition of benevolence invoked by Mayer et al. (1995). Displays of concern, warmth, empathy, compassion, and softheartedness (Batson, Duncan, Ackerman, Buckley, & Birch, 1981; Oswald, 1996) by the offender directed at the victim should lead to upwardly revised perceptions of benevolence. Benevolence is concerned with judgements of goodwill and concern (Schoorman et al., 2007), which empathy will evoke. However, a momentary show of shared emotion does not necessarily suggest that a victim will judge that the offender wishes to do good to them.

Perceiving empathy on behalf of the offender helps the victim to feel cared for

and safe. It also begins to restore the emotional connection that was damaged by the transgression by providing evidence that the offender does in fact care for the victim. These outcomes share key features with perceived benevolence. Thus, I contend that:

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between perceived empathy and perceived benevolence.

I also posit that the relationship between perceived perspective taking and benevolence is partially mediated by empathy**.** Perspective taking facilitates relational understanding, increased self-other overlap, and promotes considerate behavior (Williams, 2012). These elements help bond two individuals together. It is precisely these affective connections that foster trust in relationships (McAllister, 1995; Williams, 2001). Affect is an influential signal within interpersonal interactions, "serving an adaptive function by mediating between continually changing situations and the individual's behavior" (Kubzansky & Kawachi, 2000, p. 324). Parker et al. (2008) found evidence that empathy mediates the relationship between perspective taking and helping behavior, which is a prosocial behavior rooted in benevolent motivations. In addition to the hypothesized direct relationship between perceived perspective taking and benevolence, I posit that perceptions of empathy will partially mediate that relationship.

While revised perceptions of benevolence may occur from discerning that the offender has walked in the victim's shoes, the perceptions of empathy will serve as reinforcement of the affect-based connection and care shown by the offender post-violation. If no expression of care or concern was conveyed, and only the cognitive exercise of perspective taking, that may leave lingering concerns that the perspective taking was merely an act without further implications. Apologies that clearly express empathy, acknowledge the violation, and involve actions or gestures showing that the trustee is important to the trustor have been posited to be more

effective in restoring relationship-based trust (Öztürk & Noorderhaven, 2018). As previously noted, perspective taking is an antecedent of empathy.

Goldstein et al. (2014) found that perceived empathy served as a mediator between perceiving that the offender has walked in their shoes and increased liking. Also, in an organizational setting, empathy which was induced by perspective taking was positively related to cooperative behavior (Parker & Axtell, 2001). Given these theory-based empirical findings and the rationale provided by the links in Hypotheses 2 and 3, I contend that:

Hypothesis 4: Perceived perspective taking will indirectly influence benevolence through perceived empathy.

Perceived Perspective Taking and Stability Attributions

Tomlinson and Mayer (2009) suggest that causal ascriptions of a benevolence-based violation would likely be regarded as internal, controllable, and mostly stable in established relationships and more unstable in early relationships. They go on to posit that "to the extent that the trustor sees the trustee as having a 'change of heart' and desires to do good in the future, damage resulting in lower benevolence may be repaired" (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009, p. 93).

Kramer and Lewicki (2010) identified three major reparative efforts that offenders may use following a trust violation: social accounts, compensation, and structural changes. Perspective taking may fit most naturally with social accounts, due to the verbal communication often used by an offender to communicate that they walked in the victim's shoes. However, the victim may perceive that the offender took their perspective by other forms of reparative actions as well. Tomlinson, Nelson, et al. (2020) provided empirical evidence that extensive apologies, compensation, and structural changes reduce stability attributions. Dirks et al. (2011) also found that apologies, compensation, and structural changes aided in trust repair through perceived

repentance. Tomlinson and Mayer (2009) posited that stability attributions are the most proximal outcome of a reparative effort such as an apology. Perspective taking may itself be viewed by the victim as a form of vulnerability or abasement, since it is a voluntary act that seeks to understand the victim.

Perspective taking involves the mental exercise of seeing the world through another's point of view. Parker et al. (2008) note that perspective taking can affect cognitive responses, such as reducing attribution error. While this effect has only been shown on the part of the actor, perceived perspective taking may influence the target's attributions. The target may view the source of the offense as the product of a temporary situational factor rather than resulting from a more permanent condition. Goldstein et al. (2014) found empirical support that many of the outcomes of perspective taking were also true of perceived perspective taking. Perspective is a key predictor of received respect, which considers an individual's perceived worth and esteem by their peers, which promotes a prosocial response (Ng, Hsu, & Parker, 2019). Thus, while the offense itself creates the need for an attribution to be made, perceived perspective taking communicates respect. Receiving this cue, which has an apparent signal opposite from the cause of the violation, should lead to the victim to view the cause of the transgression to be unstable.

Perspective-taking is positively associated with situation-based guilt, which leads to better relational outcomes following an offense (Leith & Baumeister, 1998). Individuals that understand their guilt are more likely to consider how others have been affected by their behavior, which encourages changed behavior and solution-finding which benefits relationship restoration (Baumeister, Stillwell, & Heatherton, 1994). In the opposite extreme, an individual avoiding taking the victim's perspective could instead signal a lack of guilt or an indifferent attitude toward the negative effects experienced by the target. Perspective taking can be

communicated in a variety of ways, such as listening intently, referring to another's viewpoint, agreeing with them, analyzing the issue, or providing advice (Ng et al., 2019), and these signals provide additional information for the victim when assigning attributions.

In addition, perspective taking is associated with liking, psychological closeness, helping behavior, and mimicry (Ku et al., 2015). These important outcomes should signal to the victim greater prosocial motivation in the offender, greater similarity between the offender and victim, a desire by the offender to do good, and the offender's mirroring of the victim's response. The effect of these individual and collective signals of the offender's perspective taking activity should suggest to a victim that the cause of the violation is not likely to recur. The cause of the violation should not appear congruent with the post-violation effort and activity of the offender. Thus, in light of the aforementioned rationale and following the theoretical framework of Tomlinson and Mayer (2009), I predict that perceived perspective taking will reduce the victim's attribution of stability regarding the cause of the violation.

In sum, discerning that the offender has taken their perspective following the offense should lead the victim to view the cause of the offense as due to more unstable, temporary factors. By exerting the effort to walk in their shoes, vicariously experiencing their mental and emotional state, the victim will receive a clear signal that the offense is unlikely to recur. Thus, I contend that:

> *Hypothesis 5: There is a negative relationship between perceived perspective taking and*
> *stability attributions.*

Stability Attributions and Perceptions of Benevolence

Heider (1958) suggests that individuals unknowingly behave like amateur psychologists, seeking to understand why people do what they do. This is acutely relevant in the wake of a trust

violation. Stable attributions suggest that the cause of the outcome is likely to recur. While trust repair is a bilateral process that engages both the offender and the victim, the onus is upon the offender to initiate reparative actions (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). A stable attribution would indicate that the offender does not consider or care about the well-being of the victim. This directly conflicts with perceptions of benevolence, which is centered around regard for the goodwill and benefit of another (Mayer et al., 1995). Therefore, the avoidance or prevention of doing harm would be interpreted as an act of goodwill, affirming the offender's benevolence toward the victim. A cross-cultural study found evidence for a related idea that stable attributions regarding the cause of an offense was significantly related to negative emotions and negatively related to positive emotions (Takaku, Weiner, & Ohbuchi, 2001).

Williams found empirical support that "perspective taking motivates and enables behavior that others are likely to view as involving restraint from self-interested and opportunistic behavior" (Williams, 2016b, p. 93). She used a design incorporating self-ratings and others-ratings to show that individuals that were higher in perspective taking were viewed by others as less likely to take advantage of others and engage in self-interested behavior. For example, by assuming the point of view of the victim, an offender will be able to better understand what words and actions might be interpreted as beneficial or harmful. The perspective taker will have a greater understanding of their target which drives the actor to fill the target's needs and prioritize her interests (Batson et al., 1995). Perspective taking gives the actor a greater sense of connectedness with the target (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005). Feeling understood validates the thoughts and feelings of the victim and provides a sense of re-established connection, rather than isolation and betrayal. If the victim views the perspective taker as showing restraint, this would suggest that they believe the violation was due to an

unstable cause. Since refraining from doing harm is a form of caring, this should lead to revised judgments of the offender's trustworthiness. The timing of perceived perspective taking will affect the subsequent reactions of the target. Whereas, perceived perspective taking prior to the violation may reinforce the benevolence-based violation because it would imply that the victim executed the negative action with full understanding of the consequences to the victim. However, in the present context, perceived perspective taking should occur post-violation, where the victim is seeking information to understand the cause and the offender tries to mitigate harm.

In sum, making an unstable attribution should relate to perceived benevolence because believing that the offender will not reoffend indicates care toward the victim. There has been a strong theoretical link from stability attributions to trustworthiness, as previously discussed. Thus, I contend:

Hypothesis 6: There is a negative relationship between stability attributions and

perceived benevolence.

In addition, I suggest that the relationship between perceived perspective taking and perceived benevolence is partially mediated by stability attributions. Perspective taking provides the actor with insight into the trust violation the target experienced, therefore providing them with new information regarding the effect of her actions. If the offender truly cares for the victim, she will in turn change the behavior, or refrain from it, in order to support the victim and restore goodwill to the relationship. Dirks et al. (2011) found evidence that reparative efforts influence trust repair through perceived repentance. Repentance indicates reformed behavior, which is very similar to an unstable attribution (Tomlinson, 2018). However, Tomlinson and Mayer (2009) posited that stability attributions are the most proximal outcome following a reparative action such as an apology. In addition to the hypothesized direct relationship between

perceived perspective taking and benevolence, I posit that stability attributions will partially

mediate that relationship.

Williams (2012) theorized that offenders that take the perspective of the victim are better

poised to offer an acceptable reparative action, such as a tailored apology that addresses the

aspects of the violation that are of most importance to the victim. In addition, Corcoran and

Mallinckrodt (2000) found that perspective taking in relationships leads to conflict resolution

that incorporates collaborative efforts and mutually positive conclusions. This others-focused,

rather than self-focused, approach should also signal to the victim that the offender views the

cause of the violation to be removed.

Scholars have also noted the relationship of intent with trust repair (De Cremer et al.,

2010; Desmet, De Cremer, & van Dijk, 2011). The victim discerning that the offender has

chosen to view the offense through the victim's point of view should signal low ascriptions of

bad intent. Williams (2016b) found that an actor's perspective taking is positively associated

with the target's perception of the actor's restraint from harmful behavior. If the offender was not

concerned about repeating the negative behavior leading to the trust violation, then there would

be no motivation or cause to take the victim's perspective in an effort to repair the damage.

In addition to the above arguments, Hypotheses 5 and 6 provide arguments for perceived

perspective taking being negatively related to stability attributions and stability attributions being

negatively related to perceived benevolence. Taken together, I contend that:

Hypothesis 7: Perceived perspective taking will indirectly influence benevolence through

the mediation of stability attributions.

Perceived Benevolence and Trust Repair

The integrative model of trust proposed by Mayer et al. (1995) indicates that trust is based upon the trustee's perceived trustworthiness. They also note that perceptions of trustworthiness are updated as additional information becomes available. Perceptions of trustworthiness may increase or decrease, independently of each other. Meta-analytic data confirmed the three-dimensional nature of trustworthiness, including ability, integrity, and benevolence (Colquitt et al., 2007). Additional work has shown strong evidence supporting these unique dimensions of perceived trustworthiness as antecedents of trust (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)

Perceived benevolence should particularly tap elements of trust based on affect, since it is concerned with the deepness and closeness of the relationship between the trustee and the trustor (McAllister, 1995). Benevolence exhibits concern for another's welfare, care for his needs, supporting his best interest, and helping behavior (cf. Mayer & Davis, 1999). These positive relational elements displayed by the offender will lead to higher judgements of benevolence by the victim and lead to the victim being willing to be vulnerable to the trustee again.

Early trust scholars also viewed benevolence as a core component to building trust (Solomon, 1960; Strickland, 1958). Benevolence indicates that the trustee supports, cares, and has prosocial intentions toward the trustor (Colquitt & Salam, 2012; Levine & Schweitzer, 2015). Loyalty is another element of benevolence that serves as an indication that the trustee cares for the trustor (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). The victim will likely perceive disloyalty on behalf of the offender following a benevolence-based trust violation, thus, the offender providing evidence of fidelity through renewed signals of benevolence may be particularly significant for a victim considering engaging in trust repair. A significant portion of the trust repair literature previously reviewed focused on restored perceptions of trustworthiness as the focal variable in repairing trust, however, it has been mum on how restored judgements of benevolence may

affect trust repair. Since benevolence-based violations may be the most damaging to relationships (Chen et al., 2011) and prior literature has failed to investigate benevolence-based violations in the context of trust repair (Kim et al., 2009), I seek to provide a better understanding of how perceived benevolence can be restored and its positive influence on trust repair. Perceived benevolence is a vital pillar on which trust is built (S. Jones & Shah, 2016), however its function and restoration in the wake of a trust violation is not currently understood.

In sum, restored perceptions of benevolence should serve as an antecedent to trust repair following an offense. Benevolence represents goodwill and care toward the trustee, which should reinforce a trustor's willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee.

Hypothesis 8: In the context of a benevolence-based violation, there is a positive relationship between restored perceptions of benevolence and trust repair.

