

# **IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST AND FORGIVENESS ON HAPPINESS OF EMPLOYEES**

**Ph.D. THESIS**

*by*

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# **IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST AND FORGIVENESS ON HAPPINESS OF EMPLOYEES**

**A THESIS**

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the  
requirements for the award of the degree*

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*by*

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JULY, 2019**







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# INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ROORKEE

## CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled “**IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST AND FORGIVENESS ON HAPPINESS OF EMPLOYEES**” in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies of the Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from July, 2016 to July, 2019 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee.

The matter presented in the thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

**Dated:**

**(RINKI DAHIYA)**

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge.

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This is to certify that the student has made all the corrections in the thesis.

**Signature of Supervisor**

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## ABSTRACT

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Amidst the new realities of the modern world, a happy and satisfied workforce has become a necessary requirement for organizations to maintain their competitive edge. As most of the available literature on happiness is concerned with positive psychology, there is a dearth of studies on understanding the relationship between organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness in organizational setting in India. Keeping this in mind, the present study aims to investigate the impact of organizational trust and forgiveness on the happiness of employees.

Specifically, the study examines how the propensity to organizational trust and tendency to forgive help in affecting the employees' perception of happiness. An effort has been made to investigate how the dimensions of organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) and forgiveness (self, others and situations) predict employees' happiness. Additionally, the study proposes and tests a model of happiness by examining the mediation effect of forgiveness while establishing the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. The present study also investigates the role of demographical differences (age, gender and organization type) in employees' propensity for organizational trust, tendency to forgive and perceptions of happiness. Additionally, the moderating influence of these demographical differences is tested on the association between forgiveness and happiness.

The data were gathered from 432 employees working at junior, middle and senior level positions in selected Indian public and private sector organizations. Simple random sampling method was used to collect the data and respondents were contacted through training programmes organized by selected Indian public and private sector organizations. After preliminary data screening and testing, the scales used in the present study were subjected to exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and validity analysis to test the factor structure of selected variables. Various statistical techniques like correlational analysis, *t*-test, one-way ANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression were used to test the hypotheses.

The results of the study indicate that there are significant differences in age, gender and the type of organization in the dimensions of organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness. Further, the findings indicate that the dimensions of organizational trust and forgiveness are significant predictors of employees' happiness. Also, while testing the overall impact of organizational trust on happiness of employees, it was found that forgiveness partially mediates this relationship. The results further indicate that demographic variables (age, gender and organization type) moderate the association between forgiveness and happiness.

The findings of the present study augments to the existing literature in different ways. First of all, the study adds to the literature on happiness at work by empirically testing and analyzing a unique and unexplored combination of variables as potential predictors of happiness of the employees, namely, organizational trust and forgiveness. Additionally, by providing the support on the association between forgiveness and happiness at work, the present study addresses the scarcity of literature regarding the missing link between forgiveness and happiness in organizational context. Also, the study contributes to the literature on relationship satisfaction domain of happiness by exploring how forgiveness explains the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. Further, this study attempts to rationalize the impact of forgiveness on happiness through the lenses of age, gender and organization type.

The findings of the present study have potential implications for managers and organizations in developing positive psychological interventions and practices to enhance happiness among employees. Fostering forgiveness might also work as a preventive therapy to regulate conflicts and contribute to the satisfaction of the employees. Present study also validates instruments in Indian organizations as the importance of measuring the variables under study cannot be denied. HR managers, professionals, practitioners and behavioral scientists should realize the importance of trust, forgiveness and happiness at work in bringing positive changes in the employees and should assess these variables. The results so obtained would help in encouraging the top management and HR managers to review their work policies, task structures and job designs in enhancing the levels of employee's happiness at work and well-being.

It is emphasized in the present study that in management circles, forgiveness is rarely discussed and seldom included in the training programmes. Therefore, the study posits that training programmes should be organized in order to guide them about the critical strengths of a trustful and forgiving culture. It will also unwelcome the consequences of negative affect at work. In turn, this could help employees to utilize forgiveness process in the efforts to improve their overall well-being. Further, the present study also discusses about the limitations and future research directions.

**Keywords:** Organizational trust, forgiveness, happiness, mediation analysis, moderation analysis, Indian employees.

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Rinki Dahiya



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## ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

S. NO.	Abbreviation	Full Form
1	ASV	Average Shared Variance
2	AVE	Average Variance Extracted
3	BBT	Benevolence Based Trust
4	CBT	Competence Based Trust
5	CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
6	CFI	Comparative Fit Index
7	CMB	Common Method Bias
8	CR	Composite reliability
9	CV	Control Variable
10	<i>df</i>	Degree of Freedom
11	DV	Dependent Variable
12	EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
13	FGV	Forgiveness
14	FOO	Forgiveness of Others
15	FOS	Forgiveness of Self
16	FOST	Forgiveness of Situations
17	H	Hypothesis
18	HAPP	Happiness
19	HR	Human Resources
20	IV	Independent variable
21	M	Mean
22	MSV	Maximum Shared Variance
23	N	Sample size
24	NA	Negative Affect
25	NFI	Normed Fit Index
26	<i>ns.</i>	Non-significant
27	OB	Organizational Behavior
28	OT	Organizational Trust
29	PA	Positive Affect
30	RBT	Reliability Based Trust
31	RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.
32	RO	Research Objective
33	SD	Standard Deviation
34	SE	Standard Error
35	SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
36	SWL	Satisfaction with Life
37	TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
38	VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
39	$\beta$	Standardized Beta Coefficient
40	$\chi^2$	Chi-square

## INTRODUCTION

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### 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

It is well said that when people are monetarily motivated, they want a return and when they are emotionally devoted, they want to contribute. In organizations, understanding of emotions is important for a successful functioning. As emotions, whether positive or negative, drive our behaviour, especially at the workplace, where the contribution of each employee is an asset to the organization (de Waal, 2018). Undoubtedly, employees can make an organization fail or succeed. In the current era, organizations are emphasizing on fostering the employee's positive psychological functioning in order to deal with workplace difficulties such as job dissatisfaction, low motivation (Hartijasti & Cho, 2018), interpersonal conflicts, and performance issues (Manoharan et al., 2012; Raju et al., 2012; Shrivastava & Purang, 2016; Su et al., 2014). Here, the significance of positive organizational behavior (POB) is quite evident, which focusses on the application of positive psychological constructs in organizational settings in order to study an individual's behavior (Barbaranelli et al., 2019; Sinha et al., 2016). The origin of POB can be traced to the positive psychology movement, initiated by Martin Seligman and colleagues in 1998 (Luthans, 2002).

Over the past few decades, researchers and organizational psychologists have emphasized anger, anxiety and workplace distress but now with the burgeoning interest in POB, organizational researchers are paying attention to positive variables, which mainly include happiness, forgiveness, trust, optimism, self-efficacy, hope and overall well-being (Carr, 2013). In the modern world, with a heavy competition, the workload, on the one hand, has intensified and, on the other, sustaining employee happiness has turned out to be more substantial (Dahiya & Rangnekar, 2018a; Singh & Aggarwal, 2018).

Indian philosophy examined the concept of happiness in detail in the Upanishads. According to the Upanishads, happiness is a fundamental state of existence that aligns the sacred self with the infinite dimension of the cosmos. In the West, Aristotle (350 BCE) used the word *eudaimonia* to denote happiness as doing good and living good. Researchers have faced issues in measuring the happiness of people due to its varying nature. The happiness of one person cannot be compared with another's, and therefore it is considered it as a fuzzy concept (Veenhoven, 1984). Even after the development of the first measure of happiness by Michael Fordyce in 1977, researchers have not given happiness studies the attention it deserves (Veenhoven, 2015). However, after the

publication of an article titled 'Objective Happiness' by Kahneman (1999), many studies have appeared, which contain 'happiness' in the title. Kahneman, (1999) showed that happiness can be assessed objectively by evaluating self-reporting of moods and emotions of the people over a period.

Moreover, happiness of employees have been evaluated in the name of job- or employee satisfaction; however, studies on happiness in organizational settings increased after 2000 (Fisher, 2010). Past studies have provided evidence that happiness of employees is associated with various organizational related outcomes such as high work performance, engagement and commitment (Manoharan et al., 2012; Othman et al., 2018; Paul, 2017; Rai & Sinha, 2000). Additionally, researchers have also indicated that happiness is linked with a sound mental and physical health (Sabatini, 2014; Veenhoven, 2008). Organizations need to ensure the happiness and overall well-being of their employees if they are to remain engaged and productive (Priyadarshi, 2011; Priyadarshi & Raina, 2014). The 'holy grail' of management research has signified that happy employees are more productive as compared to unhappy employees (Wright & Cropanzano, 2007).

Researchers have highlighted that happiness will offer a better understanding of what drives employees to flourish by realizing their latent abilities at work and contributing towards organizational success (Fisher, 2010; Singh & Aggarwal, 2018). Also, a possible solution to the problem of attrition is to enhance employee value proposition, and happiness is the key to achieve it (Hartijasti, 2016; Reddy, 2017). Regardless of all organizational related outcomes of happiness, little is known about the antecedents that affect or may even enhance the happiness of employees (Fisher, 2010; Salas-Vallina et al., 2018).

Another important construct that can be essential for employee happiness is organizational trust or trust among co-workers. The workplace of today has changed immensely and has diminished the dependence on the traditional bases of power originating in different formal positions of authority. Moreover, the driving forces of changes like technological innovations, globalization and increasing diversity have increased the prominence of interaction and self-directedness of employees (Pisedtasalasai & Gunasekarage, 2007; Thakur & Srivastava, 2014). Temporary work structures with more flexible teams are challenging to exercise control over (Green, 2012; Sushant & Singhal, 2015; Tarka & Rajah, 2005). These changes have prompted a huge dependence on trust as a mechanism to facilitate coordination and control on the work-related interdependent activities as it is difficult to contract everything in such complex working environments (Jain & Sinha, 2005; Jain, 2005). Therefore, because of the extent of cooperation

and collaboration needed now as never before in the organizations, the role of trust has grown in importance (Zeffane, 2018).

There is a dire need for organizations to build, support and restore trust as a key competency, which is crucial for their success, progress and survival (Green, 2012; Yadav & Shankar, 2017). It is consequently indispensable for the organizations to ensure that an adequate level of trust exists among the employees and to deal with its patterns. Zeffane (2018) has claimed that through trust in co-workers, employees feel connected to each other and also care for others. Moreover, it is related to the evolution and development of close relationships, which is an integral part of a healthy, happy and engaging workforce (Ferrin & Lyu, 2018; Singh & Singhal, 2015).

Against this backdrop, trustworthy relationships among employees are necessary as occupational discord is inevitable at the workplace. This can occur if two co-workers fail to understand things similarly or one intentionally commits an offence. Job settings can be a reason for transgressions among co-workers. These transgressions can range in severity from an argument to taking revenge concerning severe disputes, which can potentially affect the employees individually as well as the workplace in general. If these transgressions are not resolved appropriately, they may result in absenteeism, lower productivity, stress, mental health problems and lower self-rated health of the employees (Chaudhry & Asif, 2015; Toussaint et al., 2018).

Hence, researchers and organizational theorists have emphasized the importance of forgiveness at work by indicating it as one of the ways to regulate and resolve conflicts in organizations (Ayoko, 2016; Paul & Putnam, 2017). Forgiveness is known as a problem-solving strategy to reduce revengeful behavior for the wrongdoer and to curb negative judgments against them (Edwards et al., 2018). Researchers emphasize that managers and leaders should facilitate forgiveness in organizations because it supports a more cooperative behavior among the employees (Agarwal et al., 2012; Lase & Hartijasti, 2018; Purang, 2011; Smith, 2017) and corrects damaged relationships (Aquino et al., 2003). Researchers have claimed that workplace forgiveness is related to a caring attitude, higher morale and greater satisfaction (Bies et al., 2018; Dahiya & Rangnekar 2019b). It has been said that forgiveness helps to create a good workplace climate (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012).