Perceived Empathy and Trust Repair

McAllister (1995) highlights that trust has two dimensions, one more cognitively focused and the other based on affect. He refers to affect-based trust as the degree of emotional connection that the trustee and trustor share. Bagdasarov, Connelly, and Johnson (2019) found evidence that empathy aided in the trust repair process, specifically highlighting the need to better understand the role affect plays in rebuilding trust. "Empathy serves as an emotional signal of oneness" (Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000, p. 720). Mayer and Davis (1999) validated a measure of trust that has been widely used. While Mayer et al. (1995) do not ascribe to the two-dimensional model of trust presented by McAllister (1995), their definition and subsequent measures still reveal some logical connections with affect-based elements. For example, giving the trustee influence over issues important to the trustor, giving control of the trustor's future, relying on the trustor, and choosing not to monitor (Mayer & Davis, 1999) could all be argued to

have some basis in the closeness or depth of the relationship, which signals strong affective

bonds (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995). Stated differently, if the trustee had a shallow and distant

relationship with the trustee, they would be less likely to trust that individual. Conflict does not

have the same detrimental effects on close relationships when there are shared feelings and

understanding (Gordon & Chen, 2016). By the offender showing interest and support, sharing the

thoughts and feelings of the victim, and engaging in vulnerability by leaving his own comfort

zone to meet the victim where they stand, an offender lays a strong groundwork for restoring the

willingness of the victim to trust him again. Trust research predominantly has focused on the role

of cognitions in determining the level of one's trust while neglecting the equally important effect

of emotions (Williams, 2001). Similarly, scholars have noted the absence of emotions in

considerations of the trust repair process (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017).

In sum, sensing empathy on the part of the offender will relate to trust repair due

to the victim's regard for the expressed compassion. Thus, I contend:

Hypothesis 9: In the context of a benevolence-based violation, there is a positive

relationship between perceived empathy and trust repair.

Stability Attributions and Trust Repair

Weiner (1986) suggests that when considering the three dimensions of attributions –

locus of causality, stability, and controllability – stability emerges as the primary predictor of

future expectation. This speaks to the level of resulting trust repair, since they victim will base

the level of their willingness to be vulnerable to the offender on the degree to which they expect

the offense to occur again. While early trust repair studies focused on internal versus external

locus of causality, Tomlinson and Mayer (2009) shifted the conversation to focusing on stability

attributions, since violations of trust only truly exist under internal attributions for the negative

event. This cognitive calculation of trust focuses on dependability. The trustee must decide the extent to which they can reasonably predict future outcomes. Thus, the degree to which they regard the cause as unstable should relate to the extent to which they are willing to trust. Tomlinson (2004) found empirical evidence for a negative relationship between stability attributions and trust repair. Tomlinson, Nelson, et al. (2020) also provided evidence for stability and justice mediating the relationship between reparative efforts and trust repair in the context of a competence-based violation. The relevance of stability attributions should be even more salient in the context of a benevolence-based violation, where a stable attribution would mean that the victim perceives the offender as likely to transgress again due to the cause of the negative outcome remaining unchanged, indicating a continued lack of care. Since benevolence-based trust is focused on the dimension laden with the most affective and personal components, an unstable cause of the breach is vital for the trustor to have any increase in their level of willingness to be vulnerable.

In sum, assessing that the cause of the offense is unlikely to recur will lead to the victim's willingness to be vulnerable again.

Hypothesis 10: In the context of a benevolence-based violation, there is a negative relationship between stability attributions and trust repair.

The Victims' Perceptions, Attributions, Judgements, and Dispositional Forgiveness

Everyone says forgiveness is a lovely idea, until they have something to forgive.

– C.S. Lewis

This quote is particularly striking in the context of trust repair, where a victim has her trust violated and the offender may or may not be deemed worthy of forgiveness. I suggest that once a trustee loses their halo in a certain trustor's eyes, the trustee that violated the trustor's

trust may never be able to regain their prior standing with that individual again without significant signals of changed behavior. Due to the personal nature of benevolence-based violations, individuals low in dispositional forgiveness may feel severely and irreparably violated. Individuals low in dispositional forgiveness "tend to ruminate in a vengeful manner following offenses and perhaps hold hostile attitudes toward others" (Berry, Worthington, Parrott, O'Connor, & Wade, 2001, p. 1287).

Benevolence. Dispositional forgiveness is negatively associated with negative emotions, such as anger and anxiety (Berry et al., 2001). Forgiveness is associated with agreeableness and is negatively associated with narcicists, as they consider themselves entitled to better treatment and hold their self-respect in high importance (Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004). Thus, because of the personal nature of such offenses, benevolence violations have a particularly high risk of the victim withdrawing from the relationship, making trust repair impossible (Grover et al., 2014). Lewicki and Bunker (1996) specifically address the requirement that both parties are needed and must be engaged in order to repair trust. Therefore, regardless of the amount of benevolence shown toward a victim, low levels of dispositional forgiveness may cause a victim to avoid the reconciliation process and trust repair altogether. Victims may even experience less care and concern toward the offenders, making them less inclined to forgive (Hoyt, Fincham, McCullough, Maio, & Davila, 2005), so for a low forgiver, they may disregard any show of benevolence because they do not reciprocate the sentiment. However, low forgivers are still able to be objective, and will take cues and information such as an apology into consideration when determining whether or not to forgive their transgressor (McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997). Low forgivers tend to have stronger negative emotions and anxiety (Mauger, Perry, Freeman, & Grove, 1992), and feelings of inadequacy

need to be alleviated for them to engage in forgiveness. However, there is evidence that suggests that sincere apologies and a show of concern can have a meaningful impact on the victim's forgiveness (Gonzales, Haugen, & Manning, 1994). In contrast, individuals high in dispositional forgiveness will be more inclined to engage in the trust repair process because of their agreeableness. High levels of dispositional forgiveness is associated with high levels of self-esteem, which makes the victim less defensive and sensitive to violations (Eaton, Struthers, & Santelli, 2006). Thus, granting forgiveness and subsequent relationship restoration is dependent on the victim feeling safe (Worthington & Wade, 1999). While forgiveness is able to occur without relationship repair, relationship repair cannot happen without the victim forgiving (Coleman, 1998). Ultimately, the high forgiver abandons their right to resentment through a generous act of mercy, while a low forgiver will first seek confirmation of change before granting forgiveness (Enright, Freedman, & Rique, 1998).

> *Hypothesis 11a: Perceived benevolence and dispositional forgiveness interactively affect trust repair such that the relationship between perceived benevolence and trust will become positively stronger for low dispositional forgiveness than when it is high.*

> *Empathy.* Following a transgression, the victim may instinctively wish to seek revenge or avoid the offender, but forgiveness causes those reactions to diminish and can allow the victim to resume the relationship (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). Being high or low in dispositional forgiveness should not affect whether or not the victim discerns empathy on the part of the offender, but it may change their response. Research suggests that forgivers are sensitive to cues provided by the offender, where expressed concern for the victim facilitates forgiveness while defensiveness discourages forgiveness (Gonzales et al., 1994). There is a positive link between forgiveness and relationship repair (McCullough, Rachal, et al., 1998).

While a victim high in forgiveness will naturally be more inclined to forgive, a victim low in forgiveness will be unlikely to forgive without observing evidence to counter the prior offense. A low forgiver should be specifically attuned to a display of empathy, and it should influence their forgiveness. In contrast, a high forgiver would be more optimistic regardless of perceived empathy. Ultimately, being high in dispositional forgiveness reduces the negative affective responses of the victim making them more open to increasing trust (McCullough, Exline, & Baumeister, 1998), while those low in dispositional forgiveness will rely more heavily on the post-violations actions of the offender.

> *Hypothesis 11b: Perceived empathy and dispositional forgiveness interactively affect trust repair such that the relationship between perceived empathy and trust will become positively stronger for low dispositional forgiveness than when it is high.*

> *Stability.* Desmet et al. (2010) found that dispositional forgiveness moderates the relationship between perceived repentance and trusting behavior following an offense, showing evidence that individuals that are high in forgiveness did not require as much evidence of the offender's repentance to act on their trust, while individuals low in forgiveness held less regard for proof of repentance. This should also extend to stability attributions and trust. Weiner (1986) states that stability attributions are particularly salient following negative outcomes, which makes it a key focus in the context of trust repair. Dispositional forgiveness has also been shown to change individuals' attributions regarding the motives of abusive supervision, where high forgivers interpreted abusive behavior not as harmful, but as performance promoting (Yang, Liu, Stackhouse, & Wang, 2020). High forgivers are more generous when considering the offender's motives, while low forgivers may not be concerned with motives at all, considering the relational damage permanent without significant evidence of future protection from the same harm.

Research suggests that low forgivers place higher conditions on the response of the offender, while those high in forgiveness are quick to forgive without requiring the offender to earn their forgiveness (Enright et al., 1998). Similarly, low forgivers are highly sensitive to the severity of an offense, while high forgivers are more inclined to instinctively forgive, regardless of the severity of the wrongdoing (Brown & Phillips, 2005). Thus, a low forgiver should be more sensitive to stability attributions than a high forgiver. This is because a high forgiver will be more naturally inclined to forgive, while the low forgiver will require a certain burden of proof that the cause of the violation has changed, rendering it unlikely to recur. Thus, the low forgiver will place a higher premium on stability attributions such that an unstable attribution will lead to trust when a stable attribution would not.

> *Hypothesis 11c: Stability attributions and dispositional forgiveness interactively affect trust repair such that the relationship between stability attributions and trust will become negatively stronger for low dispositional forgiveness than when it is high.*

It is important to note the scenario where a victim may fully forgive an offender but still choose not to place any meaningful level of trust in them. Victims should only pursue reconciliation when the offender is no longer considered a threat (Fincham, 2015). In the context of the present study, revised perceptions of benevolence, perceived empathy, and unstable causal attributions should serve to mitigate the perceived risk to the victim, giving them ample evidence to engage in trust repair. However, regardless of evidence of changed behavior, dispositional differences in an individual's willingness to forgive may determine whether or not they choose to permanently withdraw from the relationship, rather than be vulnerable to the offender again. In sum, dispositional forgiveness will moderate the relationships of restored benevolence perceptions, perceived empathy, and stability attributions with trust repair.

Chapter IV. Methods

Study 1

The purpose of study 1 is to examine the effect of perceived perspective taking in the context of interpersonal trust repair, specifically testing the hypotheses represented in Figure 1.

Participants

The required power to identify effects was considered a priori to determine the target sample size to test the hypotheses using path analysis. A minimum sample size for model testing is between 100-150 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), however, N = 200 has become a more widely accepted rule of thumb (Boomsma & Hoogland, 2001; Kline, 2005). The N:q rule is a sample size heuristic where N is the sample and q is the number of free parameters. For instance, five cases per variable is a liberal estimate (Bentler & Chou, 1987), but ten cases per path has been a longstanding convention (Nunnally, 1967; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006). Kline (2016) recommends a ratio of 20 to 1. Study 1 contains 13 estimated paths and using a moderate estimate of 10:1 requires a minimum sample size of 130. However, because study 1 uses a critical incident technique, a high attrition rate was anticipated due to participants not having a relevant experience to engage in the survey. Ultimately, 294 initial responses were collected. After screening for unusable data that required elimination for being incomplete or inaccurate, missing data, or multivariate outliers (extreme residual values across several constructs), the final sample was 262. This screening process is further described in the results section.

The sample for study 1 consisted of three sources. First, 81 participants were recruited through a southeastern based healthcare organization that disseminated an invitation to participate in the study to their employees. Potential participants received a cover letter explaining the general goals of the research, namely examining workplace dynamics. It

explained that participation was completely voluntary and that they may discontinue the survey at any point. Special emphasis was given to the anonymity of responses, and the researcher's contact information was provided if participants preferred an alternate arrangement or had questions. Participation was incentivized by offering three prizes in the form of pre-paid debit cards valued at $100 by entering an email address in a link to a separate survey. The drawing was completed using a random number generator to select from a numbered list of all participants that elected to enter their email addresses into the drawing. The secondary plan to increase sample size utilized snowball sampling by incentivizing students with course credit for recruiting eligible working adults. This resulted in 24 additional participants in the study. The final 156 participants were recruited via crowdsourcing on Mechanical Turk. Thus, the final sample size was 262.

The age of participants ranged from 18 to 76, with an average age being 38. Fifty-six percent of the participants were female. The primary racial groups consisted of 81% White, 8% Asian, and 5% Black. Participants from various industries were represented, however the highest concentration came from healthcare or social assistance (16.4%) and educational services (15.6%). The average relationship tenure for the focal relationship described by the participants was 3 years, ranging from a few weeks to 22 years.

Procedure

A survey link was provided to potential participants for voluntary involvement. A cover letter described the general purposes of the survey and ensured the anonymity of all information collected. Participants were notified of their ability to withdraw at any time by simply exiting the survey. Initial questions collected demographic information. Dispositional forgiveness was randomly placed at the beginning or end of the survey to identify if it had any effect on the

responses on trust repair. Critical incident technique (CIT) methodology was used in order to prompt narrative responses of salient offenses that have occurred with coworkers. After describing the details of their personal situation in which a coworker offended them in some way and exerted some type of effort to restore the relationship, participants completed a questionnaire of focal measures.

CIT was used in this field study to elicit specific benevolence-based violation examples experienced by the participants, similar to the approach of Aquino, Tripp, and Bies (2006). Respondents were first given the definition of benevolence, based on Mayer et al. (1995). Next, each respondent was asked to think about his or her workplace relationships and recall a benevolence-based trust violation he or she had personally experienced and then respond to a questionnaire with that scenario in mind. Narrative responses were coded into ability-, benevolence-, and integrity-, or an other-category to ensure only benevolence-based violations were included in analysis. While this design does not afford the ability to capture pre- or post-violation levels of benevolence or trust, I borrowed from examples and precedent set by the service recovery literature to show that the concept of recovery or restoration can be understood by this methodology (Baker & Kim, 2020; Gremler, 2004; K. D. Hoffman, Kelley, & Chung, 2003; Miller, Craighead, & Karwan, 2000). CIT invokes critical incidents which are remembered because they were meaningful experiences and individuals remember strong, negative events more readily than positive events. To help identify the change in perceived benevolence and trust, I adapted the scale anchors for these items to indicate present levels in comparison to post-violation levels.