The importance of helping employees to be happy is increasing and has become a worthy goal for the organizations and employees. Organizations have been continuously looking for the factors that can lead to happiness at work and further ensure the state of happiness (Othman et al., 2018). Moreover, with positive psychology gaining momentum, researchers have studied variables related to happiness. Still, it is in a nascent stage in organizational research (Salas-

Vallina et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2017).

A recent large-scale global survey carried out by professional networking site LinkedIn, with a sample from 16 countries (Australia, China, France, Germany, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Singapore, Spain, Brazil, UAE, UK and USA) revealed that for 72% Indians employees, happiness is the key to success and those who are happy are successful, reflecting the higher place given to happiness by Indian employees as they long for it (Press Trust of India, 2018). Many employees think that work detracts from rather than adds to happiness. Consider these quips: ‘The best part of going to work is coming back home at the end of the day’; ‘Work is just something I am doing until I win the lottery’; ‘I need a six-month vacation, twice a year’. Alternatively, the expressions ‘Monday blues’, ‘post-holiday depression’ or ‘Thank goodness it’s Friday!’ or ‘Friday’ becoming ‘Friyaay’. Such expressions suggest that employees feel happier when they are not at work and they desire to be happy (Warr, 2011). Thus, happiness has become a ‘buzzword’ in organizations.

Organizations of today are striving for a happy workforce to maintain their competitive edge as discords and mistakes at work are unavoidable since it is a product of exposure to others. Therefore, employees need to be emotionally literate about the importance of forgiveness at work. A study by Ortiz-Ospina & Roser (2017), based on the data of World Values Survey (2014), found that 32.95% of Indian people believe that ‘most people can be trusted’, indicating the interpersonal trust of Indian people in general context, which is well above the global average of 24.11%. Moreover, the results of the Global Trust Index (also known as Trust Barometer), an online survey conducted by Edelman (2018) covering 28 countries (US, UK, UAE, Spain, Italy, Mexico, Russia, Japan, India, Indonesia, Turkey, the Netherlands) revealed that 74% of Indian respondents have trust in ‘business in general’ (global average: 53%) and 82% of Indian employees reported that they have trust in their present employer (global average: 72%). Thus, it is quite evident that Indian people’s attitude is to trust in general and the present study will further increase the understanding of trust in the work settings.

Unlike Western countries, India, due to its collectivistic culture, has unique cultural characteristics such as respect for authority and age, tendency to develop harmonious relations, helping attitude and high level of tolerance in adversity (Hofstede, 2007). In India, forgiveness is known as *kshama* and is a part of dharma (righteousness/duty; Rye et al., 2000). Forgiveness is a strong pillar of Indian philosophy (Tripathi & Mullet, 2010). Nonetheless interpreting this in globally competitive work practices along with retaining it as a core value seems to be a daunting task. This presages the relative absence of footprints of workplace forgiveness. Since forgiveness

is more understood at a subjective level rather than as workplace ethics, there is a need to design and implement organizational ethics and development systems to address work norms by understanding it with relevant dimensions in Indian context (Amba-Rao et al., 2000; Sanghi, 2002). Additionally, researchers have also suggested that Indian employees will be more successful if they combine their achievement with traditional core values like forgiveness, helpfulness and trust (Bhal & Debnath, 2006; Kaur & Sinha, 1992; Pio, 2007; Sanghi, 2007; Verma, 2007).

Moreover, the ideas and arguments in positive psychology and its application in organizations are promising and interesting for both researchers and academicians (Lopez et al., 2018). However, the exact nature of the relationship between positive psychological constructs (organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness) in organizational context is yet to be established. This study attempts to bridge this gap by taking up important constructs (happiness, trust and forgiveness) of positive psychology for investigation. It is proposed that the test of organizationally relevant positive factors, such as trust and forgiveness in relation to happiness would highlight the utility of studying such constructs and build the scientific credence of the claims of application of positive psychology in organizations.

The discussion so far presents the necessity of understanding the concept of trust and forgiveness in Indian context in relation to the happiness at work. Hence, a study exploring the relationship between them at work would help Indian organizations as, in today's competitive environment, organizations are anxiously looking for these factors in the new generation employees to build upon it. Recognizing this importance, the emphasis of the present study is to examine the role of organizational trust (an independent variable) and forgiveness (an independent variable) in predicting happiness of employees (a dependent variable) in the Indian context. Factors of trust are competence, benevolence and reliability and the factors of forgiveness are forgiveness of self, others and situations. The factors of happiness in the present study are affect, both positive and negative, and life satisfaction. The following sections highlight the concepts and definitions of the independent and dependent variables.

## **1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST**

### **1.2.1 Concept and Definitions**

The origin of the word 'trust' dates back to the thirteenth century and has its foundations in symbolizing expressions of faithfulness and loyalty. Yet, the concept of trust is most likely to be as old as the formation of human society (Möllering et al., 2004). Trust is a multi-faceted and complex concept and as a result has led to the expansion of different angles in understanding it

(Wong et al., 2005). In organizational context, there are three types of trust, namely, organizational trust (trust the employees put in the organizational systems, policies, capability, etc.), interpersonal trust (trust between employees) and inter-organizational trust (trust between organizations). It is important to note that many scholars believe that though different types of trusts are related, they are different constructs. However, the link between them is not clear. It would seem logical to say that it is always the people and not organizations that trust each other. Exchanges between organizations are exchanges between individuals or small groups of individuals (Agarwal et al., 2013; Bhal & Ansari, 2002; McAllister, 1995). Consequently, researchers and organizational psychologists highlighted that the significance of organizational trust is always interpersonal in nature and state that it is like the glue that binds the people together.

The earliest definition of trust was given by Erikson (1950), who defined trust as a general belief in the goodness of others. Deutsch (1960) conceptualized trust as increased vulnerability of self to another. McAllister (1995) defined trust as a degree to which an individual is positive and is able to believe in the words, actions and decisions of others. Trust has two broad dimensions: cognition-based trust and affect-based. Cognition-based trust is built on self-perception and self-interest whereas affect-based trust on an emotional bond between individuals.

In organizational context, trust is treated as a lateral trust, that is, an employee's trust in other employees, and as a vertical trust, an employee's trust in his/her immediate supervisors. However, most trust studies have investigated the vertical trust, neglecting the lateral trust between co-workers (Vanhala et al., 2016). High trust relationships among co-workers are associated with increased loyalty and higher productivity for the organization and facilitates internal cooperation, effective communication, information sharing and innovativeness (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Lau & Laden, 2008; Srivastava & Kaul, 2016).

The concept of trust propounded by McAllister (1995) and Vanhala et al. (2016) are more specific to organizational settings while other concepts of trust are more generic. The difference between the two concepts of trust is that the McAllister's concept also measures peer's reliability, dependability, personal care and concern with the two broad dimensions of trust, that is, cognition- and affect-based trust. However, the concept of trust expounded in Vanhala et al. (2016) is more diverse, and along with the perceptions of benevolence and reliability of peer also includes competence-based trust, which is missing in the concept of trust McAllister (1995) proposed. The present study focuses on the recent concept of organizational trust given by Vanhala et al. (2016), who defined trust as the positive expectations of an employee for the

competence, benevolence and reliability of their co-workers and organization. According to Vanhala et al. (2016), the concept of organizational trust consists of three dimensions, namely, competence, benevolence and reliability. Next section briefly describes the meaning and importance of these dimensions for the present study.

## **1.2.2 Dimensions of Organizational Trust for the Present Study**

### **1.2.2.1 Competence-based trust**

Competence-based trust refers to the belief in skills and abilities of co-workers and in the management of organization that they can solve problems and generate anticipated outcomes (Mayer et al., 1995). Trust in the competence of others is that employees believe that their co-worker can accomplish the task the way it is expected from them or promised by them. For example, if employees are to trust their co-workers, they must be confident that he/she can perform and can deliver the desired outcome in time, such as meeting the deadlines, delivering high-quality products and services.

### **1.2.2.2 Benevolence-based Trust**

Trust based on benevolence is defined as the belief in the intentions of co-workers and management of the organization that they will exceed or sacrifice the egocentric motive of profit and will have genuine concern and care for others (Vanhala et al., 2016). Benevolence-based trust is developed from the belief that employees care for each other and will act in the best interests of each other. Precisely, employees identify benevolence when their colleagues express interest, care, concern and support without succumbing to opportunistic or egocentric behavior. This shows that employees have good intentions and are concerned for their co-worker's welfare (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer et al., 1995).

### **1.2.2.3 Reliability-based Trust**

Reliability-based trust is defined as the belief in the words, actions and behaviors of the co-workers and the management of the organization that they will tell the truth, behave consistently and predictably, fulfilling their promises and expectations (Mayer et al., 1995). Notably, these expectations related to trust are positive and are not expected from a dishonest or disloyal co-worker. Moreover, reliability is important for the working people as it gives information about the integrity of the organization and reflects the consistent and dependable behavior of its employees. Employees who are expected to show up in times of need and deliver the appropriate services seem to meet these criteria.



## **1.3 FORGIVENESS**

### **1.3.1 Concept and Definitions**

Initially, ‘forgiveness’ was often associated with religion. It first began as a religious ritual that people engaged in when seeking forgiveness from the divine. The notion of forgiveness as a religious ritual then shifted to the process of seeking and granting forgiveness between individuals (Krause, 2018). A possible reason for this is the historical separation of religion and science, coupled with the fact that earlier forgiveness was seen as belonging to the domain of religion only (McCullough et al., 2005). Interestingly, it was not until the 1980s that forgiveness was given serious and sustained attention as a psychological construct by scientific researchers (McCullough et al., 2007). Initially, forgiveness was the subject of interest mainly in the fields of core psychology. However, researching it in organizational contexts started after 2000 (Aquino et al., 2003; Cameron & Caza, 2002; Stone, 2002).

Among the first scientific researchers of forgiveness, Enright and Human Development Study Group (1991) defined forgiveness as the renunciation of negative emotions and judgment through love and compassion towards the offender. Later, Baumeister et al. (1998) argued that forgiveness is made up of two components: interpersonal and intrapersonal. The interpersonal component is the expression of forgiveness for others whereas intrapersonal component is the psychological aspect of forgiveness, such as the desire to forgive someone. Younger et al. (2004) highlighted four phases of forgiveness: the release of negative feelings, forgoing the negative feelings, restoring the relationship and forgetting or not forgetting the transgression. Forgiveness means to be truthful, caring, open-minded, sincere, providing someone another chance, doing the right thing, learning from mistakes or exploring a solution to the problem which has occurred. Moreover, it also means offering an act of love and compassion, accepting apologies, being considerate that people make mistakes and making someone feel good afterwards (Stone, 2002).

While Thompson et al. (2005) defined forgiveness as the enclosing of a perceived transgression such that the response of an individual to the person who has done wrong (transgressor) and the wrong event itself (transgression) changes from negative emotions to positive emotions. The source of a transgression may be oneself, another person or persons or a situation (Thompson et al. 2005). Tsarenko and Toijib (2011) assert that forgiveness is a process of individual’s progression in terms of emotion and cognition for which efforts at each stage is required. When negative emotions are renounced, the intention to punish a wrongdoer resolves. Hence, forgiveness transforms from a process into an action, and is considered as granted. Boonyarit et

al. (2013) define forgiveness in the context of work settings as overcoming from negative thoughts, feelings and judgments against the wrongdoer; understanding the causes that led to the transgression; and fostering positive ways of a resolution which enables a unique emotional transformation between forgiver and offender.

The present study follows the concept of forgiveness given by Thompson et al. (2005) as it is comprehensive and includes interpersonal, intrapersonal and situational aspects of forgiveness. A recent study conducted by Dahiya and Rangnekar (2018b) established its applicability in the Indian workplace. Next section describes the importance of dimensions of forgiveness.

### **1.3.2 Dimensions of Forgiveness for the Present Study**

#### **1.3.2.1 Forgiveness of Self**

Intrapersonal forgiveness or forgiveness of self is defined as a constructive attitudinal move, a result of self-perceived transgression concerning the beliefs, emotions and activities (Thompson et al., 2005). This dimension of forgiveness at work acts as a self- help mechanism because to elicit high performance, employees need to have an undeviating thought process that leads to mental clarity (Aldrin & Gayatri, 2013; Agrawal et al., 2006). Moreover, employees are becoming more cognizant of their ‘feeling world’. In order to increase or regain their self-respect, they tend to release or overcome self-resentments (Paul & Putnam, 2017). To be precise, they do not hold grudges for their self, accept their mistakes, learn to resolve the problems and get free from the emotional baggage that accompany all these (Mishra & Mohapatra, 2010).

#### **1.3.2.2 Forgiveness of Others**

Interpersonal forgiveness or forgiveness of others has been defined as abandoning the thoughts of revenge for a wrongdoer by releasing the resentments, hatred and hostility (Thompson et al., 2005). In the organizational context, Aquino et al. (2003) defined interpersonal forgiveness as a process wherein an employee considers himself or herself as a target of offence by another and instead of hurting or taking revenge, overcomes the negative feelings even though he or she finds that it is justifiable to seek revenge or hurt the transgressor. So, there is a decline in the feelings of taking revenge at the cognitive level (Enright & The Human Development Study Group, 1991). Simultaneously, at the affective level the forgiver after understanding the intentions of the offender might change attributions or overcome the negative judgments. Further, transgressed or targeted person sees the offender with compassion and develops empathy for him/her (Enright & The Human Development Study Group, 1991). Ultimately, at the behavioral level, there is a reconciliation between the transgressor and transgressed as the transgressed releases the offender

from the consequences of his/her offence. Moreover, it leads to overcoming of social estrangement and development of harmonious relations (Aquino et al., 2003; Chen & Wongsurawat, 2011).

### **1.3.2.3 Forgiveness of Situations**

Letting go of the resentments which have arisen because of circumstances and the source of transgressions cannot be attributed to self or other is forgiveness of situations (Thompson et al., 2005). There are some terrible and uncontrollable situations at work which cannot be attributed to self or others; for instance, downsizing, layoffs or redesigning of tasks. Such situations induce transgressions in employees even though the source of transgression cannot be identified as self or others (Dahiya & Rangnekar, 2018b). These situations affect the employees and their lives by making a long-term impact. Such situations which are not under anyone's control should be forgiven (Schulte et al., 2013).

## **1.4 HAPPINESS**

### **1.4.1 Concept and Definitions**

From twentieth century onwards, psychologists became interested in understanding the concept of happiness and answering the questions like what is happiness and how can it be measured through the empirical methods. Fordyce (1977), the pioneer researcher in the field of empirical happiness measurement and intervention, defined happiness as the emotional well-being that indicates a person's perception of an emotional state. It covers only an aspect of happiness, that is, affective evaluation. Seligman (2002) argued that happiness embraces both positive activities and emotions of three categories, past, present and future: (a) Past: feelings of pride, satisfaction and contentment; (b) Present: enjoying the current activities and emotions like the taste of food, listening to music, reading and working; and (c) Future: feeling of optimism and confidence.

Based on the work of Argyle et al. (1989), Diener et al. (2002) construes the concept of happiness as a cognitive and affective evaluation, which is further comprised of three main elements: the existence of pleasant or positive emotions, absence of unpleasant or negative emotions (affective evaluation) and life satisfaction (cognitive evaluation). The concept of happiness given by Hills and Argyle (2002) covers the aspects of life ability and taps the state of mental health of an individual. Dalai Lama says that the very purpose of life is to strive for happiness (Dalai Lama & Cutler, 2003). Peterson et al. (2005) suggested three orientations of happiness, namely, pleasure (enjoyable life), engagement (deriving inherent gratification through absorption and

accomplishment of activities) and meaning and purpose in life (find a deep sense of fulfillment by employing our unique strengths for a purpose greater than ourselves).

There are two perspectives or views on the happiness that are widely known. First, eudaimonia and second, hedonism (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Eudaimonia approach defines happiness as a complete virtue through which people learn to be true to one's self which was later on exemplified as psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989). Therefore, those people are happy who have a good moral character and consider their life as complete, exercise reasoning and utilizes their rational capacities (Januwarsono, 2015). The hedonic approach of happiness is more visible regarding measurement of happiness and researchers generally follow hedonic approach to measure happiness at work (Veenhoven, 2017). The hedonic approach has two components: cognitive evaluation, that is, life satisfaction (globally as in specific areas such as relationship, health, work and leisure) and affective evaluation, that is, presence of positive affect and absence of negative affect, which is to have more positive feelings and few or rare negative feelings (Diener, 1984).

Fisher (2010) propounded the concept of happiness at work (HAW) with three level of analysis of happiness, namely, personal, collective and transient state, representing the employee's happiness as an experience influenced by group dynamics. She considered momentary yet broader organizational experiences that have a prominent role in organizations. As per HAW, components related to personal level are job involvement, work engagement, job satisfaction, dispositional affect, typical mood at work (thriving, vigor and flourishing), affective organizational commitment and affective well-being at work. Further, at the group level, these individual or personal level constructs are extrapolated to the collective and transient stage. Though Fisher's framework seems to be comprehensive and appealing, it overly emphasizes affect and job satisfaction at different levels. For example, if affect is considered as a dispositional variable to understand the mood state of employees, then affective well-being is also accounted in the concept of HAW as well as the affective commitment of the employees towards the organization. Though the construct of HAW originated from positive psychological roots, the outcome proposed by Fisher does not seem surprising.

However, the point worth noting is that Fisher's study provides us the background to explore happiness in organizational context and a framework which accommodates the well-established existing constructs together. Though job satisfaction is pertinent for human resource development (Chauhan et al., 2005; Mishra et al., 1999; Pathak et al., 2009), due to an overemphasis on job satisfaction, the convergence of affect, moods, well-being and affective

commitment (despite being separate variables) have been criticized by researchers (Singh & Aggarwal, 2018). Moreover, the construct of happiness given by Fisher (2010) does not include cognitive aspect; that is, life satisfaction in the construct of happiness, which is the main component of happiness that cannot be determined on affective states only (Veenhoven, 2015).

While in the emerging research, happiness is often considered synonymous with subjective well-being (Carr, 2013; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Safaria, 2014; Singh & Aggarwal, 2018) and well-being (Field & Buitendach, 2011; Toussaint & Friedman, 2009). They are used interchangeably in the literature. Dr. Ruut Veenhoven, known as ‘the Godfather of Happiness Studies’ and the founding director of Collection of Happiness Measures of the World Database of Happiness Research revealed that affective and cognitive component can measure happiness most effectively. After reviewing more than five thousand studies on happiness, he stated that happiness consists of three dimensions: the presence of positive affect, the absence of negative affect and satisfaction with life (Veenhoven, 2017). The current study uses the term ‘happiness’ as in the work of past researchers (Diener, 1984; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Veenhoven, 2017). The following section briefly describes the meaning and importance of the dimensions of happiness.

## **1.4.2 Dimensions of Happiness for the Present Study**

### **1.4.2.1 Positive Affect**

Positive affect (PA) is defined as the extent to which an individual feels interested, enthusiastic, excited, active, proud, inspired, attentive and determined (Watson et al., 1988). PA reflects how much a person tends to be cheerful and experiences positive moods and emotions in various situations (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Researchers have been emphasizing the prominent role of positive affect in explaining the happiness of employees and have highlighted the outcomes of an employee’s PA, which concerns organizations (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Fisher (2002) asserted that positive affective reactions stem from the most common events that include appreciation, recognition and daily uplifts by supervisors.

Researchers have also argued that the events signifying goal achievement, participation in decision making and recreational facilities provided by the organization also enhances positive affect in the employees (Mostafa, 2017; Paul & Putnam, 2017). There is evidence that PA facilitates cognitive flexibility, creativity and openness to information by providing the time, energy and persistence that are necessary for optimal behavior and performance (e.g., Bang & Reio, 2017; Mostafa, 2017). Therefore, PA has a relevance to the organizations and individual’s happiness.

#### **1.4.2.2 Negative Affect**

Negative affect (NA) has been defined as subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement, which include a variety of aversive mood states such as guilty, scared, nervous, irritable, hostile (Watson et al., 1988). An individual with an unpleasant or negative affect at work is more likely to doubt his or her capability to perform (Bang & Reio, 2017). Thus, negative affect is associated with avoiding intimidating situations and activities because in such situations, people tend to assume that they are unable to cope with the situation successfully. Past studies also argue that high level of NA in an organization could signal that the present situation is alarming or problematic, and necessary steps should be taken to solve it (e.g., Montani et al., 2018). While a low level of NA is acceptable and beneficial for the organization because it has the power to mobilize generation of new ideas and innovative solutions and their application in the organization, thus, breaking the problematic status quo of the employees (Pandey & Srivastava, 2008). Other researchers have argued that a high level of NA deviates the attention of the employees from goal accomplishment (Bang & Reio, 2017), curbing the positivity in the employees and reducing the level of happiness.

Research demonstrates that PA (e.g., energy, joy, alertness) and NA (e.g., hostility, anxiety, fear) are not only opposite of each other but also separate or distinct dimensions (Watson et al., 1988). For instance, at work, an individual who is satisfied may also experience distress (Moutinho & Smith, 2000). Thus, it is possible that a person can be high in both types of affects or low in one and high in the other or low in both (Naragon & Watson, 2009). The present study considers positive affect and negative affect as independent dimensions of happiness.

#### **1.4.2.3 Satisfaction with Life**

Satisfaction with life (SWL) is defined as the assessment of an individual's global judgment of life satisfaction as a whole (Diener et al., 1985). This is a cognitive component of happiness and provides an integrated judgment of how well a person's life as a whole is going. Presently, life satisfaction has become a quintessential dimension of the happiness of employees for the organizations and a desirable parameter for job seekers (Kashyap et al., 2016). Those days are gone when organizations could attract a pool of talented people through its goodwill or because of impressive legendary leaders who advanced their careers in the same organization. The workforce of today believes in evaluating the efforts made by organizations to ensure their well-being and life satisfaction, which has become a determining factor for the holistic happiness and the retention and management of talent at work. Organizational psychologists have felt the need to study life satisfaction in their field also (Erdogan et al., 2012; Unanue et al., 2017) as it is

positively associated with job performance (Jones, 2006), lower turnover intentions (Rode et al., 2007) and is a determining factor of happiness (Veenhoven, 2017). As a result, SWL has become a desirable goal for organizations as well as for an individual's happiness (Hagmaier et al., 2018).

### **1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Prevailing literature (covered in Chapter 2 in detail) has clearly recognized the significance of happiness; however, the question of —how to promote and effectively ensure happiness of employees is still under studied. Employee happiness being considered the top most concerns facing the organizations nowadays (Salas-Vallina et al., 2018), therefore, organizational experts are moving towards researchers for empirically examined solutions to understand the factors affecting happiness at work (Fisher, 2010; Williams et al., 2017). Still, existing gap with respect to information around antecedents of happiness is causing major barrier towards the way to smooth evolution of research and practice, targeted at enhancing happiness among workforce in organizations, as reflected in the contemporary statements by distinguished scholars in the field as explained below.