The following script, adapted from the approach used by Fraser (2010), served as the prompt for narrative responses:

1. This study is about exploring your perceptions of what contributed to someone violating your trust in the workplace and how they worked to regain it. Benevolence-based trust relies on the extent to which you believe your coworker wants to do good toward you, without any selfish motivations. Their goodwill for you may appear in ways such as loyalty, openness, caring, or supportiveness. A violation of this benevolence-based trust may show up as a lack of concern for your welfare, a disregard for your needs, intentionally hurting you, not supporting your best-interest, or failing to help you. Please describe in your own words what benevolence-based trust means.

2. Using the previous description as a reference, please think of a specific situation in which someone you work with violated your benevolence-based trust by acting disloyal, neglectful, discouraging, and/or detached. What happened?

3. Describe what actions the offender took following the offense to help regain your benevolence-based trust.

4. How long did it take to move from the point where the breach of trust occurred to the re-building of benevolence-based trust?

5. Thank you for sharing with me your story. Let me give you a minute to reflect and think. What additional information is important to know about regarding the incident you described?

After describing a specific trust-violation they experienced, the respondents received a questionnaire that inquired about their subsequent perceptions and reactions. They were also asked how close they are to the offender and how long they have known them, since relationship closeness and experience may be an important indicator and correlate for the development of benevolence and trust. Trained judges classified the qualitative trust violations into the

predetermined categories of ability, benevolence, integrity, or "other" for blended violations and undetermined types of violations. Interrater agreement above .80 was considered adequate for inclusion. Responses were coded by violation type using a codebook defining and providing examples of ability, integrity, benevolence, or other. This verification of the qualitative responses served as the attention check and any respondents that did not understand or respond appropriately were removed prior to any data analysis. Additionally, narrative responses were judged for adequate detail to ensure that the subsequent questionnaire responses were linked to a salient experience of the respondent. The corresponding quantitative data from the questionnaire regarding those violations was used to test the relationships defined in the conceptual model in Figure 1.

I approached the measurement of benevolence and trust by asking the respondents to consider their level of agreement following a reparative action in comparison to post-violation levels – before any reparative effort was made. This type of quantitative measurement of focal variables in reference to a certain standard follows the precedent of related CIT research. Fraser (2010) asked participants at a single point in time to respond on a scale from 0 (lowest trust level) to 10 (highest trust level) to retrospectively consider the level of trust before, during, following a repair effort, and after a specified interval of time, in order to provide reference for the trust repair process. In an example from the service recovery literature, Miller et al. (2000) asked participants to rate their loyalty following a service failure and recovery process, and whether their opinion of the company had improved following the resolution of the incident. Study 1 measured benevolence and trust using a 5-point Likert-type scale with a range of *much less than before, less than before, same as before, more than before, much more than before,* based on comparison-based response anchors from Vagias (2006). In addition, the adaptation of

Likert-type scales that use a subjective benchmark as the standard for comparison has been used across many domains. For example, business students' satisfaction has been measured using a Likert-type scale ranging from *far below expectations* to *far above expectations* (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler, 2006). Research on the impact of separation anxiety in the context of mergers and acquisitions measured self-reported emotional states ranging from *much worse* to *much better* (Astrachan, 2004). Also, T. Jones and Gautschi (1988) had respondents compare their ethical standards to those of another group in terms of being *much lower* to *much higher*. These methodological and measurement approaches provide precedent for the present study design and measurement.

Measures

All focal measures used in the studies are contained in Appendix A.

Perceived perspective taking. I used the 6-item dimension of perspective taking from Davis' (1980) Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI). The instructions and measures were adapted to the present study by changing the referent from the respondent themselves to the offender indicated in the respondent's critical incident. In addition, the items were reworded to be situational-based, rather than the original dispositional focus. There are no validated measurements of perceived perspective taking, and extant literature has primarily relied on single-item measurement.

Perceived empathy. Respondents reported their perceptions of a specific other's empathy by responding to a series of adjectives used in seminal work on empathy (Batson et al., 1981; Davis, 1980; Oswald, 1996). The instructions directed respondents to respond to the list of key words based on how well they describe the coworker indicated in their personal experience. The

5-point semantic differential anchors are "does not describe at all how my offender felt after the incident" and "describes how my offender felt after the incident extremely well".

Stability attributions. Stability attributions were measured using the 3-items from McAuley, Duncan, and Russell's (1992) revised Causal Dimension Scale (CDS-II). All items used a 9-point semantic differential.

Benevolence. Perceptions of benevolence were measured using the 5-item scale from Mayer and Davis (1999). The scale anchors were adapted in order to speak to the reparative focus of the study. Thus, a 5-point Likert scale was used with instructions to indicate agreement with the statement in comparison to directly after the incident, marking "Much lower than before – Lower than before – About the same as before – Higher than before – Much higher than before".

Trust. Respondents reported on their level of trust using the 10-item scale from Mayer and Gavin (2005). Following prior trust studies, the referent was changed to meet the context of the study. The same scale anchors used for benevolence were also included for trust.

Dispositional forgiveness. The dispositional forgiveness of respondents was measured using the 6-item Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS) from Thompson et al. (2005). This full scale includes three subscales which includes forgiveness of self (6 items), forgiveness of others (6 items), and forgiveness of situations (6 items). However, only forgiveness of others was measured since this was the focal area. A low score indicates low levels of dispositional forgiveness and high indicates high levels.

Relationship closeness and tenure. The closeness and tenure of the relationship between the trustee and trustor were used as potential control variables. The level of their relationship may factor into the victim's responses following the offense. A two item-scale was used to

measure relationship closeness (Williams, 2016a; Williams & Polman, 2015) and participants responded to a question indicating how long they have known the offender ranging from less than 1 year and beyond.

Integrity and Behavioral Integrity were collected in addition to be used as potential control variables.

Study 2

Study 2 was added to provide experimental control regarding perceptions of benevolence and incorporating various reparative efforts for comparison. By creating an experimental vignette with high benevolence and comparing reactions to the reparative response of the offender, I further test the hypothesized model.

Participants

Power analysis was estimated using the convention of 10 cases for each of the 13 predicted paths, and with 3 experimental conditions, a target sample size of 390 was set. 428 participants were recruited via crowdsourcing on Mechanical Turk and paid directly for completing the survey. The final sample following the data screening described in the results section resulted in a final sample size of 362 used for analysis. The average age of participants was 39, ranging from 20 to 73. Male participants made up 56% of the sample. 74% were White, 11% were Asian, 8% Black, and 6% Hispanic. Many industries were represented with the largest majorities working in professional, scientific, or technical services (12%) and information (9%).

Procedure

Participants were randomly assigned one of 3 (no response, apology, perspective taking) between-subjects conditions. The no response condition was used as a control group to show differences achieved through apology and perspective taking. Apologies are a common and

socially expected response following an offense. Perspective taking can be most easily communicated through a social account, so this experimental design will provide a more accurate test to ensure these two responses are not conflated. By contrasting differences between an apology and perspective taking I further test the model to see if perspective taking alone is a stronger predictor of trust repair than a simple apology. The benevolence-based relationship scenario were adapted from Mayer and Norman (2004) to suggest high benevolence relationships. Demographic data were collected and then each participant was instructed to read the scenario and imagine themselves in the scenario as it is described. Dispositional forgiveness was placed at the beginning or end of the survey to identify if there was any bias in responses after discerning what the focal research items were. Perceived benevolence and trust were measured immediately following the violation, the reparative action was provided, and then participants responded to the rest of the focal variables, including benevolence and trust at time 2. There is a threat of demand characteristics occurring because participants may have been aware of the purpose of the study.

Benevolence-based relationship scenario:

> *Your coworker Terry has always acted on the up-and-up from everything you've seen and heard. Terry always gets things done well and is respected by all. He has always been particularly good to you, and it's clear that Terry likes and respects you. You and Terry go to lunch, socialize, and have built a relationship over the last few years.*
>
> Violation:
>
> *One day you learn from the office grapevine that there is a promotion (with pay raise) available in your department. You hear that Terry was asked by your boss for his*

opinion/recommendation for the position, and Terry has recommended another

coworker. Not you.

The participants were randomly assigned to a condition that included either no response, an

apology, or perspective taking. Following the introduction of the violation, benevolence and trust

were measured at time 1.

No response/Control Group:

You confront Terry, and he declined to respond on the matter.

Apology:

You confront Terry, and he apologizes saying that he's truly sorry he didn't recommend

you.

Perspective taking:

You confront Terry, and he responds by saying, "I can see how this made you feel.

Believe me, I can totally put myself in your shoes. I completely understand how

emotionally challenging and stressful thinking about this has made this difficult

situation."

A manipulation check was included to verify that participants recognized the condition they

received. A multiple choice option asked, "How did Terry respond after being confronted with

your offense?" with four options, including, "he declined to respond", "he apologized", "he took

my point of view about it", and "I don't know".

Measures

Following reading the experimental vignette, participants responded to the focal

measures of perceived empathy and stability attributions, and post-reparative effort levels of

perceived benevolence and trust at time 2. Please see appendix B.

Chapter V. Results

Study 1 Results

Preliminary analysis. Participants responded to five critical incident technique-based cues which prompted them to provide narrative responses. This qualitative data served multiple purposes, namely ensuring each participant conceptually understood benevolence-based trust, ensuring that they were reflecting on a benevolence-based offense, considering the perceived responses of the offender, considering how time may have influenced the trust repair process, and offering an opportunity for additional pertinent information to be provided. Two judges were trained and given a codebook which included written instructions and definitions. Interrater agreement was calculated using the reliability index (% of agreement = # of agreements / # of decisions) in accordance with most CIT studies (Gremler, 2004). This resulted in 92% agreement, above the 80% threshold established a priori. Following the blind coding, any discrepancies were discussed and settled among the judges. Ultimately, of the 294 initial cases, 29 were rejected, resulting in a usable sample of 265. Rejections were primarily due to insufficient detail to ensure a salient event was being considered, unclear offenders (i.e., group settings where there were multiple offenders), non-work-related incidents (i.e., spousal conflict), not benevolence-based offenses (integrity-based offenses such as theft or ability-based offenses such as lack of skill to perform a task). Quantitative data screening using Mahalanobis distance identified three multivariate outliers which were also removed prior to any analysis. This resulted in a final sample of 262.

Descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and the reliabilities for the focal variables are provided in Table 1. The focal variables shared significant correlations in the predicted direction. Prior to examining any path analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. The

variables included in this analysis were benevolence, empathy, stability attributions, trust, behavioral integrity, relational closeness, and dispositional forgiveness. There were a total of 44 indicators among the 8 variables with a sample size of 262. Table 2 provides a summary of the fit statistics resulting from the various factor solutions tested. Ultimately, the baseline seven-factor model suggested a good fit (x^2 = 1695.97; df = 874; RMSEA = 0.06; RMSEA CI [0.056, 0.064], CFI = 0.90; SRMR = 0.05).

Model testing. Study 1 utilized critical incident technique methodology to elicit salient benevolence-based offenses for participants to reflect on as they completed the questionnaire. Figure 2 provides results of the path analysis conducted in Mplus version 8.6 and Table 3 provides the detailed layout of the statistical output. The model fit indices for study 1 are suboptimal, and while the following results are interpreted, it is done with mindfulness of this limitation of the evidence. The direct effect of perceived perspective taking on benevolence was not significant (b = -.04, CI= [-.13, .06], p = 0.05); this finding was counter to expectations and hypothesis 1 was not supported. However, it was noted that the preliminary analyses indicated a significant relationship (b = .46, p < .01) but this path was no longer significant after including mediating variables. The total indirect effect of perceived perspective taking on benevolence was significant (b = .28, CI [.32, .59] p < .01). Specifically, hypothesis 4, which predicted the indirect relationship of perceived perspective taking to benevolence through empathy, was supported (b = .21, CI [.28, .55], p < .01), along with hypothesis 2, the direct relationship of perceived perspective taking on empathy (b = .72, CI [.67, .77], p < .01) and hypothesis 3, the relationship between empathy and benevolence (b = .30, CI [.19, .41] p < .01). Hypothesis 7 was supported, with results indicating a significant indirect effect of perceived perspective taking on benevolence through stability attributions (b = -.04, CI [.01, .23], p = .05). While the p-value

(.054) did not meet the a priori level of significance, the bootstrapped confidence intervals do not contain zero. Muthen et al. (2017) advise to use the bootstrapped confidence intervals since they account for non-normality in the effect which could bias the p-value. Since such estimates can be distributed asymmetrically, bootstrapped confidence intervals are by design a more technically accurate test and take precedence over p-values (Muthen & Muthen, 2017). Hypothesis 5, suggesting a negative relationship between perceived perspective taking and stability attributions was supported ($b = -.54$, [-.61, -.46] $p < .01$), along with hypothesis 6, the negative relationship between stability attributions and benevolence ($b = -.12$, CI [-.22, -.02], $p < .01$). The relationship between perceived benevolence and trust was significant ($b = .36$, CI [.14, .36] $p < .01$). Hypothesis 8 was supported. The relationship between empathy and trust was significant ($b = .16$ CI [.04, .27], $p < .05$), supporting hypothesis 9. The path between stability attributions and trust was both significant and negative ($b = -.24$, CI [-34, -12], $p < .01$), which provided support for hypothesis 10.

The hypothesized moderation effects were not supported. Hypothesis 11a predicted benevolence and dispositional forgiveness interactively affecting trust ($b = -.01$, CI [-.06, .05] $p = .86$), 11b predicted perceived empathy and dispositional forgiveness interactively affecting trust ($b = .01$, CI [-.06, .05] $p = .86$), and 11c predicted stability and dispositional forgiveness interactively affecting trust ($b = -.02$, CI [-.12, .09] $p = .73$). Further investigation showed the direct relationship between dispositional forgiveness and trust was small but significant ($b = .16$, $p < .01$). In addition, there was not a statistically significant difference between participants that responded to the scale for dispositional forgiveness before or after the CIT cues and focal variables ($M_{before} = 5.02$, $M_{after} = 4.57$, $p = .62$). Finally, the full model statistics indicated moderate fit ($x^2 = 142.49$; df = 20; RMSEA = 0.15, RMSEA CI [.13, .17]; CFI = 0.75; SRMR =

0.10). The same analysis was conducted without the inclusion of behavioral integrity as a control variable and this resulted in better overall model fit statistics (x^2 = 44.61; df = 14; RMSEA = 0.09, RMSEA CI [0.062, 0.122]; CFI = 0.90; SRMR = 0.06). However, since integrity is a theoretically related covariate of benevolence, it was retained in the analysis.