Highlighting the need for research around the factor affecting happiness of employees, Fisher (2010) apprehended that Happiness at Work (HAW) literature is dominated by job satisfaction and employee engagement focused studies and little is known regarding the factors affecting happiness in the relationship satisfaction domain of HAW studies. Also, the study conducted by Rego and Cunha (2012) highlighted there is scarcity of systemized empirical studies on factors affecting happiness at work and very little is known about the way employee happiness can be influenced by individual and organizational factors. Further, Salas–Vallina et al. (2018) emphasized on the examination of predictors of employee happiness as a crucial future research agenda, which could provide help to the organizations to work upon happiness at work.

While, work-related factors contributing towards happiness have been studied in the Western countries such as USA, Canada, Netherlands and employee happiness remains underexplored in Indian organizational settings (Gulyani & Sharma, 2018). Moreover, employee perceptions of happiness are affected by the culture of a nation (Sousa & Porto, 2015) and the factors affecting employee happiness found in Western countries may differ considerably in Indian organizational settings due to its unique socio-cultural legacy (Singh & Aggarwal, 2018). In this direction, it can be stated that one size doesn't fit all when it comes to factors affecting happiness of employees (Fisher, 2010). Thus, the gaps discussed above create a need for the researchers in India to study and understand the factors that may enhance their employees' happiness becomes important.

## **1.6 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

Organizations are now focusing more on positive emotions than negative emotions. As organizations cannot just work on curbing the negative feelings, thoughts and activities but they also have to find new ways to release positivity in the employees (King et al. 2016; Khanvilkar & Srivastava, 2015; Kim & Won, 2008). To bring success and competence at work, and to work effectively, organizations need to understand that happy employees are essential as they are the ones who give a competitive advantage to the organization. Moreover, past studies have evidenced that by enhancing the happiness of employees, the performance of the organization can be improved, as happy employees are actively engaged in their work (Aggarwal et al., 2007; Gupta, 2018).

Undoubtedly, Indian organizations are not immune to the intensified global competition and restructuring (Ghosh, 2007; Ghosh & Das, 2004). The present Indian business environment is known for its complexity and unpredictability (Meena et al., 2018; Pundir et al., 2013; Singh et al., 2018). On the one hand, it offers career opportunities and growth to employees and, on the other, unceasing competitive pressure that leads to stress at work (Chhabra, 2018; Ghosh et al., 2003; Pundir et al., 2011). Global Workforce Study (Towers Watson, 2015) found that 50% of Indian employees face a high level of stress at work. Moreover, Indian employees have to face several challenges at work such as indiscipline, leadership concerns, lay-off, labor protests, and vandalism of machinery, which cognitively or non-cognitively affect their working behavior and lives in terms of workplace fatigue, sleeping disorders, anxiety, stress, etc. (Bhalerao & Kumar, 2016; Hayat, 2014; Mishra et al., 2014; Rani et al., 2015).

Employee happiness is not only pertinent for the employees but also for organizations to utilize the full capacity of the human capital involved. It is necessary to establish an equivalence through positive psychology in the lives of the employees. As a consequence, the role of human resource development (HRD) has never been as commanding as it is today in India (Chaudhary et al., 2013). As the success of an organization to a large extent rests upon the happiness of its employees. Thus, ensuring and sustaining employee happiness has become the most significant challenge for Indian organizations (Singh & Aggarwal, 2018).

Past studies have showed a few factors affecting happiness at work (Fisher, 2010; Salas-Vallina et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2017). One of the primary sources of happiness is satisfactory relationships (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Salas-Vallina et al., 2018). Work relationships are characterized by professionalism and are generally known for getting the work done; employees also fear the opportunistic behavior (doing anything to get ahead) of their co-workers. However,



they want to have a colleague to whom as a friend they can go when they face a work predicament (Rani & Asija, 2017; Vanhala et al., 2016). Therefore, trustworthy relationships at work may have a significant impact on the emotional well-being of the employees and provide social support and comfort. Because a large part of our lives is spent at work, the quality of the experiences we get from the workplace have an impact on our happiness. Therefore, happiness, although a subjective state, is deeply rooted in a work context and both of its components – emotional and cognitive – are to some extent influenced by trust and forgiveness at work, developed by interpersonal contacts at work. This indicates a similarity between trust and forgiveness: they are both affected by social interactions.

Despite the link between trust and happiness, very little research has been conducted on it in the Indian context. The present study attempts to add to the work of trust in work settings and also strives to establish the link between trust and happiness. Happiness has been postulated as the ultimate form of human contentment, and if forgiveness at work is a reflection of the strength of human character and positivity at work, it would be expected that forgiveness shares an association with happiness in employees. Despite the utmost importance of trust, forgiveness at work and happiness for the organizations, very little is known about their interrelationships.

Given the role of trust, forgiveness and understanding precisely how it is related to happiness seem to be an essential undertaking. Specifically, whether trust and forgiveness at work act as predictors of happiness at work. While work-related factors contributing towards happiness have been studied in the Western countries, employee happiness remains underexplored in Indian organizational settings (e.g., Gulyani & Sharma, 2018; Singh & Aggarwal, 2018). For the organizations in India to study and understand the factors that may enhance their employees' happiness becomes important. The gaps discussed above create a need to explore this unexplored area. The present study is designed with a purpose to examine the impact of trust and forgiveness at work on the happiness of Indian employees and their interrelationships including the influence of demographic variables.

## **1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

1. The study focuses on the employees working in public and private sector organizations in India. The sample includes employees working at junior, middle and senior managerial level.
2. The study analyzes the extent of organizational trust in Indian organizations with the help of three dimensions, namely, competence, benevolence and reliability.
3. The study considers dimensions of self, others and situation to measure forgiveness at work in Indian organizations

4. Happiness of employees is measured through positive- and negative affect at work and satisfaction with life in Indian organizations.
5. Finally, the study aims to investigate the relationship between organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness of the employees in Indian organizations.

## **1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study proposes that trust and forgiveness at work enhance the happiness of employees. Following are the research questions for the present study.

1. Does the employees' propensity for organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) vary with respect to demographic variables (age, gender and organization type) in the Indian organizations?
2. Does the employees' tendency for forgive (self, others and situations) vary with respect to demographic variables (age, gender and organization type) in the Indian organizations?
3. Does the employees' perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) vary with respect to demographic variables (age, gender and organization type) in the Indian organizations?
4. Does organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) predict happiness of employees (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) working in selected Indian organizations?
5. Does forgiveness (self, others and situations) predict happiness of employees (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) working in selected Indian organizations?
6. Does forgiveness mediate the relationship of organizational trust and happiness?
7. Does organizational trust mediate the relationship of forgiveness and happiness?
8. Does the relationship between forgiveness and happiness is moderated by age, gender and organization type?

## **1.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The theoretical framework of the present study can be drawn using broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998; 2001), affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001), and socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen et al., 1999).

### **9.1 Broaden and Build Theory**

Broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998; 2001) postulates that positive moods and emotions are significant to the science of individual's well-being because positivity of individuals help them for optimal well-being and happiness. Further, the theory states that experiences of positive

emotions such as joy, contentment, trust and forgiveness—are moments which are not plagued by negative moods and emotions such as sadness, anger, revenge and anxiety. As per Fredrickson (1998), the positive emotions appear to broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources. Consistent with this intuition, the positive emotions creates 'upward spiral' of positivity and create long term impact on happiness of people. Diener et al. (1991) also highlighted that these emotions in people are not only cultivated in themselves but also affected by those who are around them (through social interactions at work).

Further, the theory elucidates that work environments that are trust worthy allow the employee to develop their intellectual, social, and physical resources. Such an individual feel comfortable and creates an environment that induces positive thinking and behaviors such as letting go of the resentments and results in willingness to forgive offenders or wrong doers. Continued positive emotions foster the likelihood of ongoing positive emotions ensuing in happiness. Also, Fredrickson (2001) suggested that such types of upward spirals can occur in a variety of settings, including the trustworthy and forgiving workplace. Moreover, according to broaden-and-build theory employees with high levels of positive emotions are more likely to broaden-up and build the cognitive and emotional energies for their work, whereas negative emotions at work narrow-down and in turn destroys the same.

### **1.9.2 Affect Theory of Social Exchange**

The affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001) expands the domain of exchange in two main ways. First, exchange outcomes—rewards and punishments—are construed as having emotional effects that vary in form and intensity. In the work context, when exchanges occur successfully, employees experience an emotional uplift (a “high”), and when exchanges do not occur successfully, they experience emotional “downs”. The theory postulates that people tend to develop and maintain relationships based upon their perceived costs and benefits. In the context of work relationships, the paradigm of affect theory of social exchange suggests that employees tend to faith and grant forgiveness to those who they believe can bring desirable attributes for the benefit of both the parties. Such a successful social exchange can arouse emotional 'uplift' in terms of positive emotions such as happiness.

### **1.9.3 Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory**

Socio-emotional selectivity theory developed by Carstensen et al. (1999) is based on life-span theory of motivation. The theory asserts that as the time horizon shrinks, the people become increasingly selective and give more attention to the present goals instead of future goals. This

motivational shift influence their affective and cognitive processing and they prefer positive emotions over negative emotions. With reference to the workplace, as people age they prioritize maximization of positive emotional experiences (e.g. happiness, gratitude, hope, confidence etc.) and minimization of emotional risk (e.g. holding grudges, taking revenge). They also tend to rely on others and the willingness to forgive others also increases with the course of time (Carstensen et al., 1999). With the pursuit of emotional gratifying social interactions at work (trust, honesty and forgiveness), and with the help of their enhanced emotional regulatory skills (ability to balance between positive and negative moods and emotions) they tend to derive happiness.

### **1.10 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY**

The study is divided into six chapters.

**Chapter 1 (Introduction):** This chapter briefly describes the conceptualization and evolution of trust, forgiveness and happiness, definitions and dimensions. It also includes the rationale of the study which then is followed by research questions.

**Chapter 2 (Literature Review):** This chapter reviews the existing literature on trust, forgiveness and happiness along with their respective dimensions. This chapter also includes the review of the existing literature on variables under study in the context of India (under separate heading).

**Chapter 3 (Research Methodology):** This chapter is about the objectives of the study, design of the research, description of methods adopted for data collection, the demographic profile of the respondents and the measures used in the study.

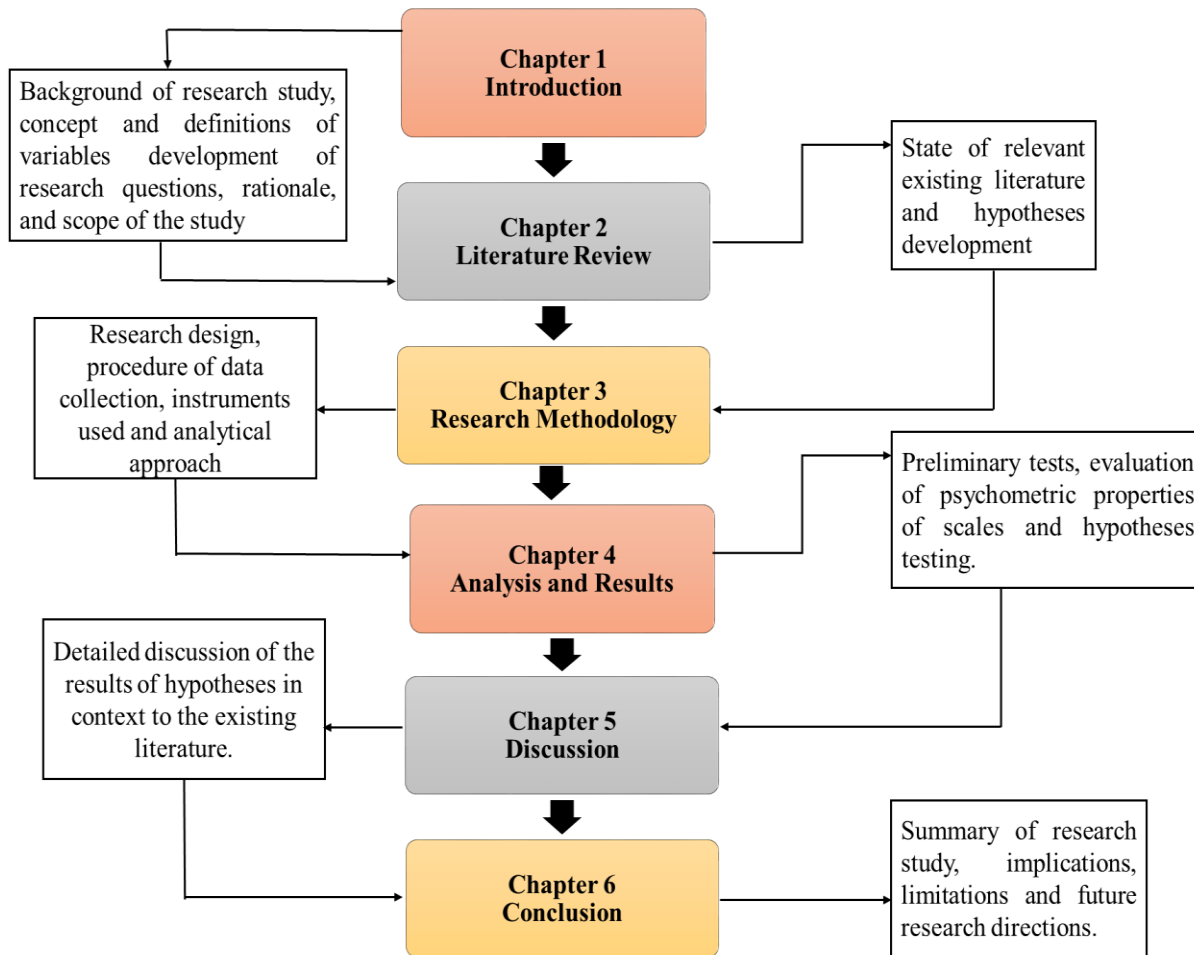
**Chapter 4 (Analysis and Results):** This chapter starts with a brief introduction to the screening of the data set, normality tests and assessment of common method bias. Then an evaluation of the psychometric properties of the scales adopted (e.g., trust, forgiveness, and happiness) is undertaken. Hypotheses are tested in this chapter using various statistical tests such as *t*-test, ANOVA, multiple hierarchical regression, mediation and moderation analyses.

**Chapter 5 (Discussion):** This chapter discusses the findings of the study.

**Chapter 6 (Conclusion, Implications, Limitations and Future Scope):** This chapter includes the conclusions drawn from the research which then is followed by theoretical and practical implications of the study. It also discusses the limitations of the research and, finally directions for future research are proposed.

Figure 1.1 presents the flowchart of the organization of the thesis.

**Figure 1.1: Flow chart of the study**



### 1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

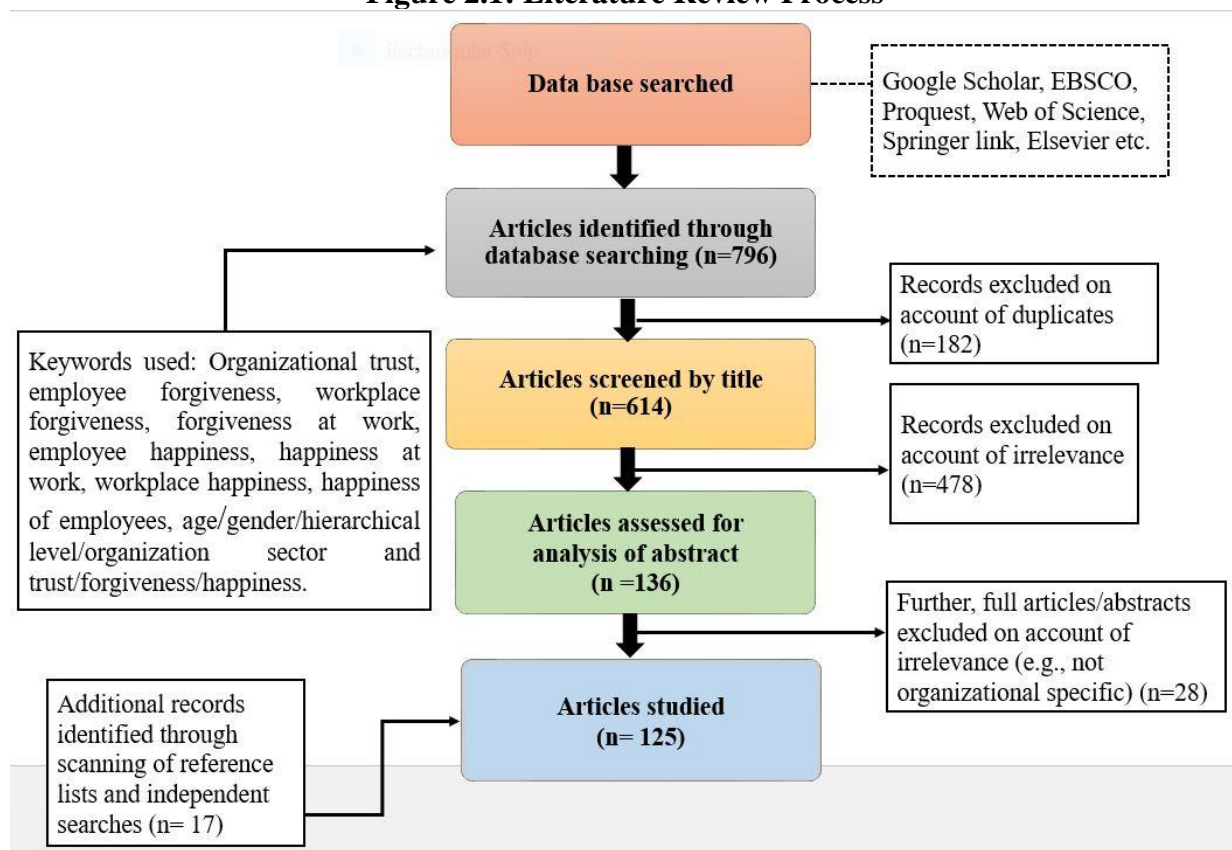
This chapter introduced the concept of trust, forgiveness and happiness of employees preceded by the background of the study. It also included the dimensions of all three variables considered in the present study (dimensions for trust are competence, benevolence, and reliability; dimensions for forgiveness are forgiveness of self, others and situations; and dimensions for happiness are positive affect, negative affect, and satisfaction with life). Later sections of the chapter presented the rationale, scope and research questions of the study followed by the organization of the thesis. Figure 1.1 presents a flow chart depicting the organization of the study.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Previous chapter briefly introduced organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness of employees. This chapter discusses the extant literature concerning the independent and dependent variables of the study. For the purpose of literature review, systematic approach has been followed. Figure 2.1 depicts the flow of the process. This chapter is divided into six sections. The evolution and definitions of variables is presented in the first section; relevant theories are briefly discussed in the second section; antecedents and consequences are presented in third section; relevant studies related to organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness are elaborated in the fourth section. This is followed by presentation of the variations in the variables due to demographics (age, gender, managerial level and organization type) in the fifth section; and the sixth section highlights the expected relationship between these variables. Relevant literature in Indian context has also been discussed within each section. Finally, a summary has been provided.

Figure 2.1: Literature Review Process



## 2.2 ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

### 2.2.1 Brief Background

With the growing curiosity and interest in trust among the researchers, diverse scholarly perspectives have been developed to study trust and providing its definition and conceptualization. This has led to different definitions of trust. Many writers, mainly from the disciplines of sociology, social psychology and economics have defined trust.

Sitkin and Roth (1993), after reviewing the literature on trust that was available till 1993, suggest ‘nearly all research has at least implicitly accepted a definition of trust as a belief, attitude, or expectation concerning the likelihood that the actions or outcomes of another individual, group or organization will be acceptable’ (p. 368). Their definition differs from Rotter’s (1971) in that it introduces ‘organization’, given much of their research focuses on trust in an organizational setting. However, similar to Rotter’s definition, their definition does not say whether any risk is involved in trusting. Mayer et al. (1995) suggest that trust implicitly includes an element of risk.

Rousseau et al. (1998) conducted one of the most comprehensive cross-disciplinary reviews of research on trust. In trying to synthesise interdisciplinary views, they propose that two conditions must exist for trust to take place: risk and interdependence. Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) highlighted the possible *forms* that trust can take and identify three constituent parts: trust as a belief, trust as a decision and trust as an action. Elaborating on these forms of trust, McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) view trust as an expectation or belief about another party, while willingness to make oneself vulnerable is intentional and results in trust as a risk-taking act, which is behavioral.

Gillespie (2012) made another important contribution towards a more comprehensive understanding of trust by pointing out that intentions to trust may or may not result in an actual decision to trust based on the competence of another. She therefore proposes a very specific interpretation of the decision to trust by emphasising its volitional nature and defining it in terms of risk-taking behaviours. The present study focuses on the concept of trust given by Vanhala et al. (2016), which is based on a previous work (Mayer et al., 1995). Vanhala et al. (2016) define organizational trust as the positive expectations of an individual employee of the competence, benevolence and reliability of their co-workers and management. Table 2.1 exhibits some of the important definitions, presenting the evolution of the concept of organizational trust from its inception till now.

**Table 2.1: Definitions of Organizational Trust**

<b>Author(s)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Rotter (1971)	“Trust is an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, or verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied on.”
Larzelere and Huston (1980)	“Trust is the extent to which a person believes another person (or persons) to be benevolent and honest.”
McAllister (1995)	“Trust as the extent to which a person is confident in and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions and decisions, of another.”
Mayer et al. (1995)	“Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of 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 party.”
McEvily and Tortoriello (2011)	“Trust as an expectation or belief about another party as perceptual or attitudinal in nature, while willingness to make oneself vulnerable is intentional and results in trust as a risk-taking act, which is behavioral.”
Gillespie (2012)	“Trust is ‘the level of confidence that one individual has in another’s competence and his or her willingness to act in a fair, ethical, and predictable manner.’”
Vanhala et al. (2016)	“Organizational Trust is the positive expectations of an individual employee of the competence, benevolence and reliability of co-workers and management.”

## **2.2.2 Relevant Theories of Trust**

### **2.2.2.1 Social Exchange Theory**

Blau (1964) propounded that people enter into different kind of relationships with friends, family, relatives and co-workers, which mainly comprise exchange of socio-emotional as well as economical resources. The social exchange theory (SET) is also associated with the concept of trust. Cho, Johanson, and Guchait (2009) also indicated that trust researchers use SET as a theoretical underpinning of trust in various social contexts such as personal and professional relationships. Holmes (1981) asserted that trust is the favourable outcome of social exchanges as behavior in a social context is the result of an exchange between two individuals and is dependent on the rewarding reactions from others in terms of faith gained.

Deems and Deems (2003) argued that the propensity to trust an individual is linked with the perceived social exchange with colleagues and centres on the social perspective of an association with another individual or group with a concern for their well-being. Further, this tends to



inculcate in them feelings of appreciation, personal obligations and trust (Blau, 1964). Lewicki et al. (2006) stated that individual's trust starts at zero baseline and slowly develops over time. Therefore, the reciprocity between two people helps to explain the trustful, committed and loyal relationship between them.