Study 2 Results

Preliminary analysis. Four hundred and twenty-eight participants completed the online scenario-based questionnaire. Thirteen multivariate outliers were identified by utilizing Mahalanobis distance, leaving 415 usable cases. However, 12.5% failed a manipulation that attempted to verify that the violation was benevolence-based. Thus, those responses were removed, leaving a final sample of 362. A second manipulation check sought to verify that participants understood the response they received following the offense. 87.3% accurately recognized the reparative condition they received. This met the threshold of acceptance established by comparable trust repair studies (Tomlinson, et al. 2020; Kim et al., 2004).

The means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and composite reliability scores for the combined groups are recorded in Table 4a. Additionally, separate correlation tables are included for each condition, perspective taking (Table 4b), apology (Table 4c), and the control condition that received no response (Table 4d). The CFA results for the baseline model and alternative models are presented in Table 5.

Model testing. The three experimental condition groups used in analysis were each manipulated through random assignment of the participants in study 2. However, no meaningful conclusions can be drawn from the model testing path analysis results due to very poor model fit (x^2 = 142.49; df = 20; RMSEA = 0.15, RMSEA CI [.13, .17]; CFI = 0.75; SRMR = 0.10). While the results of the statistical analyses are provided as supplementary information, no clear support

can be derived from the statistical output since the tests of the structural models did not meet

model fit standards (Kline, 2016; Hu & Bentler, 1995). Thus, the results of the stastical analyses

conducted on study 2 are available in Appendix C as supplemtentary information only and

cannot be interpreted.

Chapter VI. Discussion

The purpose of these studies was to consider factors that influence trust repair in the context of a benevolence-based violation. Specifically, by incorporating perceived perspective taking theory, I posited that a victim's trust perceptions of a focal offender can be explained through appraisals of perceived empathy, causal stability, and revised judgements of benevolence. In addition, I argued that dispositional forgiveness may qualify the effect of those constructs on trust repair. Study 1 utilized the critical incident technique to elicit real, salient personal experiences of workplace trust violations. Study 2 utilized an experimental design to manipulate perceived perspective taking, as well as an apology and a control group, to look at the unique effect and control for possible confounds in study 1. However, the overall findings suggest that perceived perspective taking's influence on restoring benevolence-based violations operates through perceived empathy and unstable attributions regarding the cause of the offender's transgression. Restored perceptions of benevolence had a positive and significant relationship with trust repair across both studies but did not interact with dispositional forgiveness.

Summary of Key Findings

Many of the hypotheses presented in the theoretical model were supported by study 1, however there were also some surprising results. First, the empirical results provide evidence that the positive and significant relationship between perceived perspective taking and perceptions of benevolence is fully mediated by empathy and unstable causal attributions. Thus, perceived perspective taking affects the trust repair process indirectly. This influence of perspective taking on benevolence and trust repair existed through empathy across both studies.

There was also evidence that causal stability attributions mediate the role of perspective taking on benevolence.

The failed prediction that perceived perspective taking would directly predict perceived benevolence suggests that all the influence of perspective taking is through other variables. The direct relationship was positive and significant in isolation, but within the model there was only an indirect effect. One possible explanation for this result is that perceived perspective taking may be viewed by the victim as inadequate evidence that the offender truly cares. Much like words in an apology can be viewed as cheap talk (Farrell & Rabin, 1996) rather than meaningful or costly effort, perspective taking alone is not a sufficient response to restore perceptions of benevolence. Since perspective taking is a purely cognitive exercise, the findings suggest that it is primarily the subsequent empathetic response that provides convincing evidence of benevolence. Similarly, understanding the victim's perspective signals that the source of the violation is unstable, as evidenced by the negative relationship between perceived perspective taking and stability attributions. This means that a victim believes it is unlikely that the offender will commit the same offense. Thus, taken together, the present evidence suggests that the offender's perspective taking efforts are important to restoring positive evaluations of benevolence because of the consequences of perspective taking, not simply the act of walking in the victim's shoes alone.

Second, revised perceptions of benevolence showed a significant relationship with trust repair in study 1. Empathy and stability attributions were both significantly related to trust repair in study 1. Study 1 evoked actual grievances and while there may be confounding influences, the design allows for additional time and detail to inform the victim's perceptions and possibly influence the level of trust placed in the offender. Study 2 was vignette-based, and while that

provides additional experimental control, it also removes the direct contact that real-world trust violations involve. Thus, the limited information available within a scenario-based study may have impacted the response to focal measures.

Third, the failed interactive effect of dispositional forgiveness was an unexpected result. These null findings suggest that dispositional forgiveness may play less of a role than previously thought. In study 1, forgiveness did not moderate the effect of benevolence, empathy, or stability attributions on trust repair. This may be due to several possibilities, such as low power, measurement considerations, or research design. There is a current discussion about the role moderators play in organizational research and whether the methods and power being used are appropriate (Murphy & Russell, 2017). The present research considered these issues and looked at a priori power estimates and utilized bootstrapping to help mitigate such concerns. However, the ability to identify an effect if it exists remains difficult in small studies.

Forgiveness can be challenging to measure since it can be examined as both dispositional or situational and is concerned with emotionally charged contexts. Research suggests that dispositional forgiveness is a clear predictor of situational forgiveness, and that situational forgiveness is harder to measure in scenario-based studies. However, since benevolence-based offenses are particularly personal, there may be added contextual issues that affect the measurement of forgiveness. Because of the possibility of responder bias, the order of receiving forgiveness related items was randomized in the present studies to either be received at the beginning or the end of the survey, and there was no statistical difference between groups in either study. Forgiveness takes time to occur (Worthington et al., 2000), thus a vignette study is not ideal for allowing time to elapse. However, the critical incident study did accommodate for this time factor and still had the same null results.

Theoretical Implications

The model of trust repair for benevolence-based violations developed in this dissertation integrated multiple theoretical perspectives and received partial support. Specifically, the consideration of how perspective taking theory affects trust has been suggested but few studies have focused on this connection (Williams, 2012). Perceived perspective taking has the potential to offer unique insights into the trust repair process because it factors in the victim's perceptions of the offender's cognitive process, affecting their causal attributions and judgements. Thus, the primary contribution of this dissertation is conceptually uniting perceived perspective taking, the integrative model of organizational trust, and Weiner's causal attribution theory.

Another significant contribution of these studies to the trust repair literature is the exclusive focus on benevolence-based offenses. While benevolence, or related terms such as goodwill, consideration, and care, have been part of the scholarly conversation on trust for decades, it has been surprisingly minimally discussed in trust repair research (Kim et al., 2009). Since benevolence is most pronounced in established or close relationships, it seems that these may be the most important workplace relationships to repair. Thus, by answering the calls to fill this gap and by taking a multi-method approach, the present research examined benevolence-based trust repair to extend the conversation on trust repair to include all three facets of trustworthiness.

There are also implications for the attribution literature. A theoretical and empirical connection was found, providing support that perceived perspective taking is negatively related to the victim's stability attributions concerning the cause of the violation. Causal attributions, specifically stability, have been established as a key predictor of trust repair (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). The present research extends the nomological network of causal attribution theory

(Weiner, 1986) by considering how the offender walking in the victim's shoes conveys that it is unlikely future violations will occur, since the cause is rendered unstable.

The inclusion of forgiveness in trust repair has been limited to date, and this research contributes to the literature by developing arguments regarding possible relationships. Despite the lack of empirical findings related to the hypotheses concerned with dispositional forgiveness, this may suggest that forgiveness plays a different role in the process. However, this creates additional questions regarding the relationship between forgiveness and trust repair. The relationship between emotions and trust is complicated. Positive emotions promote trust (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005) but not all of the time (Lount, 2010) and an individuals' emotions cause differential effects on trust (Schniter, Sheremeta, & Shields, 2015). Thus, since forgiveness considers the valence and strength of emotions, it should play a central role in understanding emotions and trust repair.

Finally, this research also made methodological contributions. First, study 1 was able to advance trust repair research by capturing actual trust violations. This answers the call of trust scholars to move trust research out of the lab and into the field (Lewicki & Polin, 2012). The critical incident technique can be adapted, but additional methodologies should also be incorporated to measure actual trust-based relationships within organizations. Another contribution was the measurement of perceived perspective taking. Goldstein et al. (2014) conducted various perceived perspective taking studies exclusively utilizing experimental manipulation. The subsequent research has also followed suit, like the design of study 2. Thus, adapting a well-established measure of dispositional difference in perspective taking, that showed proven distinction from its correlates and outcomes, contributes to the perceived perspective taking literature by offering a multi-item measure.

Practical Implications

In organizations, individuals face conflicts and betrayals that adversely affect workplace relationships. The response and reparative actions chosen may dictate the success or failure to repair trust. This research suggests that perceived perspective taking may facilitate trust repair, by the offender signaling to the victim that they understand the ramifications of their actions and have walked in the victim's shoes. Having an empathetic response by displaying felt emotions is a pivotal factor for transmitting the power of perspective taking. The perception of forbearance or restraint from repeating the offense is also influenced by the victim's perception that the offender understands what they have done and how it has affected the victim. Thus, organizations should consider helping employees expand their capacity for perspective taking by conducting training or simply queuing the active consideration of others' viewpoints.

In addition to apologies, participants in study 1 described a variety of responses by offenders, such as offering explanations or justification, making promises, showing personal interest, exhibiting new prosocial behaviors, or creating accommodations. Ultimately, an offender informed through perspective taking should consider the best reparative action so that it is the most appropriate response and is meaningful to the recipient.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The research studies utilized in this dissertation research have limitations that should be considered for future research. The poor model fit in study 2 precludes the ability to draw meaningful conclusions from the results. Additionally, the focal variables are all self-reported measures by victims of either actual or manipulated trust violations, and thus perceptions may be biased due to the nature of the research. While this aspect is the focus of the research itself – how important perceptions are affected following a breach in trust – future research should consider

including objective measures or ratings of bystanders. For example, the extant trust repair literature focuses on dyadic relationships and has largely neglected to consider the influence and perceptions of third parties. Robert Evans, the producer of The Godfather, is credited with saying "There are three sides to every story: your side, my side, and the truth. And no one is lying. Memories shared serve each differently" (Burstein & Morgen, 2002). While the present research incorporates conceivable actions offenders can take to pursue trust repair, the measurement is all based on the reactions of offenders. Scholars should investigate how individuals unaffected by the trust violation itself may view the actions and inactions of the trustor and trustee to discover how much variation is due to the actual responses and what is due to biased perceptions.

Future research should look at combining perspective taking and an apology to see if this may amplify the impact of these reparative efforts when compared to them being given in isolation of one another. Operationalizing perspective taking through an apology may be a more effective method than perspective taking communicated by itself or through other blends of verbal and social cues. Additionally, dispositional forgiveness did not interact with the judgements of victims when estimating their level of trust following a grievance and reparative effort. However, future research should consider other factors that may influence victim's willingness to repair trust with offenders, such as the tendency for interpersonal victimhood (Gabay et al., 2020).

Future trust repair research should more closely examine the role of emotions. The present research findings suggest a strong relationship between empathy and benevolence, which suggests that perception of care is influenced more by emotional displays than through cognitive efforts or perceived restraint from further offenses. Additionally, further research should be conducted to clarify the role that dispositional and situational forgiveness play in the trust repair

process. While it holds a clear theoretical connection, empirically there are limited studies that have researched the interplay of these constructs in organizational settings.

This research contributes to trust repair literature by introducing perceived perspective taking as a predictor. However, in study 1, it is possible that perspective taking was conflated by other factors. A measure had to be adapted for the purpose of the study because no validated scales have been developed for perceived perspective taking. In study 2, perceived perspective taking was measured in isolation, without any other verbal elements such as an apology. Future research may consider how perspective taking may affect the reparative strategy an offender chooses and whether perceived perspective taking has a multiplicative effect on the impact of the reparative action taken.

Conclusion

The present research contributes to the trust repair literature in several ways. First, most trust repair studies have focused exclusively on ability- or integrity- based offenses. While this artificial dichotomy led to significant advances of our understanding of interpersonal trust repair within organizations in those specific domains, it is important that scholars incorporate all elements of trustworthiness and types of violations to provide the full picture. The present research provides a meaningful contribution by theorizing and investigating benevolence-based violations.

Second, another focus of this research was to integrate perceived perspective taking theory with the integrative model of trust. This expands the application of perceived perspective taking by theoretically applying it to the context of interpersonal trust repair. Additionally, perceived perspective taking has only been manipulated in the extant research, similar to the design of study 2. However, study 1 incorporated a measurement of perceived perspective

taking, borrowing from an established self-response trait-based perspective taking measure and adapting it to measure the perception of another's engagement in perspective taking. The use of the critical incident technique also answers the call for researchers to take trust repair research out of the lab and into the field by incorporating creative methodological designs.

Third, this research contributes to attributions literature by looking at a novel predictor of stability attributions. The theoretical application of perceived perspective taking's relationship with stability attributions was significant across both studies. This suggests that perceiving that an offender has taken the victim's perspective may prompt the victim to render the cause of the violation to be unstable.