#### **2.2.2.2 Social Information Processing Theory**

Social informational processing theory propounded by Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) asserts that perceptions and attitudes of people are partially affected by the social context in which they belong and is embedded in their informational and social networks. Researchers have used this theory to study organizational trust (e.g., Lau & Liden, 2008). As per social informational processing theory, trust among co-workers/peers is shaped at individual-, group- and organizational level through sharing of information with one another, whether through virtual and/or face-to- face contact and attaining a consensus (Hill et al., 2009).

#### **2.2.2.3 Self-determination Theory**

Self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) offers another useful approach to explore the association between trust, emotions and work outcomes from the viewpoint that trust satisfies significant but basic psychological needs, which are universal in all human beings. The three basic psychological needs are the need for autonomy, need for relatedness and need for competence. Need for autonomy makes people strive to be self-regulated or be the initiator of one's own action, freedom to make choices with integrated values (Deci & Ryan, 2011); need for relatedness refers to the feelings of connectedness with others, close relationships, mutual respect, reliance and caring for others and also includes frequent positive interactions with others which generates feelings of reliability and benevolence (Bhal & Ansari, 2002; Marescaux et al., 2010). Finally, competence includes feeling skilful, effective and efficient in gaining expertise in accomplishing challenging tasks and attaining desired outcomes (Marescaux et al., 2010). SDT asserts that employees by satisfying these three needs develop supportive and trusting relations within the work context. They follow the behavioral models and tend to adopt the values of those whom they trust at work because trustful people encourage internalization (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

#### **2.2.2.4 Rational Choice Theory**

From within organizational science from the rational choice perspective, Coleman (1990) suggested that the traces of trust can be found from political, economical and sociological theories. As per Deems and Deems (2003), the rational choice theory suggests that each transaction or interaction between employees is based on the belief that 'I will do this for that'.

Further, Coleman (1990) says that employees are rational actors and are continuously engaged in calculations even with the limited information available to them to maximise favourable outcomes. Thus, they take calculated decisions regarding the organizational trust and/or trustworthiness of the organization. Therefore, trust from the perspective of an employee is greater than a psychological propensity and a calculating relationship. Developing hopes and making calculations with limited information are the essence of organizational trust. With this line of thought, trust can be seen as a precondition and outcome of cooperative relationships.

### 2.2.3 Antecedents of Organizational Trust

The empirical research on the various factors that leads to the development of trust in the working relationships has resulted in a number of antecedents of trust. In order to understand the same, this section provides useful insight regarding the different antecedents of trust and their relationship. Table 2.2 presents the various antecedents of trust at work.

**Table 2.2: Antecedents of Organizational Trust**

<b>Antecedents</b>	<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Organizational justice	Positive	Colquitt et al., 2012; DeConinck, 2010; Lance et al., 2010
Perceived organizational support	Positive	Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Ristig, 2009
Participative and consulting decision making	Positive	Huang et al., 2010
Information sharing	Positive	Nguyen & Rose, 2009
Cognitive flexibility	Positive	Raes et al., 2011
Emotional discomfort	Negative	Lee et al., 2006
Job insecurity	Negative	Richter & Näswall, 2019
Civility at work	Positive	Leiter et al., 2011
Psychological contract breach	Negative	Deery et al., 2006; Guest, 2016; Jafri, 2012; Paillé & Raineri, 2016
Rapport and loyalty	Positive	Jap et al., 2011; Rosanas & Velilla, 2003
Emotional display	Positive	Gardner et al., 2009
Perceived help	Positive	De Jong et al., 2007

Organizational justice (DeConinck, 2010; Lance et al., 2010), perceived organizational support (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Ristig, 2009; Sharma et al., 2007), participative and consulting decision making (Huang et al., 2010; Yamagishi et al., 2005), information sharing (Nguyen & Rose, 2009), cognitive flexibility (Raes et al., 2011), shared values (Gillespie & Mann, 2004) and civility at work (Leiter et al., 2011) predict organizational trust significantly.

Rapport and loyalty (Jap et al., 2011), emotional display (Gardner et al., 2009; Christensen et al., 2014) and perceived help (De Jong et al., 2007) act as the predictors and have been found positively related to trust in recent studies. Also, emotional discomfort (Lee et al., 2006), job insecurity (Richter & Näswall, 2019) and breach of psychological contract (Jafri, 2012; Paillé & Raineri, 2016) share a negative relationship with organizational trust.

#### 2.2.4 Consequences of Organizational Trust

Researchers have identified many outcome variables of trust. The overview of the consequences of trust has been shown in Table 2.3. Trust at work has a positive relationship with variables like job/employee satisfaction (Cho & Park, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Fatima et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2010), knowledge sharing behavior (Cho et al., 2007; Chowdhury, 2005; Rutten et al., 2016; Wongsurawat, 2011), commitment (Cho & Park, 2011; Rahmani & Heydari, 2017).

**Table 2.3: Consequences of Organizational Trust**

Consequences	Relationship	Author(s)
Job and employee satisfaction	Positive	Cho & Park, 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002.
In-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior	Positive	Fatima et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2010
Knowledge sharing behavior	Positive	Hsu et al., 2007; Rutten et al., 2016
Commitment	Positive	Cho & Park, 2011; Rahmani & Heydari, 2017
Employee Engagement	Positive	Downey et al., 2015; Hsieh & Wang, 2016
Relationship satisfaction and interpersonal relations	Positive	Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Lu et al., 2012
Uncertainty at work	Negative	Colquitt et al., 2012; Skiba & Wildman, 2019
Cooperation	Positive	Christ et al., 2008; Long, 2018
Conflict (work and non-work)	Negative	Oliveira & Scherbaum, 2016; Raghuram & Wiesenfeld, 2004
Psychological safety	Positive	Schaubroeck et al., 2011
Intention to stay	Positive	Basit & Duygulu, 2018
Counterproductive behavior	Negative	Colquitt et al., 2007
Optimism	Positive	Stander et al., 2015

Researchers have also indicated that organizational trust has a positive relationship with employee engagement (Downey et al., 2015; Hsieh & Wang, 2016), innovative behavior (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Ellonen et al., 2008), relationship satisfaction (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009; Lu et al., 2012; Al-Terri et al., 2017), cooperation (Christ et al., 2008; Long, 2018), psychological safety (Schaubroeck et al., 2011) and optimism (Stander et al., 2015).

Additionally, trust has a negative relationship with uncertainty at work (Colquitt et al., 2012; Skiba & Wildman, 2019), work and non-work conflict (Oliveira & Scherbaum, 2016; Raghuram & Wiesenfeld, 2004) and counterproductive behavior (Colquitt et al., 2007).

### **2.2.5 Related Literature on Organizational Trust**

This section focusses upon the review of contemporary research on organizational trust and helps in identifying areas of prior scholarship to prevent duplication of effort and point the way in fulfilling a need for additional research. Table 2.4 (on next page) presents some of the crucial studies focussing on organizational trust. This further helps in developing a better understanding of the variables.

### **2.2.6 Studies on Organizational Trust in the Indian Context**

This section of the chapter deals with recent studies on organizational trust conducted in India. The literature on organizational trust mostly revolves around variables such as organizational justice, commitment, perceived support, citizenship behavior, learning capability, employee and work engagement, job satisfaction, psychological well-being and leadership styles. The following paragraphs provide a summary of the recent studies related to organizational trust conducted in different regions of India covering a variety of samples.

The study conducted by Agarwal et al. (2013) examined the relationship between the impact of quality of work life on trust in a sample of 213 managers working at different levels in Indian IT sector. Results indicated that the quality of work life significantly predicts the cognition and affect based trust at work. Narang and Singh (2012) investigated the relationship between HR practices, perceived organizational support and organizational trust. The data were collected from a sample of 308 employees working in 28 organizations located in National Capital Region. The findings highlighted that perceived organizational support partially mediates the relationship between human resource practices and organizational trust.

Mukherjee and Bhattacharya (2013) aimed to explore the relationship between organizational justice dimensions, affective commitment and organizational trust in a sample of 289 managers working in manufacturing organizations (from the eastern region). The results revealed that procedural justice and interactional justice have non-significant relationship with organizational trust. Additionally, the distributional justice and organizational affective commitment are fully mediated by organizational trust.

**Table 2.4: Related Literature Focusing on Organizational Trust**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objective(s) of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the Study	Journal
Rawlins (2008)	Organizational transparency and organizational trust	The study sought to examine the relationship between organizational transparency and organizational trust.	Web-based survey, Pearson's correlations and multiple regression	361 employees working in healthcare organizations	The findings revealed that an employee's perception of organizational transparency and trust are positively related. Additionally, perception of employee's accountability, sharing of substantial information and participation (dimensions of transparency) enhances goodwill, integrity and competence (dimensions of trust).	<i>Public Relations Journal</i>
Clapp-Smith et al. (2009)	Perceptions of authentic leadership, psychological capital, trust and financial performance	The study aimed to investigate the relationship between follower's perceptions of authentic leadership, psychological capital and financial performance with trust as a mediator.	Personal visits with pen-and pencil survey, Correlation and structural equation modelling	89 employees working at Midwestern United States retail stores	The results established that both perceptions of authentic leadership and psychological capital significantly contribute to the financial performance of employees. Also, trust partially mediates the link between authentic leadership and financial performance and fully mediates the association between psychological capital and performance.	<i>Journal of Leadership &amp; Organizational Studies</i>
DeConinck (2010)	Organizational justice, perceived supervisor's support, perceived organizational support and organizational trust	The study explored the relationship between organizational justice and trust with perceived support (organizational and supervisor's) as a mediator.	Questionnaire and structural equation modelling.	230 advertising managers from US organizations	The results revealed that the relationship between procedural justice and organizational trust is mediated by perceived organizational support. Interactional justice, directly and indirectly predicts organizational trust and perceived supervisor support mediates this relationship. While distributive justice is indirectly related to organizational trust through perceived supervisor support.	<i>Journal of Business Research</i>

**Table 2.4: Related Literature Focusing on Organizational Trust (continued)**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objective(s) of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the Study	Journal
Golipour et al. (2011)	Organizational trust and organizational innovativeness	The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of organizational trust on innovativeness	Survey method, correlation and regression analysis	210 employees working in Tehran Oil Refinery Company, Iran	The findings suggested that the impersonal form of trust, namely, institutional trust significantly contributes in enhancing the organizational innovativeness.	<i>African Journal of Business Management</i>
Kelloway et al. (2012)	Transformational leadership, employee well-being, and trust.	The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, employee well-being with trust as a mediator.	Paper-and-pencil surveys, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling	436 employees working in Canadian tele-communication organizations	The findings suggested that transformational leadership style significantly influences psychological well-being of an employee and trust fully mediates this relationship.	<i>Work &amp; Stress</i>
Duffy and Lilly (2013)	Organizational citizenship behavior, organizational trust, perceived organizational support and individual needs.	The study aimed to examine the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior, trust and support along with individual needs as a moderator.	Survey method, correlation and regression analysis	700 alumni of Southwest University	The study indicated that the need for power and achievement moderate the relationships between organizational citizenship behavior, organizational trust and perceived organizational support.	<i>Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management</i>
Guinot et al. (2014)	Trust, satisfaction at work and job stress	The study sought to examine the relationship between trust and satisfaction at work with job stress as a mediator.	2008 Quality of Working Life Survey, correlation and regression analysis.	6,407 Spanish employees	The results highlighted that trust enhances job satisfaction, and reduces job stress and there is a partial mediation effect of job stress on this relationship.	<i>Personnel Review</i>

**Table 2.4: Related Literature Focusing on Organizational Trust (continued)**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objective(s) of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the Study	Journal
Kim et al. (2016)	Social distance, affective trust, humour, psychological well-being and job performance	The study sought to examine the relationship between humour, psychological well-being, and job performance along with moderating effect of social distance and affective trust.	Online survey, correlation analysis and multi-level analysis.	322 supervisor-subordinate dyads working in South Korean organizations.	The study confirmed that supervisor's humour was negatively related with social distance and positively related with psychological well-being and job performance of the subordinates and showed that affective trust moderates this relationship.	<i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i>
Cho and Song (2017)	Turnover intentions, emotional labour, and organizational trust	The study aims to investigate the relationship between turnover intentions,	Survey via training sessions, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling.	242 social workers in South Korea.	The results showed that emotional labour increases turnover intentions whereas trust in organization helps to reduce turnover intentions.	<i>Public Personnel Management</i>
Ahteela and Vanhala (2018)	HRM bundles and organizational trust	The purpose of the study was to explore the effects of HRM bundles on the dimensions of organizational trust.	Questionnaire (paper format and online version), correlation, ANOVA and cluster analysis.	118 employees working in 14 organizational units in Finland.	The results indicated that employees have lower trust in their co-worker's reliability, benevolence and competence in organizations that use commitment HRM system than they have in organizations using control HRM system.	<i>Knowledge and Process Management</i>

Shukla and Rai (2014) explored the relationship between psychological capital, organizational trust, organizational commitment and perceived support in a sample of 368 executives working at junior and middle levels in IT sector. The results indicated that perceived organizational support was positively and significantly related to organizational trust and organizational commitment. Further, psychological capital was found to be moderating the aforementioned relationships.