Finally, while research into forgiveness has become more prevalent in the social sciences, there has been less focus in the organizational literature. Despite the null findings related to dispositional forgiveness, the theoretical connections proposed expand the forgiveness literature by highlighting the need to further clarify the role it plays in the trust repair process. Ultimately, the theoretical, methodological, and empirical work presented in this dissertation offer distinctive contributions to organizational behavior.

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Table 1.

Study 1 Correlations, Descriptive Statistics, and Reliabilities

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.PPT	2.53	1.03	(.86)							
2. Empathy	2.39	1.05	.72**	(.94)						
3. Stability	4.90	1.99	-.54**	-.54**	(.78)					
4. Benevolence	2.86	0.96	.50**	.62**	-.55**	(.95)				
5. Trust	2.46	0.66	.44**	.48**	-.48**	.52**	(.88)			
6. Dispositional Forgiveness	4.81	1.10	.24**	.30**	-.25**	.28**	.33**	(.82)		
7. Behavioral Integrity	2.82	0.88	.49**	.56**	-.56**	.74**	.60**	.25**	(.96)	
8. Relational Closeness	3.48	0.94	.27**	.34**	-.23**	.15*	.15*	.07	.16*	(.79)

Note: N = 262; Reliability coefficients are reported on the diagonal; PPT = Perceived Perspective Taking;
* *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01

Table 2

Study 1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Measures

Model	Factors	χ^2	*Df*	RMSE	CFI	SRMR
Baseline model	8 factors	1695.97	874	0.06	0.90	0.05
Alternative Model 1	7 factors	1947.51	881	0.07	0.88	0.06
Alternative Model 2	7 factors	2210.34	881	0.08	0.85	0.06
Alternative Model 3	1 factor	4647.97	902	0.13	0.56	0.10

Model 1: perceived perspective taking and perceived empathy were combined into one factor

Model 2: benevolence and behavioral integrity were combined into one factor

Model 3: all variables were combined into one factor

Table 3.

Study 1 Path Analysis Results with Direct Effects, Indirect Effects, and Interactions

Study 1 Model Results	B	SE	p	LLCI	ULCI
Model Fit Indices					
(x^2 = 142.49; df = 20; RMSEA = 0.15,					
RMSEA CI [.13, .17]; CFI = 0.75; SRMR = 0.10)					
Direct Effects					
(H1) PPT → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.04	0.06	0.05	-0.13	0.06
(H2) PPT → Empathy	0.72	0.03	<0.01	0.67	0.77
(H3) Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.30	0.07	<0.01	0.19	0.41
(H5) PPT → Stability	-0.54	0.04	<0.01	-0.61	-0.46
(H6) Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.12	0.06	<0.05	-0.22	-0.02
(H8) Benevolence$_{t2}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	0.36	0.17	<0.01	0.14	0.36
(H9) Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	0.16	0.07	<0.05	0.04	0.27
(H10) Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.24	0.07	<0.01	-0.34	-0.12
Dispositional Forgiveness → Trust$_{t2}$	0.16	0.06	<0.01	0.05	0.25
Indirect Effects					
Sum of indirect effects from PPT to Benevolence	0.28	0.05	<0.01	0.32	0.59
(H4) PPT → Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.21	0.05	<0.01	0.28	0.55
(H7) PPT → Stability → Benevolence $_{t2}$	-0.04	0.03	=0.05	0.01	0.07
Interaction Effects					
(H11a) DPFG * Benevolence → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.01	0.03	0.86	-0.06	0.05
(H11b) DPFG * Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.01	0.03	0.86	-0.06	0.05
(H11c) DPFG * Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.02	0.07	0.73	-0.12	0.09
Control Variable					
Behavioral Integrity → Benevolence	0.56	0.06	<0.01	0.47	0.65
Relational Closeness → Benevolence	-0.05	0.05	0.30	-0.13	0.03

Note: n = 265; coefficients are standardized (*B*). Statistics generated using Mplus 8 with 1000 bootstrapped samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). Lower- and upper-level confidence intervals (LLCI; ULCI); SE = standard error; DPFG = Dispositional Forgiveness

Table 4a.

Study 2 Correlations, Descriptive Statistics, and Reliabilities

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Benevolence$_{t1}$	2.20	0.67	(.89)							
2. Trust$_{t1}$	2.50	0.66	0.69**	(.85)						
3. Empathy	2.40	1.03	0.33**	0.33**	(.97)					
4. Stability	5.17	1.80	-0.36**	-0.42**	-0.51**	(.85)				
5. Behavioral Integrity	2.47	0.87	0.61**	0.61**	0.50**	-0.38**	(.96)			
6. Benevolence$_{t2}$	2.28	0.88	0.63**	0.54**	0.70**	-0.52**	0.75**	(.93)		
7. Trust$_{t2}$	2.42	0.74	0.59**	0.84**	0.51**	-0.48**	0.70**	0.70**	(.89)	
8. Dispositional Forgiveness	4.70	1.14	0.06	0.19**	0.13*	-0.17**	0.08	0.10	0.21**	(.87)

Note: N = 362; Reliability coefficients are reported on the diagonal; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4b.

Study 2 Correlations for the Perceived Perspective Taking Condition

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Benevolence$_{t1}$	2.30	0.64								
2. Trust$_{t1}$	2.58	0.68	0.74**							
3. Empathy	2.98	0.80	0.33**	0.32**						
4. Stability	4.87	1.70	-0.36**	-0.39**	-0.46**					
5. Behavioral Integrity	2.66	0.84	0.57**	0.59**	0.43**	-0.28**				
6. Benevolence$_{t2}$	2.66	0.84	0.66**	0.59**	0.59**	-0.39**	0.78**			
7. Trust$_{t2}$	2.61	0.75	0.67**	0.88**	0.42**	-0.35**	0.71**	0.74**		
8. Dispositional Forgiveness	4.78	1.17	0.73	0.13	0.14	-0.19*	0.12	0.08	0.19*	

Note: N = 124; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4c.

Study 2 Correlations for the Apology Condition

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Benevolence$_{t1}$	2.18	0.75								
2. Trust$_{t1}$	2.52	0.69	0.70**							
3. Empathy	2.80	0.84	0.44**	0.41**						
4. Stability	4.62	1.72	-0.41**	-0.42**	-0.48**					
5. Behavioral Integrity	2.59	0.87	0.69**	0.64**	0.54**	-0.46**				
6. Benevolence$_{t2}$	2.53	0.87	0.71**	0.67**	0.67**	-0.57**	0.74**			
7. Trust$_{t2}$	2.54	0.77	0.63**	0.49**	0.49**	-0.49**	0.71**	0.66**		
8. Dispositional Forgiveness	4.73	1.10	0.15	0.37**	0.23*	-0.27**	0.18	0.21*	0.29**	

Note: N = 115; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 4d.

Study 2 Correlations for the Control Condition

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Benevolence$_{t1}$	2.12	0.60								
2. Trust$_{t1}$	2.41	0.62	0.60**							
3. Empathy	1.43	0.62	0.33**	0.33**						
4. Stability	6.00	1.68	-0.29**	-0.44**	-0.33**					
5. Behavioral Integrity	2.17	0.83	0.55**	0.60**	0.40**	-0.24**				
6. Benevolence$_{t2}$	1.74	0.66	0.62**	0.57**	0.54**	-0.36**	0.67**			
7. Trust$_{t2}$	2.12	0.62	0.42**	0.78**	0.40**	-0.45**	0.61**	0.57**		
8. Dispositional Forgiveness	4.59	1.15	-0.03	0.61	-0.06	-0.03**	-0.11	-0.08*	0.10	

Note: N = 123; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 5.

Study 2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Measures

Model	Factors	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Baseline model	8 factors	3866.73	1196	0.08	0.83	0.07
Alternative Model 1	7 factors	4583.21	1209	0.09	0.79	0.08
Alternative Model 2	6 factors	5323.01	1209	0.10	0.74	0.08
Alternative Model 3	1 factor	10493.92	1485	0.13	0.48	0.12

Model 1: trust at time 1 and 2 were combined into one factor

Model 2: behavioral integrity was combined with benevolence at time 1 and 2

Model 3: all variables were combined into one factor

Table 6.

Study 2 Path Analysis Results with Direct Effects, Indirect Effects, and Interactions

Model 1: PPT vs Control Group	B	SE	p	LLCI	ULCI
Model Fit Indices					
(x^2 = 1895.96; df = 23; RMSEA = 0.58,					
RMSEA CI [.55, .60]; CFI = 0.33; SRMR = 0.21)					
Direct Effects					
(H1) PPT → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.09	0.05	0.06	0.01	0.17
(H2) PPT → Empathy	0.74	0.03	<0.01	0.68	0.79
(H3) Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.35	0.07	<0.01	0.25	0.46
(H5) PPT → Stability	-0.31	0.06	<0.01	-0.41	-0.22
(H6) Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.07	0.04	0.12	-0.15	-0.01
(H8) Benevolence$_{t2}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	0.36	0.17	<0.05	0.05	0.61
(H9) Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	0.09	0.20	0.64	-0.30	0.39
(H10) Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	0.12	0.17	0.49	-0.20	0.36
DPFG → Trust$_{t2}$	0.21	0.21	0.32	-0.20	0.49
Indirect Effects					
Sum of indirect effects from PPT to Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.05	0.08	<0.01	0.32	0.59
(H4) PPT → Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.41	0.09	<0.01	0.28	0.55
(H7) PPT → Stability → Benevolence $_{t2}$	0.02	0.23	0.15	0.01	0.07
Interaction Effects					
(H11a) DPFG * Benevolence → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.12	0.23	0.58	-0.49	0.26
(H11b) DPFG * Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	0.02	0.21	0.94	-0.27	0.45
(H11c) DPFG * Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.14	0.06	0.50	-0.43	0.26
Control Variables					
Benevolence$_{t1}$ → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.27	0.05	<0.01	0.19	0.17
Behavioral Integrity → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.43	0.05	<0.01	0.35	0.52
Trust$_{t1}$ → Trust $_{t2}$	0.62	0.06	<0.01	0.50	0.71

Note: n = 246; coefficients are standardized (*B*). Statistics generated using Mplus 8 with 1000 bootstrapped samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). Lower- and upper-level confidence intervals (LLCI; ULCI); SE = standard error; DPFG = Dispositional Forgiveness

Table 7.

Study 2 Path Analysis Results with Direct Effects, Indirect Effects, and Interactions

Model 2: Apology vs Control Group	*B*	SE	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
Model Fit Indices					
(x^2 = 1913.99; df = 23; RMSEA = 0.59,					
RMSEA CI [.57, .61]; CFI = 0.31; SRMR = 0.24)					
Direct Effects					
Apology → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.09	0.05	0.09	-0.01	0.17
Apology → Empathy	0.68	0.08	<0.01	0.62	0.74
Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.40	0.08	<0.01	0.28	0.53
Apology → Stability	-0.38	0.06	<0.01	-0.47	-0.28
Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.14	0.04	<0.01	-0.21	-0.07
Benevolence$_{t2}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.16	0.23	0.49	-0.47	0.27
Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	0.51	0.20	<0.05	0.01	0.78
Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	0.03	0.19	0.89	-0.35	0.27
DPFG → Trust$_{t2}$	0.05	0..22	0.24	-0.36	0.37
Indirect Effects					
Sum of indirect effects from Apology to Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.33	0.06	<0.01	0.36	0.67
Apology → Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.28	0.06	<0.01	0.28	0.58
Apology → Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.05	0.02	<0.11	0.41	0.13
Interaction Effects					
DPFG * Benevolence → Trust$_{t2}$	0.50	0.32	0.12	-0.12	0.93
DPFG * Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.48	0.29	0.10	-0.83	0.10
DPFG * Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.11	0.51	0.61	-0.39	0.29
Control Variables					
Benevolence$_{t1}$ → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.30	0.06	<0.01	0.21	0.40
Behavioral Integrity → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.33	0.06	<0.01	0.24	0.42
Trust$_{t1}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	0.64	0.08	<0.01	0.49	0.74

Note: n = 238; coefficients are standardized (*B*). Statistics generated using Mplus 8 with 1000 bootstrapped samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). Lower- and upper-level confidence intervals (LLCI; ULCI); SE = standard error; DPFG = Dispositional Forgiveness

Table 8.

Study 2 Path Analysis Results with Direct Effects, Indirect Effects, and Interactions

Model 3: PPT vs Apology	*B*	SE	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
Model Fit Indices					
(x^2 = 1959.09; df = 23; RMSEA = 0.60,					
RMSEA CI [.58, .62]; CFI = 0.27; SRMR = 0.31)					
Direct Effects					
PPT → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.04	0.04	0.37	-0.15	0.04
PPT → Empathy	0.11	0.06	0.07	0.02	0.35
Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.31	0.06	<0.01	0.20	0.36
PPT → Stability	0.07	0.06	0.26	-0.15	0.60
Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.11	0.04	<0.05	-0.08	-0.02
Benevolence$_{t2}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	0.01	0.15	0.10	-0.28	0.27
Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.12	0.16	0.47	-0.41	0.15
Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.24	0.14	0.09	-0.23	0.01
DPFG → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.46	0..17	<0.01	-0.57	-0.09
Indirect Effects					
Sum of indirect effects from Apology to Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.03	0.02	0.28	-0.02	0.10
PPT → Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.03	0.02	0.09	0.01	0.10
PPT → Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.01	0.01	0.33	-0.03	0.01
Interaction Effects					
DPFG * Benevolence → Trust$_{t2}$	0.42	0.23	0.07	0.02	0.78
DPFG * Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	0.17	0.23	0.46	-0.25	0.50
DPFG * Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	0.29	0.15	0.05	0.02	0.49
Control Variables					
Benevolence$_{t1}$ → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.33	0.07	<0.01	0.22	0.44
Behavioral Integrity → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.47	0.07	<0.01	0.39	0.58
Trust$_{t1}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	0.69	0.07	<0.01	0.53	0.77

Note: n = 239; coefficients are standardized (*B*). Statistics generated using Mplus 8 with 1000 bootstrapped samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs). Lower- and upper-level confidence intervals (LLCI; ULCI); SE = standard error; DPFG = Dispositional Forgiveness

Table 9.