Singh and Srivastava (2016) examined the relationship between procedural justice, perceived organizational support, communication and organizational trust as predictors of organizational citizenship behavior in a sample of 303 employees working at different levels of management (top, middle and lower) in manufacturing and service sector organizations. The study showed that organizational level factors (procedural justice, perceived organizational support, communication, and organizational trust) significantly predict the organizational citizenship behavior of employees. Further, the study highlighted the role of organizational trust as a mediator (partial mediator) between organizational level factors and organizational citizenship behavior.

Yadav (2017) investigated the association between organizational trust and job satisfaction in a sample of 189 employees working in organizations located in National Capital Region. The results show that organizational trust positively influences the job satisfaction of employees and gender also moderates this relationship. Jena et al. (2018) aimed to test the link between employee engagement and organizational trust with two mediators, namely, psychological well-being and transformational leadership in a sample of 511 employees. The respondents worked in multinational service organizations operating in the insurance and banking sector from the eastern region of India (Bhubaneswar and Kolkata). The findings provide support for the relationship.

Jaiswal and Sharma (2019) explored the association between learning capability, organizational trust and organizational commitment in a sample of 200 employees working in manufacturing sector organizations located in the Gwalior region. The results revealed that the learning capability and organizational trust have a positive effect on the organizational commitment of employees. From this review of literature, it is evident that organizational trust as an antecedent of happiness of employees has not been studied so far.



## 2.3 FORGIVENESS

### 2.3.1 Brief Background

Until the separation of religion and science, forgiveness was associated with the divine. Among the first scientific researchers of forgiveness, Enright and Human Development Study Group (1991) defined forgiveness as the renunciation of negative emotions and judgment through love and compassion towards the offender. At the organizational level, Cameron and Caza (2002) defined forgiveness by stating that it is the ability and capacity of an organization to encourage collective abandonment of blame, hurt, and resentment. While Aquino et al. (2003) have emphasised forgiveness at individual level, by highlighting it as a process wherein an individual who has been hurt by a colleague decides to forgo the negative feelings of revenge, anger and blame towards the offending colleague.

**Table 2.5: Evolution of Definition of Forgiveness**

Author(s)	Definition
Enright and Human Development Study Group (1991)	“Forgiveness is the renunciation of negative emotions and judgment through the love and compassion towards the offender.”
Baumeister et al. (1998)	“Forgiveness is made up of two components: interpersonal and intrapersonal. The interpersonal component is the expression of forgiveness in the direction of others, whereas the intrapersonal components recognize the psychological aspect of forgiveness, such as desire to forgive an individual.”
Stone (2002)	“The forgiveness at the individual level, by highlighting it as a process wherein an employee who has been hurt by a colleague, deliberately forgo the negative feelings of revenge, anger, and blame towards the offender.”
Thompson et al. (2005)	“Forgiveness includes interpersonal, intrapersonal and situational forgiveness as the enclosing of a perceived transgression like responses of an individual to the person who is doing wrong (transgressor) and wrong event itself (transgression) are changed from negative emotions to positive emotions. The source of a transgression may be oneself, another person or persons, or a situation.”
Boonyarit et al. (2013)	“Workplace forgiveness is the overcoming of negative thoughts and feelings for the offender, to understand the reasons behind transgression, nurturing positive approaches and believing in the benefits of forgiveness towards the offender.”
Bies et al. (2016)	“Forgiveness is the internal act of relinquishing anger, resentment, and the desire to seek revenge against someone who has caused harm as well as the enhancement of positive emotions and thoughts toward the harm-doer.”

Younger et al. (2004) highlighted four phases of forgiveness: the release of negative feelings; forgoing them; restoring the relationship; and forgetting or not forgetting the transgression.

Mullet et al. (2004) present four factors essentially similar to the ones investigated by Denton and Martin (1998), namely, change of heart, broad process (not being confined to victim–offender dyad), and encouraging repentance. Thompson et al. (2005) defined forgiveness as the enclosing of a perceived transgression like responses of an individual to the person who has done wrong (transgressor) and the wrong event itself (transgression) are changed from negative emotions to positive emotions. The source of a transgression may be oneself, another person or persons or a situation (Thompson et al. 2005).

It is worth noting that researchers have typically studied forgiveness as a deliberate decision to release bitterness and vengeance in interpersonal relationship (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012). Tsarenko and Tojib (2011) asserted that forgiveness is a process of individual’s progression in terms of emotion and cognition for which efforts at each stage are required. Davis et al. (2013) defined forgiveness as state forgivingness refers to the degree to which a person tend to forgive across time, situations, and relationships and state forgiveness refers to a person’s degree of forgiveness of a specific offence. While Griffin et al. (2015) concluded that forgiveness within a specific interpersonal relationship is considered to be intra-individual and as a prosocial change for a wrong-doer. Table 2.5 presents some of the important definitions showing the evolution of the concept of forgiveness.

### **2.3.2 Relevant Theories on Forgiveness**

#### **2.3.2.1 Social Information Processing Theory**

The theoretical approach to study forgiveness in the context of employees is social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). It offers a useful framework to understand how employees develop and improve their perceptions of forgiveness. As per the literature on social information processing, employees’ perceptions of work environment are affected by both their personal judgments and social factors such as co-workers’ cues. This theory suggests that organizational climate perceptions are developed as employees make judgments relating to their own as well as their co-workers’ experiences about the work environment. These experiences modify the perceived values and norms of the workplace (Rani et al., 2018).

Whenever someone makes an error at work, it affects the co-workers as well as the person making the mistake. Co-workers who perform their task correctly must engage in corrective behavior to help overcome the error. Forgiveness does not only entail condoning, forgetting, excusing or denying the harmful thoughts and actions of the wrongdoer (Coyle & Enright, 1997) but it is also an effortful, transformative process that occurs despite the recognition that an error or offense has occurred (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012). As others (i.e., co-workers and supervisors, who have to

share the negative consequences of the error committed) decides to forgive the wrongdoer, their motivations for blaming and avoidance are replaced by motivations that are altruistic, benevolent, and prosocial (Fehr & Gelfand 2012; Stone, 2002). Forgiveness among employees indicated that they are willing to accept errors, mistakes and offenses that often take place at work. They do not hold any grudge against the person who committed the mistake, and work through the problems, including correcting the errors that may have been committed.

### **2.3.2.2 Stress and Coping Model of Forgiveness**

Another theoretical approach to the scientific study of forgiveness is Worthington's stress-and-coping theory of forgiveness (Worthington, 2006). According to this theory, offenses are stressful events that are responded to with the stress response of emotional un-forgiveness. That stress response elicits various coping strategies oriented at ameliorating the stress. One possible coping strategy is forgiveness. It can be studied in the context of single offenses, known as state forgiveness or as a general tendency to forgive across time and situations, known as trait forgiveness. In the workplace, trait forgiveness may be especially useful because often the victim and the transgressor must continue to work together (Aquino et al., 2003) In these contexts, forgiveness may be particularly effective because it is a stress-reducing strategy that promotes extended prosocial exchange between employees, whereas other coping strategies (e.g., avoidance, successful revenge) might reduce forgiveness but are practically untenable given the continued contact between transgressor and victim.

In ongoing relationships, forgiveness can result in re-establishing strong or good relationships and building trust. In fact, forgiveness has been shown to increase commitment and relationship satisfaction (Aquino et al., 2003). This suggests that study of forgiveness has practical importance because healthy and satisfying workplace relationships are vital for positive work outcomes. Furthermore, forgiveness helps to protect against mental and physical health problems (Toussaint et al., 2015), which is important, if employees are to remain productive.

### **2.3.2.3 Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory**

The socio- emotional selectivity theory developed by Carstensen et al. (1999) postulated that forgiveness among different age groups varies. According to this theory, the perception of people regarding the time horizon of their life influences the selection of goals, preferences and prioritization of activities. Therefore, they maximize their positive emotional experiences by managing affective states and deriving short-term emotional benefits from their relationships. Thus, people are strategically willing to forgive (self, others and situations) in order to develop positive emotions. Also, with time their emotional regulatory skills get sharpened and they can

better deal with the conflicting situations. Further, this theory compares the people of different age groups such as young vs. old adulthood and elaborates that shifting of motivational goals from future to present life (regarding the priority of positive emotions over negative emotions in old age) is a gradual process and cause of goal shifts is an age related shift in time perspective not age itself (i.e. the passage of time itself).

#### **2.3.2.4 McCullough's Forgiveness Theory**

McCullough (2000) describes forgiveness as being a prosocial act that is foundationally based on a motivational construct. McCullough assumes that when a person is faced with an interpersonal offense, one of two potential feelings may occur and that the underlying motivations for those feelings differ. The first response can be that the person views the offence as an attack and, as a result, the feelings that are generated are of a hurtful nature. The underlying motivation to avoid being hurt may lead the person to avoid contact with the offender. The alternative response may be that the person experiences feelings of anger due to a sense of injustice.

The alternative to avoiding or seeking revenge is forgiveness. Forgiveness towards an offender allows for the reparation of that relationship. Thus, McCullough (2000) views forgiveness as a prosocial act after an interpersonal offense has transpired. In other words, McCullough sees forgiveness as a 'motivational change' (p. 45). This is a well-supported theoretical idea that addresses not only interpersonal forgiveness but also intrapersonal forgiveness. McCullough's work can also be applied to an intrapersonal variable such as forgiveness of self. When one does not forgive oneself, one may avoid others because it is not easy to be around others when one has negative feelings towards oneself or when one engages in self-destructive or high-risk activities (Hall & Fincham, 2005).

#### **2.3.3 Antecedents of Forgiveness**

There is a wealth of theoretical studies focussing on forgiveness. Yet, the empirical research lags behind as forgiveness at work is an emerging construct. Therefore, the existing literature fails to present a comprehensive insight of the concept of forgiveness at work. However, forgiveness has been studied with various variables. Personality traits (Bhattacharjee, 2018; Ranganathan & Todorov, 2010), gratitude (Hill & Allemand, 2011), perceptions of apology sincerity and use of touch (Ayoko, 2016; Marler et al., 2011), empathy (Fehr et al., 2010; McCullough et al., 1998), self-esteem (Brown et al. 2012; Strelan 2007; Yao et al., 2017), social motivation training (Struthers et al., 2005), interpersonal interactions (Hook et al., 2012) and meaning in life (Yalçın & Malkoç, 2015) share a positive relationship with forgiveness and contribute towards the

forgiving tendency of an individual. Table 2.6 represents a summary of the antecedents of forgiveness and direction of relationship.