Study 2 Comparison of Path Analysis Results with Direct Effects, Indirect Effects, and Interactions

Study 1 & 2 Model Results	*B*	*p*	*B*	*p*
	Study 1		Study 2	
Direct Effects				
(H1) PPT → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.04	0.05	0.09	0.06
(H2) PPT → Empathy	0.72	<0.01	0.74	<0.01
(H3) Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.30	<0.01	0.35	<0.01
(H5) PPT → Stability	-0.54	<0.01	-0.31	<0.01
(H6) Stability → Benevolence$_{t2}$	-0.12	<0.05	-0.06	0.12
(H8) Benevolence$_{t2}$ → Trust$_{t2}$	0.36	<0.01	0.36	<0.05
(H9) Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	0.16	<0.05	0.09	0.64
(H10) Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.24	<0.01	0.12	0.49
Dispositional Forgiveness → Trust$_{t2}$	0.16	<0.01	0.21	0.32
Indirect Effects				
Sum of indirect effects from PPT to Benevolence	0.28	<0.01	0.05	<0.01
(H4) PPT → Empathy → Benevolence$_{t2}$	0.21	<0.01	0.41	<0.01
(H7) PPT → Stability → Benevolence $_{t2}$	-0.04	=0.05	0.03	0.15
Interaction Effects				
(H11a) DPFG * Benevolence → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.01	0.86	-0.12	0.58
(H11b) DPFG * Empathy → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.01	0.86	0.02	0.94
(H11c) DPFG * Stability → Trust$_{t2}$	-0.02	0.73	-0.14	0.50

Table 10.

Study 2 Multicategorical Independent Variable Contrast Comparison of Indirect, Direct, and Total Effects

Outcome:		M			Y			
		Coefficient (SE)			Coefficient (SE)			Coefficient (SE)
Constant	i_1	2.401** (0.040)		i_3	0.582** (0.049)		i_2	0.321 (0.180)
D_1	a_1	1.457** (0.077)		c_1	0.686** (0.068)		c'_1	0.112 (0.078)
D_2	a_2	0.183 (0.105)		c_2	-0.003 (0.079)		c'_2	-0.075 (0.067)
M							b	0.394** (0.049)
Constant	i_1	5.160** (0.090)		i_3	-0.050 (0.049)		i_2	0.321 (0.180)
D_1	a_3	-1.257** (0.188)		c_3	0.175* (0.080)		c'_1	0.112 (0.078)
D_2	a_4	0.250 (0.219)		c_4	-0.087 (0.069)		c'_2	-0.075 (0.067)
M							b	-0.050 (0.018)

	Estimate	(SE)	P-value	CI
D_1 Total Indirect Effect	0.637	0.081	<.001	0.484, 0.803
D_1 D $\Rightarrow$ empathy $\Rightarrow$ benevolence	0.574	0.081	<.001	0.426, 0.746
D_1 D $\Rightarrow$ stability $\Rightarrow$ benevolence	-0.013	0.026	<.05	0.020, 0.121
D_2 Total Indirect Effect	0.059	0.049	0.223	-0.034, 0.158
D_2 D $\Rightarrow$ empathy $\Rightarrow$ benevolence	0.072	0.042	0.088	-0.006, 0.161
D_2 D $\Rightarrow$ stability $\Rightarrow$ benevolence	-0.013	0.012	0.312	-0.045, 0.006

Note: Contrast coded model comparisons. D_1 represents the treatment groups compared to the control group. D_2 represents the direct comparison of the two treatment groups.
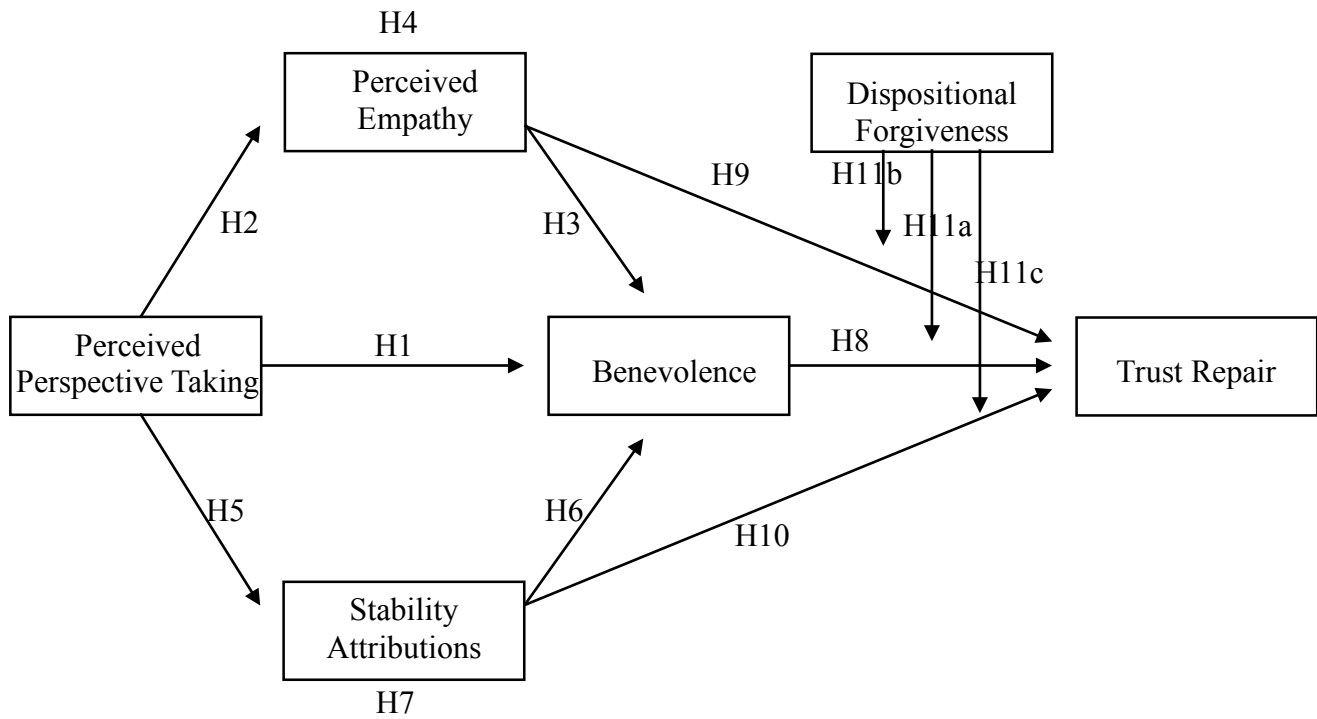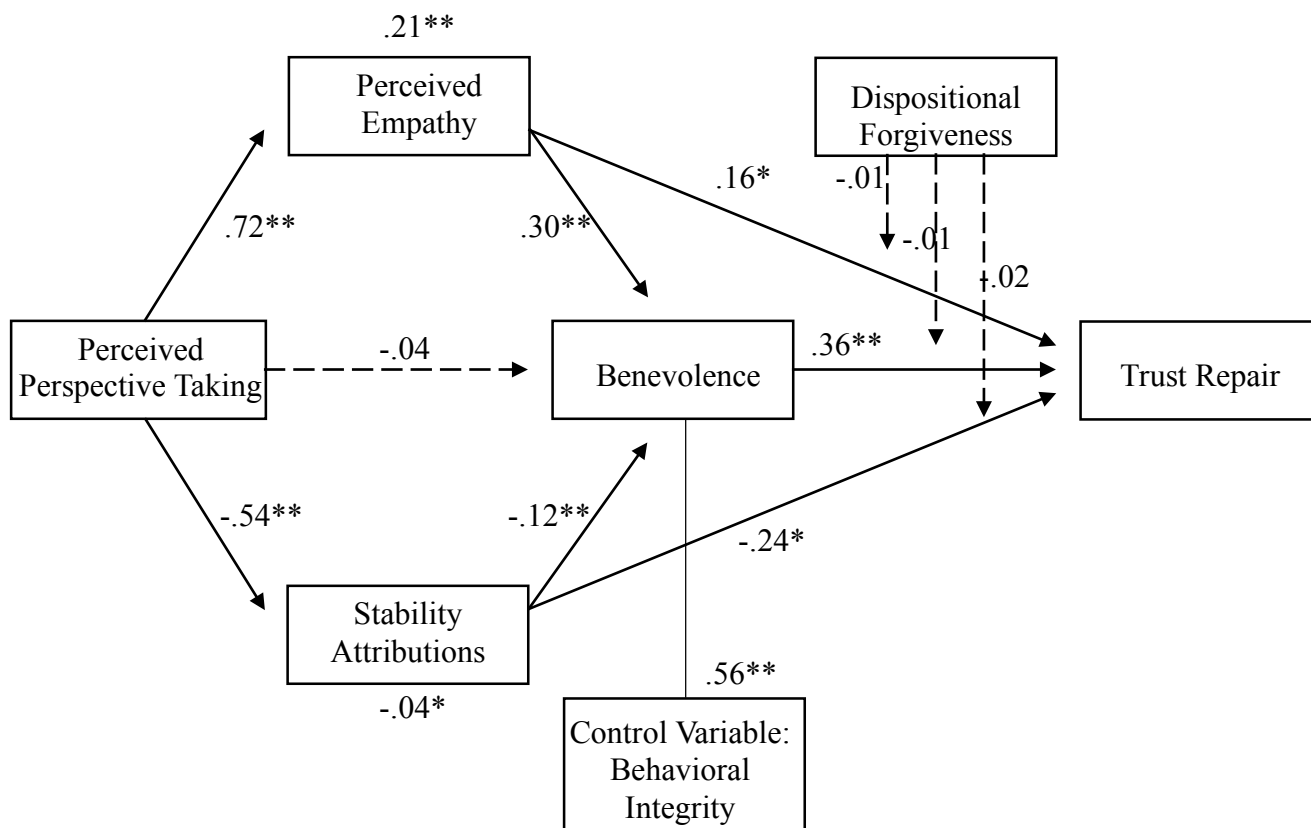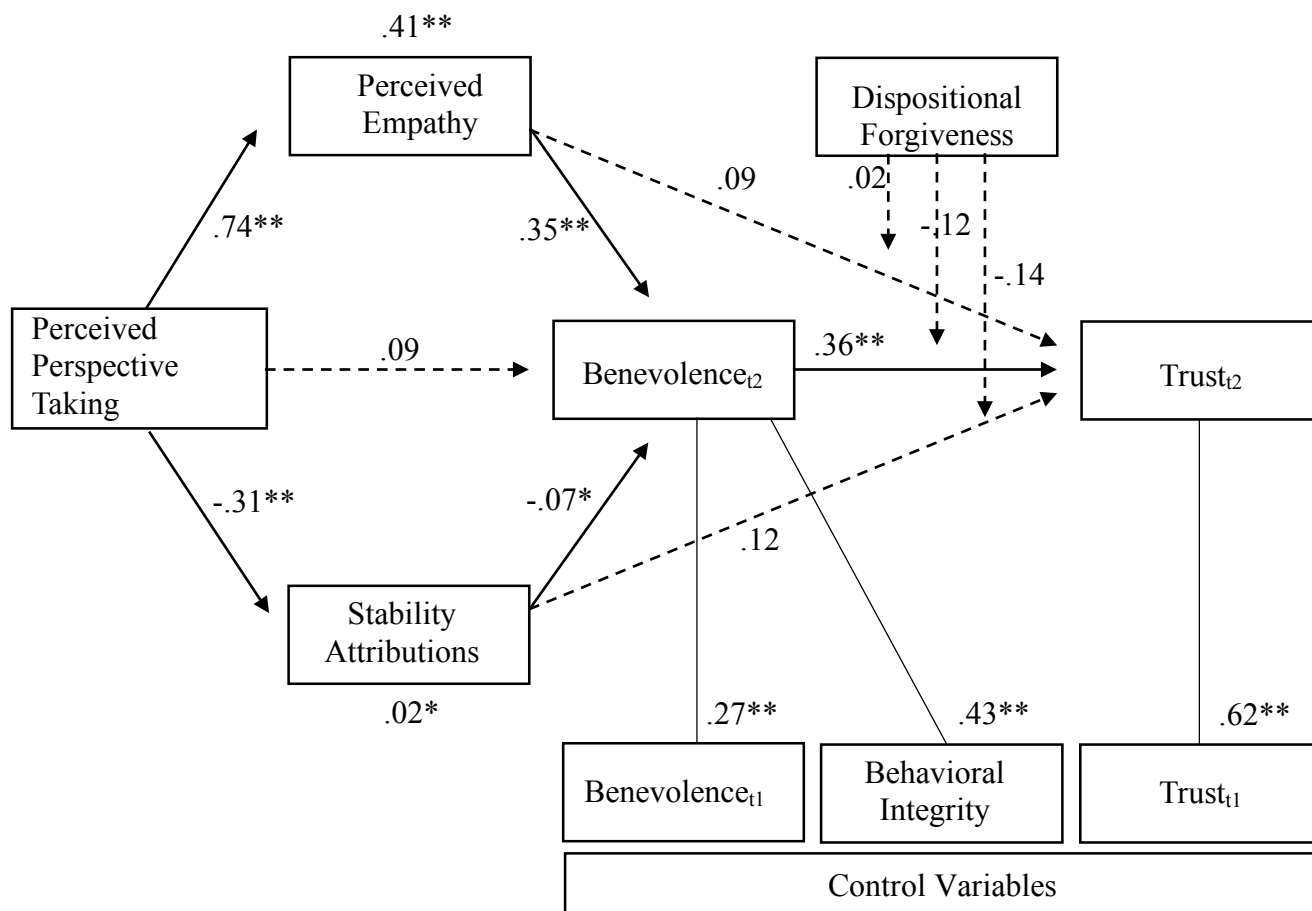
Figure 1.

The Conceptual Model

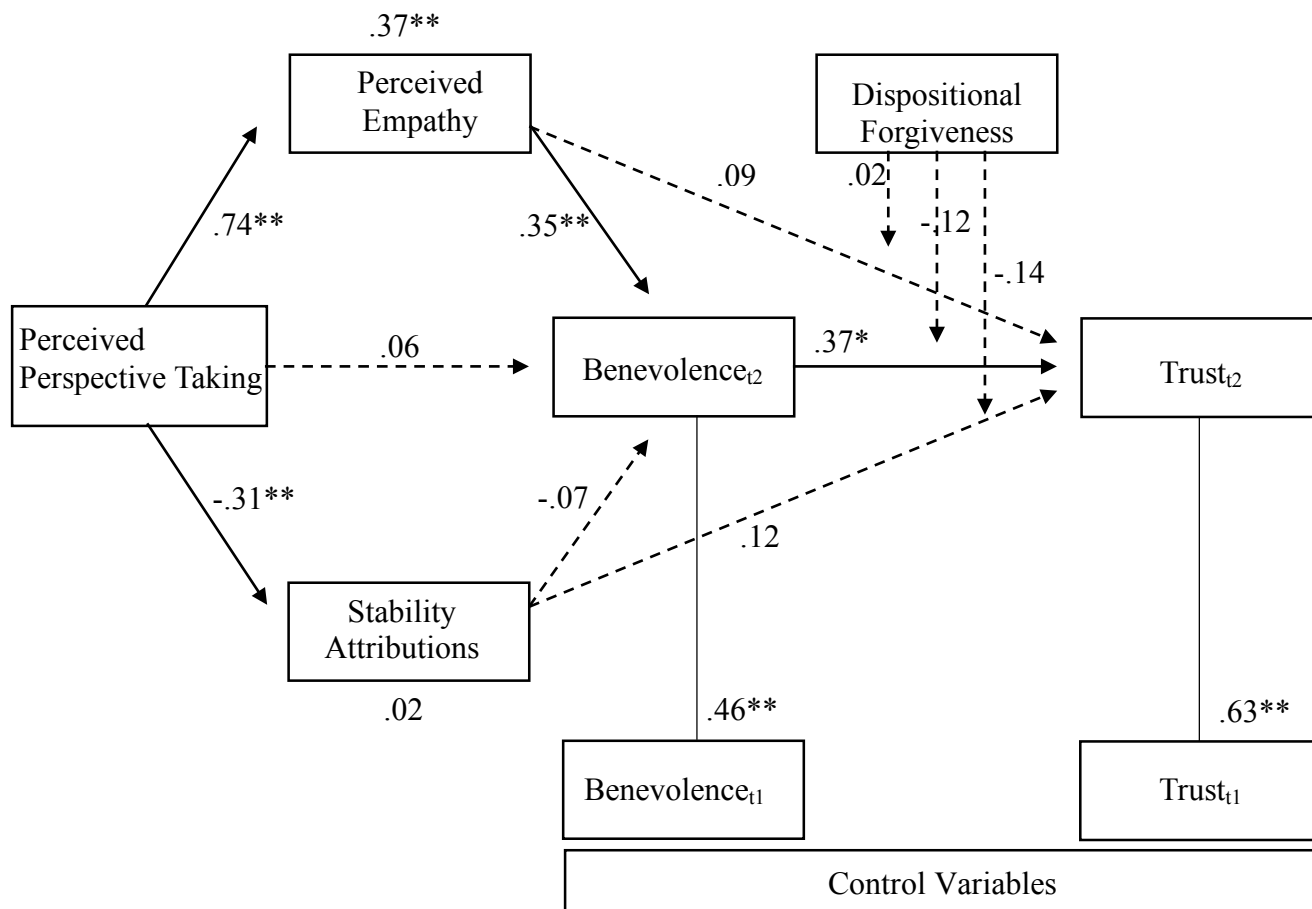**Figure 2.**

Study 1 Path Analysis Results

Figure 3a.

Study 2 model 1 path analysis results for PPT condition compared to the control group

Note: Model Fit Indices (x^2 = 1895.96; df = 23; RMSEA = 0.58, RMSEA CI [.55, .60]; CFI = 0.33; SRMR = 0.21)

Figure 3b.

Study 2 model 1 path analysis results for PPT condition compared to the control group without behavioral integrity as a control variable

Note: Model Fit Indices ($x2$ = 1955.55; df = 20; RMSEA = 0.63, RMSEA CI [.60, .65]; CFI = 0.31; SRMR = 0.22)

Figure 4.

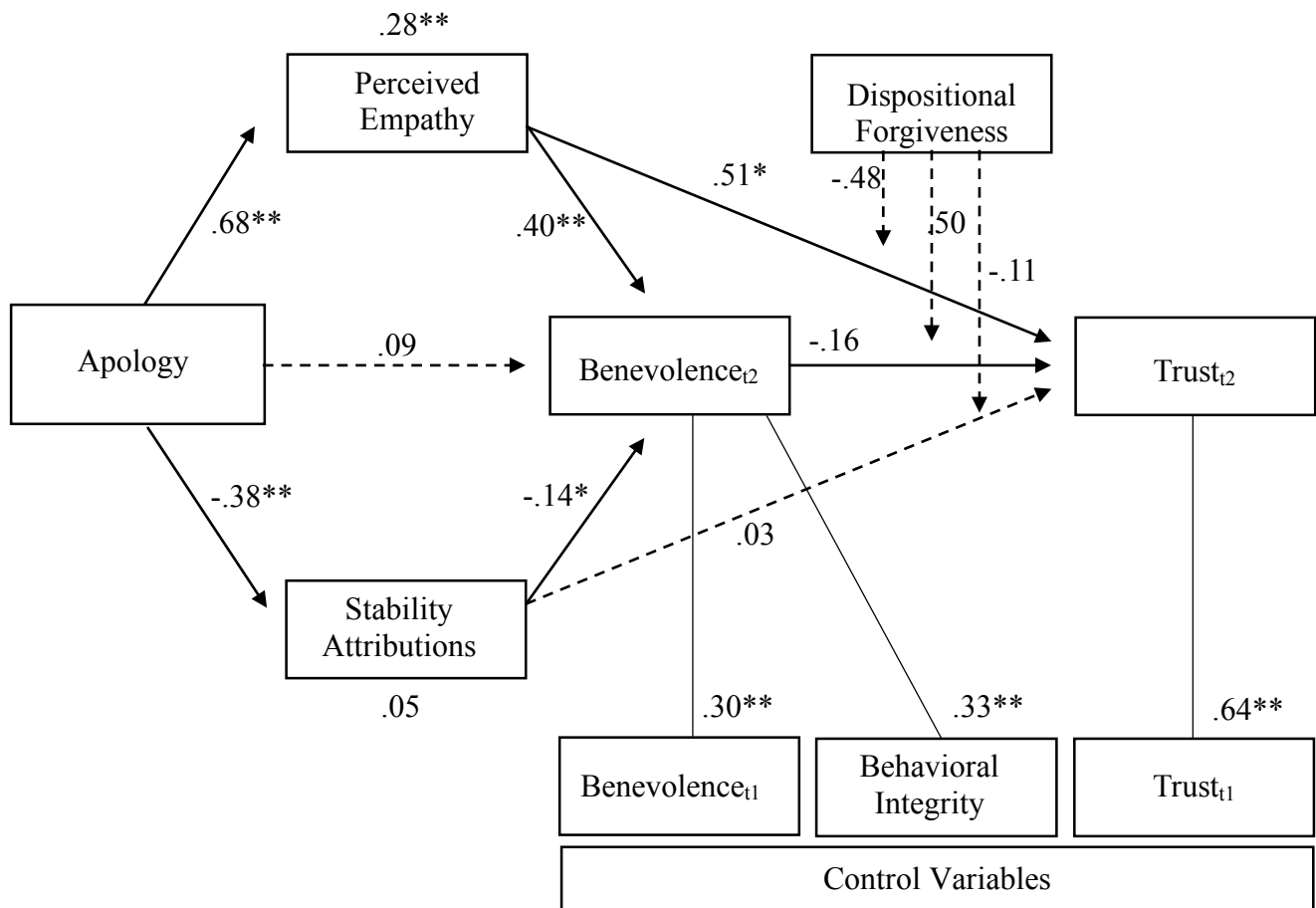*Study 2 model 2 path analysis results for apology condition compared to the control group*

Figure 5.

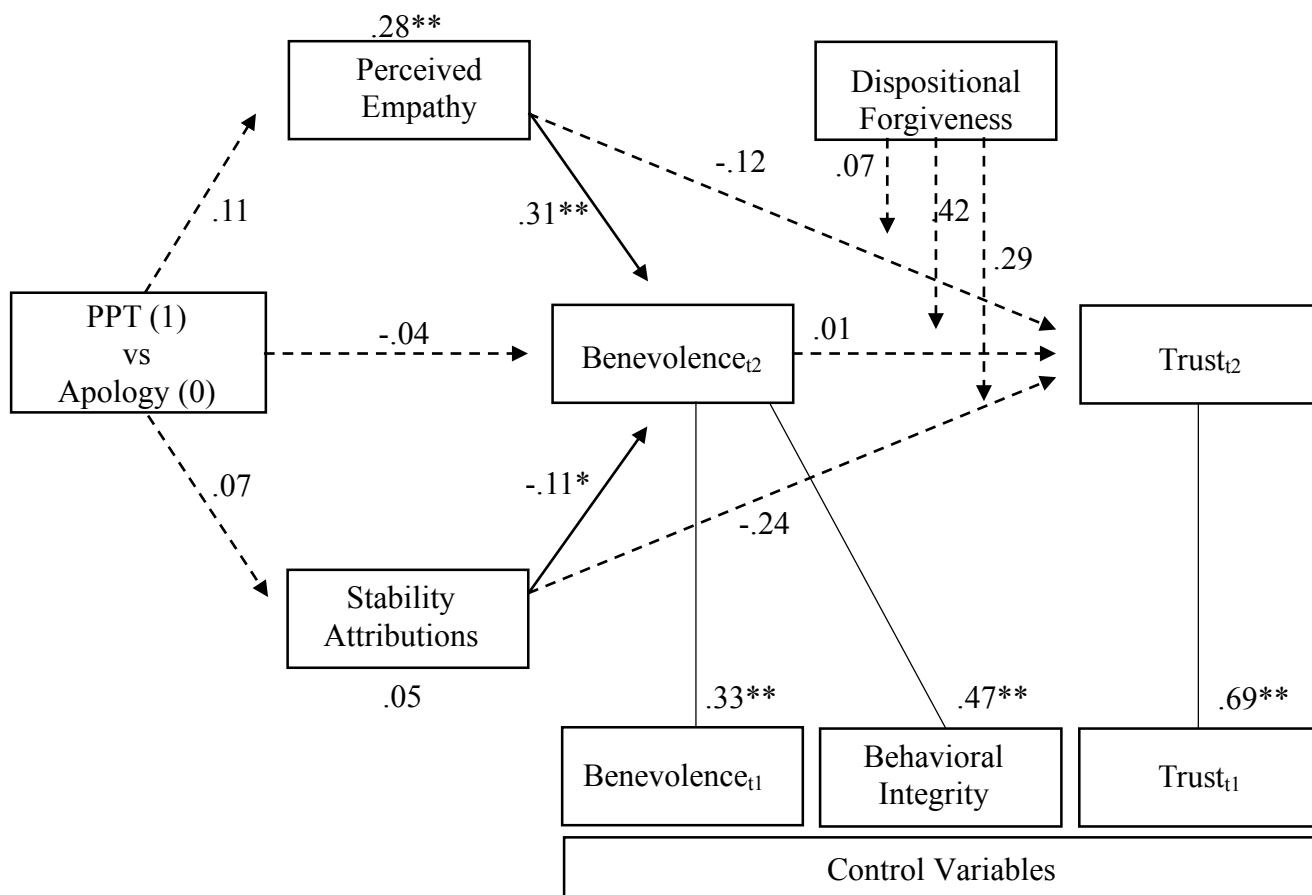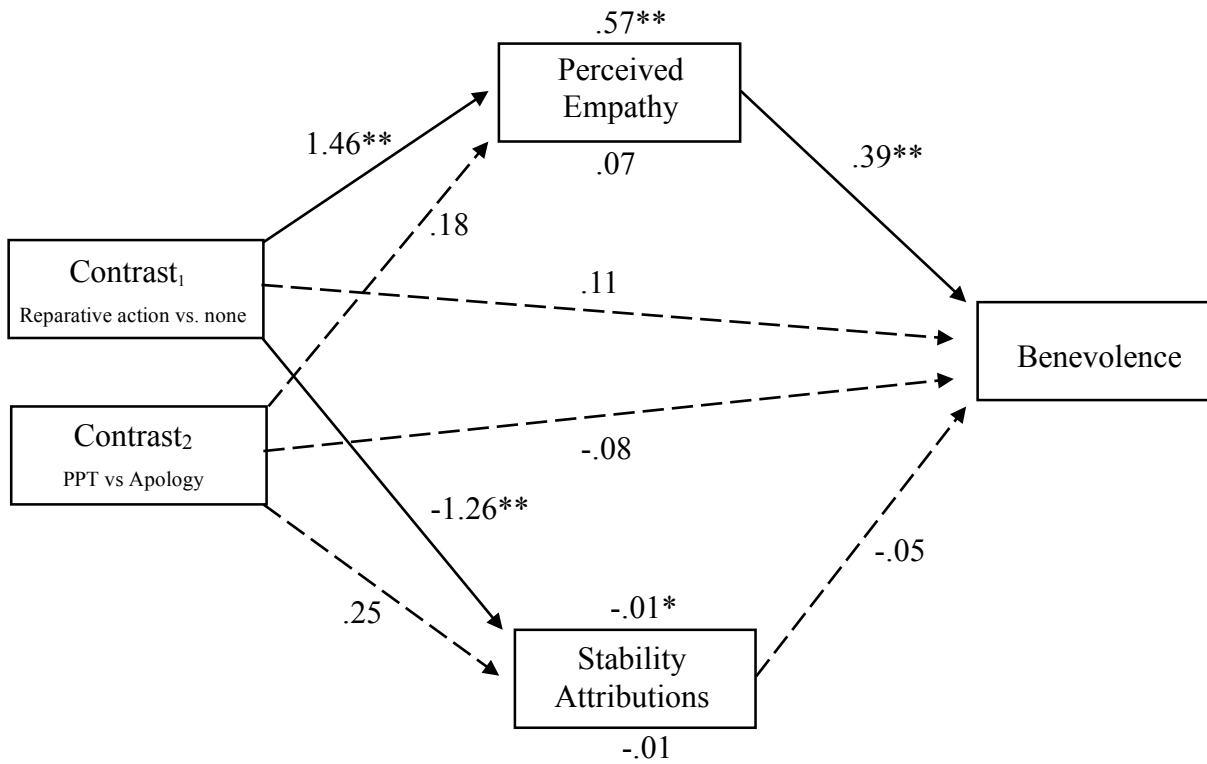*Study 2 model 3 path analysis results for perspective taking group compared to the apology group*

Figure 6.

Model coefficients from specific contrast coded groups

Appendix A

Survey Items and Measures Used in the Study 1

Perceived Perspective Taking (adapted from Davis, 1980)
Instructions: The following statements inquire about your coworker's thoughts following the situation you described. For each item, indicate how well it describes what was going on in your coworker's mind by choosing the most appropriate response. Please read each item carefully.

1. My coworker found it difficult to see things from my point of view. *
2. My coworker tried to look at my side of the disagreement before making a decision.
3. My coworker tried to understand me better by imagining how things look from my perspective.
4. My coworker was sure s/he was right about the incident, s/he didn't waste much time listening to my arguments. *
5. My coworker believed that there were two sides to the situation and tried to look at them both.
6. When my coworker faced our conflict, s/he tried to "walk in my shoes" for a while.

Perceived Empathy (adapted from Batson et al., 1981; Davis, 1980; Oswald, 1996)
Instructions: Respond to the following list of words based on how well they describe your coworker's reaction following the incident you described.
Does not describe at all how my offender felt after the incident   1 2 3 4 5   Describes how my offender felt after the incident extremely well
1. Concerned
2. Warm
3. Empathetic
4. Compassionate
5. Softhearted

Stability Attributions (McAuley et al., 1992)
Taking into account the offense with your coworker, think about the reasons why you believe your coworker acted that way. With this in mind, please answer the following questions.
The cause of my co-worker's behavior is something:
1. Permanent   9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1   temporary
2. Stable over time   9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1   variable over time
3. Unchangeable   9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1   changeable

Benevolence (Mayer & Davis, 1999)
Instructions: Thinking about the scenario you previously described, for each statement below, indicate the degree to which you agree with each statement, using the time of offense as the reference point**:**
             1   2   3   4   5
Much less than before, Less than before, Same as before, More than before, Much more than before

1. My coworker is very concerned about my welfare.

2. My needs and desires are very important to my coworker.
3. My coworker would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
4. My coworker really looks out for what is important to me.
5. My coworker will go out of his/her way to help me.

Behavioral Integrity (Simons et al, 2007)

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Much less than before, Less than before, Same as before, More than before, Much more than before

1. There is a match between my coworkers words and actions. My manager delivers on promises.
2. My coworker practices what he/she preaches.
3. My coworker does what he/she says he/she will do.
4. My coworker conducts himself/herself by the same values he/she talks about.
5. My coworker shows the same priorities that he/she describes.
6. When my coworker promises something, I can be certain that it will happen.
7. If my coworker says he/she is going to do something, he/she will.

Trust (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)

Instructions: For each statement, write indicate the option which best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement compared to immediately after the offense, before any reparative efforts.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Much less than before, Less than before, Same as before, More than before, Much more than before

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my coworker have any influence over issues that are important to me. *
2. I would be willing to let my coworker have complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my coworker. *
4. I would be comfortable giving my coworker a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.
5. I would tell my coworker about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation.
6. I would share my opinion about sensitive issues with my coworker even if my opinion were unpopular.
7. I am afraid of what my coworker might do to me at work. *
8. If my coworker asked why a problem happened, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.
9. If someone questioned my coworker's motives, I would give my coworker the benefit of the doubt.
10. If my coworker asked me for something, I would respond without thinking about whether it might be held against me.

Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS): (Thompson et al., 2005)
Instructions: Think about how you typically respond to negative events. Select the item that best describes how you typically respond to the type of negative situation described. There are no right or wrong answers. Please be as open as possible in your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Almost always false of me		More often false of me		More often true of me		Almost always true of me

1. I continue to punish a person who has done something that I think is wrong.
2. With time I am understanding of others for the mistakes they've made.
3. I continue to be hard on others who have hurt me.
4. Although others have hurt me in the past, I have eventually been able to see them as good people.
5. If others mistreat me, I continue to think badly of them.
6. When someone disappoints me, I can eventually move past it.

Emotional Closeness (Williams, 2016a; Williams & Polman, 2015)
1. "I like this person"
2. "I feel emotionally close to this person"

Relationship Tenure
1. How long have you worked with the person from this incident?
<1 year, 2, 3, 4…

* Indicates reverse-coded items.

Appendix B

Survey Items and Measures Used in the Study 2

Perceived Empathy (adapted from Batson et al., 1981; Davis, 1980; Oswald, 1996)
Instructions: Respond to the following list of words based on how well they describe your coworker following the incident described.
Does not describe at all how my offender felt after the incident   1 2 3 4 5   Describes how my offender felt after the incident extremely well
1. Concerned
2. Warm
3. Empathetic
4. Compassionate
5. Softhearted

Stability Attributions (McAuley et al., 1992)
Taking into account the offense with your coworker, think about the reasons why you believe your coworker acted that way. With this in mind, please answer the following questions.
The cause of my co-worker's behavior is something:
1. Permanent   9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1   temporary
2. Stable over time   9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1   variable over time
3. Unchangeable   9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1   changeable

Benevolence (Mayer & Davis, 1999)

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. My coworker is very concerned about my welfare
2. My needs and desires are very important to my worker
3. My coworker would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
4. My coworker really looks out for what is important to me.
5. My coworker will go out of his/her way to help me.

Behavioral Integrity (Simons et al, 2007)

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. There is a match between my manager's words and actions. My manager delivers on promises.
2. My manager practices what he/she preaches.
3. My manager does what he/she says he/she will do.
4. My manager conducts himself/herself by the same values he/she talks about.
5. My manager shows the same priorities that he/she describes.
6. When my manager promises something, I can be certain that it will happen.
7. If my manager says he/she is going to do something, he/she will.

Trust (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)

Instructions: For each statement, write indicate the option which best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my coworker have any influence over issues that are important to me. *
2. I would be willing to let my coworker have complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my coworker. *
4. I would be comfortable giving my coworker a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.
5. I would tell my coworker about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation.
6. I would share my opinion about sensitive issues with my coworker even if my opinion were unpopular.
7. I am afraid of what my coworker might do to me at work. *
8. If my coworker asked why a problem happened, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.
9. If someone questioned my coworker's motives, I would give my coworker the benefit of the doubt.
10. If my coworker asked me for something, I would respond without thinking about whether it might be held against me.

Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS): (Thompson et al., 2005)
Instructions: Think about how you typically respond to negative events. Select the item that best describes how you typically respond to the type of negative situation described. There are no right or wrong answers. Please be as open as possible in your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Almost always false of me		More often false of me		More often true of me		Almost always true of me

1. I continue to punish a person who has done something that I think is wrong.
2. With time I am understanding of others for the mistakes they've made.
3. I continue to be hard on others who have hurt me.
4. Although others have hurt me in the past, I have eventually been able to see them as good people.
5. If others mistreat me, I continue to think badly of them.
6. When someone disappoints me, I can eventually move past it.

* Indicates reverse-coded items.

Appendix C

Study 2 Results

Because no clear support can be derived for Study 2 from the statistical output (the

tests of the structural models did not meet model fit standards, Kline, 2016; Hu & Bentler,

1995), Appendix C includes the results of the statistical analyses as supplementary

information that cannot be interpreted.

Dummy coding was used to compare each of the categorical variables to a single fixed

reference group. This allows for a direct comparison of specific groups of interest (Pedersen et

al., 2010; Ronay et al., 2012). For instance, for the hypothesis testing, the control condition was

coded as 0 to be used as the reference category and the perceived perspective taking condition

was coded as 1 for the treatment category. This dichotomous independent variable allows for the

coefficients to represent a measure of the difference between the two groups. Thus, the following

analyses are planned comparisons, comparable to the pairwise comparisons conducted in

ANOVA.

Model 1. The first model examined the perspective taking group using the control group

(no response) as the reference. Path estimates can be found in Figure 3a, and full model results

are provided in Table 6. Additionally, Figure 3b shows the results without using behavioral

integrity as a control variable. A chi-square difference test indicated that the models are

significantly different ($p < .01$), with the removal of behavioral integrity resulting in worse model

fit and adverse effects on certain hypothesized relationships. Behavioral integrity was collected

as a potentially relevant control variable because benevolence and integrity are theoretically

related elements of trustworthiness and overall judgements of character (Kim et al., 2009;

Colquitt et al., 2007). Including behavioral integrity as a control here is important to eliminate

alternative explanations and clearly distinguish the role perceptions of benevolence play. Ultimately, since the inclusion of behavioral integrity is justified both theoretically and empirically by best-practice recommendations for control variables (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2015; Spector & Brannick, 2011), this control variable was retained for the results reported below.

The relationship between perceived perspective taking and benevolence was not statistically significant. The indirect relationship between perceived perspective taking and benevolence was $b = .41$, CI [.28, .55] $p < .01$. There was a statistically significant relationship between both perceived perspective taking and empathy ($b = .74$, CI [.68, .79] $p < .01$), as well as empathy and benevolence ($b = .35$, CI [.25, .46], $p < .01$). However, the indirect effect of perceived perspective taking on benevolence through stability attributions was not statistically significant ($b = .02$, CI [.01, .07] $p = .15$). There was statistically significant and negative relationship between perceived perspective taking and stability ($b = -.31$, CI [-.41, -.22] $p < .01$) with the link between stability and benevolence being $b = -.07$, CI [-.15, .01] $p = .12$.

The relationship between benevolence and trust was significant ($b = .36$, CI [.05, .61], $p < .05$). There was no significant relationship of empathy on trust ($b = .09$, CI [-.30, .39] $p = .64$) or stability on trust ($b = .12$, CI [-.20, .36] $p = .49$). Finally, hypothesis 11a ($b = -.12$, CI [-.49, .26], $p = .58$), 11b ($b = .02$, CI [-.27, .45] $p = .94$, and 11c ($b = -.14$, CI [-.43, .26] $p = .50$) were not significant, indicating no support for any of the proposed interaction effects. Also, there was not a statistically significant difference between participants that responded to the scale for dispositional forgiveness before or after the vignette and focal variables ($M_{before} = 4.84$, $M_{after} = 4.57$, $p = .38$).

These model results will not be interpreted as support or lack of support for the hypothesized relationships due to the suboptimal model fit indices. No equality constraints or

other artificial limitations were set on the data during analysis. Expanding the sample with additional data points could potentially improve the model fit by providing better estimation accuracy. However, the poor model fit indices could also reflect a weakness in the experimental design. For example, the theoretically based model proposed can only be accurately tested if the experimental manipulation is clear, effective, and contrasted with an equally valid reference group. Thus, increased sample size, data screening, and measurement refinement may be called on to improve model fit for hypothesis testing.

Model 2. The second model compared the apology group with the same control group previously used as reference in model 1, using the dummy coding process for the apology condition (1) compared to the control group (0). However, it suffers from the same poor model fit. These relationships were not specifically hypothesized, but the identical paths were tested to examine the effect apology may have. All of these results are summarized in Table 7 and Figure 4 and should not be interpreted.

Model 3. The third and final model compared the perceived perspective taking group (1) by using the apology group (0) as the reference group. The results of this model analysis are provided in Table 8 and Figure 5 but should not be interpreted due to the very poor model fit indices.

Supplementary analysis. An additional analysis was conducted using a multicategorical independent variable to examine group differences in the first stage mediation of the model leading to benevolence. The subsequent analysis only tested group differences on the proximal direct effects and the indirect effects through perceived empathy and stability attributions on benevolence, rather than the full model as before. Following guidance from Hayes and Preacher (2014) and using orthogonal contrast coding (Cohen et al., 2003), this analysis was used to see if

there are any significant differences between comparison groups. The primary goal of this was to

see if the perspective taking and apology efforts resulted in significantly different effects or not.

Two contrasts were coded, with the first being the control group relative to the two reparative

conditions combined (Control = -0.677, Apology = 0.333, Perspective Taking = 0.333) and the

second comparing an apology and perspective taking (Control = 0, Apology = -.500, Perspective

Taking = 0.500). Using this approach allows for the calculation of group means.

The model fit indices (x^2 = 146.693; df = 3; RMSEA = 0.364, RMSEA CI [.315, .415];

CFI = 0.823; SRMR = 0.158) were improved from previous tests (which is likely attributable to

estimating much fewer parameters than in the full model) but remained suboptimal, thus the

statistical output is provided but not interpreted since the quality of the evidence is questionable.

The results are provided in Table 10 and Figure 6. The first contrast (reparative efforts versus no

response) indicated a statistically significant relative total indirect effect (b = .64, p < .01). The

difference in means of perceived benevolence between the apology and perspective taking

conditions had a total indirect effect that was not statistically significant (b = 0.06, p = .22).