**Table 2.6: Antecedents of Forgiveness**

<b>Antecedents</b>	<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Personality traits	Positive with agreeableness, extroversion, openness, conscientiousness/negative with neuroticism	Bhattacharjee, 2018; Ranganathan & Todorov, 2010
Gratitude	Positive	Hill & Allemand, 2011
Apology	Positive	Ayoko, 2016; Marler et al., 2011
Empathy	Positive	Fehr et al., 2010; McCullough et al., 1998
Self-esteem	Positive	Strelan 2007; Yao et al., 2017
Motivation training	Positive	Struthers et al., 2005
Interpersonal interactions	Positive	Hook et al., 2012
Meaning in life	Positive	Yalçın & Malkoç, 2015

### 2.3.4 Consequences of Forgiveness

Although the concept of forgiveness has not been extensively explored in organizational context, the scant literature indicated that forgiveness has a strong and affirmative influence in the workplace. Table 2.7 presents the summary of various consequences or outcomes of forgiveness. The outcomes of forgiveness at work are high productivity and performance (Costa & Neves, 2017; Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Ojha, 2014; Toussaint et al., 2018), sound health (Costa & Neves, 2017; Griffin et al., 2015; Toussaint et al., 2016; Toussaint et al., 2018), willingness to cooperate (Ayoko, 2016), job satisfaction (Chaudhari, 2015; Fehr & Gelfand, 2012), learning behavior and commitment (Guchait et al., 2016; Öztürk, 2018) and conflict resolution (Ayoko, 2016; Booth et al., 2018; Gladwell, 2013).

Researchers have also revealed that psychological adjustment (Orth et al., 2008), organizational citizenship behavior (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Gukiina et al., 2018), psychological well-being and life satisfaction (Hall & Fincham, 2005; McCullough et al. 2001; Safaria, 2014), relationship resilience (Thompson & Korsgaard, 2018), well-being (Kumari & Madnawat, 2016) are the outcome variables of forgiveness. However, forgiveness is negatively related with counteractive behavior (Schulte et al., 2013), job stress (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Guchait et al., 2016), creativity (Lee et al., 2016) and intention to leave (Guchait et al., 2016; Law, 2013; Lamichhane, 2011).

**Table 2.7: Consequences of Forgiveness**

<b>Consequences</b>	<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Productivity/performance	Positive	Costa & Neves, 2017; Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Toussaint et al., 2018
Sound health	Positive	Costa & Neves, 2017; Griffin et al., 2015; Lawler-Row et al., 2008; Toussaint et al., 2016; Toussaint et al., 2018
Willingness to cooperate	Positive	Ayoko, 2016
Job satisfaction	Positive	Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Guchait et al., 2016
commitment	Positive	Guchait et al., 2016; Öztürk, 2018
Conflict resolution	Positive	Ayoko, 2016; Booth et al., 2018
Organizational citizenship behavior	Positive	Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Gukiina et al., 2018
Psychological well-being and life satisfaction	Positive	Hall & Fincham, 2005; McCullough et al. 2001; Safaria, 2014
Counteractive behavior	Negative	Maria Schulte et al., 2013
Job stress	Negative	Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Guchait et al., 2016
Relationship resilience	Positive	Thompson & Korsgaard, 2018
Intention to leave	Negative	Guchait et al., 2016; Law, 2013
Creativity	Positive	Lee et al., 2016
Emotional well-being	Positive	Kumari & Madnawat, 2016; Shourie & Kaur, 2016; Toussaint & Friedman, 2009

### 2.3.5 Related Literature on Forgiveness

This section focusses upon the review of contemporary research on forgiveness, which helps to identify the areas of prior scholarship to prevent duplication of effort and point the way in fulfilling a need for additional research. Table 2.8 (on next page) presents some of the crucial studies focussing upon the forgiveness. This, further, helps in developing an understanding of the variable.

**Table 2.8: Related Literature Focusing on Forgiveness**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objective(s) of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the Study	Journal
Lawler-Row et al. (2008)	Forgiveness, anger, physiological reactivity and health	To investigate the impact of forgiveness, physiological reactivity on health with anger as a mediator.	Questionnaire and interview correlation and regression analyses.	114 participants (under-graduates of psychology classes), 51 male and 63 female.	The results of forgiveness–health association indicated that benefits of forgiveness are more than those of the dissipation of anger. Anger fully mediates the relationship between forgiveness and health.	<i>International Journal of Psychophysiology</i>
Ismail et al. (2009)	Forgiveness, revenge and behavioral cognitions	To explore the relationship between forgiveness, revenge and behavioral cognitions.	Questionnaire survey, correlation analyses.	101 employees working in four Malaysian organizations	The findings revealed that the relationship between forgiveness and revenge is non-significant while the relationship between forgiveness cognitions and forgiveness behavior is positive and significant. Further, the association between forgiveness cognitions and revenge behavior is positive but non-significant.	<i>Contemporary Management Research</i>
Fehr and Gelfand (2010)	Forgiveness, apology, self-construal	To test whether forgiveness is effective when the apology from offender matches to self-construal of victim.	Questionnaire survey, correlation and hierarchical regression analyses	175 undergraduate students enrolled in a large Mid-Atlantic University	The results revealed that victims benefit through forgiveness when the apology is consistent with their self-construal.	<i>Organizational behavior and human decision processes</i>
Burnette et al. (2012)	Forgiveness, exploitation risk and relationship value	To examine the link between forgiveness, exploitation risk and relationship value.	Online survey, EFA, CFA, correlational and regression analyses	361 undergraduate students from a large south-eastern university	As predicted, the results indicated that the relationship value positively and significantly impact the forgiveness tendency. Furthermore, exploitation risk is negatively but significantly related to forgiveness.	<i>Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin</i>

**Table 2.8: Related Literature Focusing on Forgiveness (continued)**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objective(s) of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the Study	Journal
Schulte et al. (2013)	Forgiveness, meeting behavior (complaining) and age	To explore the impact of age on the complaining behavior of employees along with buffering effects of forgiveness.	Questionnaire and correlation and regression analyses	313 employees working in 54 teams from medium-sized organization in the electrical industry.	The findings suggest that age predicted counteractive team meeting behavior and forgiveness moderate the relationship.	<i>Journal of Managerial Psychology</i>
Satici et al. (2014)	Forgiveness, gratitude and vengeance	To test a model examining the association between forgiveness and vengeance with the mediating role of gratitude.	Questionnaire, correlation and hierarchical regression analyses	331 university students (331 employees)	The results indicated that forgiveness predicts vengeance, and gratitude partially mediate this relationship.	<i>Psychological Reports</i>
Zdaniuk and Bobocel (2015)	Idealized influence leadership, collective identity and forgiveness	To examine the association between idealized influence leadership, collective identity and forgiveness.	Questionnaire, correlation and hierarchical regression analyses	1000 employees	The findings indicated that idealized influence leadership facilitates forgiveness with mediating role (full) of follower collective identity.	<i>The Leadership Quarterly</i>
Ayoko (2016)	Conflict, apologies, forgiveness and willingness to cooperate	To explore the relationship between conflict, apologies, willingness to cooperate along with mediating role of forgiveness.	Questionnaire, correlation and hierarchical regression analyses	358 employees	The results indicated that there is a negative but significant relationship between conflict, forgiveness and willingness to cooperate. Finally, forgiveness mediated the relationship between apology sincerity and willingness to cooperate.	<i>International Journal of Conflict Management</i>



**Table 2.8: Related Literature Focusing on Forgiveness (continued)**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objective(s) of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the Study	Journal
Costa and Neves (2017)	Forgiveness, health, performance and psychological contract breach	To examine the moderating influence of forgiveness on link between psychological contract breach and emotional exhaustion and its impact on health and performance.	Questionnaire, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling	220 dyads of employees supervisors	The findings indicated that forgiveness moderates the relationship between emotional exhaustion and psychological contract breach. Psychological contract breach has negative effect on health and performance.	<i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>
Öztürk (2018)	Organizational forgiveness and organizational commitment	To examine the relationship between organizational forgiveness and commitment of employees.	Questionnaire, correlation analysis	450 teachers from Malatya province school of Turkey	The findings indicated that there is a low positive but significant relationship between organizational commitment and forgiveness.	<i>Universal Journal of Educational Research</i>
Thompson and Korsgaard (2018)	Forgiveness, relational identification and relationship resilience	To investigate the role of relational identification and forgiveness in relationship resilience.	Questionnaire, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling	298 working professionals from automobile sales industry (USA)	The findings suggest that in order to unlock a stronger workplace relationship, relational identification and forgiveness are key factors affecting the relationship resilience.	<i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i>

### **2.3.6 Forgiveness Studies in the Indian Context**

According to the author's best knowledge, there is a dearth of literature related to forgiveness in Indian organizational context. While a few studies have explored the concept of forgiveness in Indian organizational settings, the literature on forgiveness mostly revolves around gratitude, resilience, justice perceptions, life satisfaction, well-being and coping strategies. The following paragraphs present the findings of forgiveness studies in Indian organizational context.

Kumar and Dixit (2014) examined the association between forgiveness, resilience and gratitude among 50 respondents (research and development personnel) working in different universities in Delhi, Patna, Agra, Allahabad and Banaras. The authors found that there is a low but positive significant correlation between the variables. The study revealed that forgiveness and gratitude significantly predicted resilience. Souidi, et al. (2015) aimed to explore the relationship between self-esteem and forgiveness dimensions (self, others, situations) in 200 postgraduate students from Karnataka University. The findings indicated that the relationship between self-esteem and forgiveness of situations was positively and significantly correlated whereas the relationship between self-esteem and forgiveness of self and others was positive but non-significant.

Sharma and Garg (2016) investigated the relationship between psychological distress, forgiveness and life satisfaction in a sample of 60 employees working in IT sector organizations operating in Jaipur, Rajasthan. The empirical evidence provided support for the positive and significant relationship between forgiveness and life satisfaction. Further, psychological distress was found negatively correlated with forgiveness and life satisfaction. Mishra et al. (2018) in their study on a sample of employees working in IT and ITES–BPO (Gandhinagar and Ahmedabad) emphasized the role of workplace forgiveness as an approach to deal with workplace bullying among employees. The results from quantitative and qualitative (interview) methods revealed that participants experienced a sense of well-being as an outcome of forgiveness at work.

Relative to the organizational context, this topic has been somehow put aside and settled as something that is purely an intra-individual phenomenon which organizations cannot force, or even stimulate. It is also seen as a unique theological or philosophical construct that might be characterized distinctively by every person and, in this manner, regarded as 'murky and messy' by leaders and managers and also for its value to employees and different stakeholders.

## **2.4 HAPPINESS**

### **2.4.1 Brief Background**

There is a broad variation in opinions how happiness is defined. According to Merriam-Webster's dictionary, happiness is (1) a state of well-being and contentment or (2) a pleasurable or satisfying experience (Merriam-Webster, 1995). However, researchers in the field do not agree upon a single definition of happiness. The first empirical research on happiness was conducted by Michael Fordyce in 1977 (Fordyce, 1977) and he defined happiness as the emotional well-being that provides an indication of a person's perception. It covered only an aspect of happiness: affective evaluation. While Argyle et al. (1989) defined happiness as a cognitive and affective evaluation which includes three main elements: the existence of pleasant or positive emotions; absence of unpleasant or negative emotions (affective evaluation); and life satisfaction (cognitive evaluation). Myers and Diener (1995) and Diener et al. (2002) also follow the same concept. All this shows that happiness is a totally subjective feeling of well-being experienced by a person and is characterized by positive emotions and infrequent negative emotions (Watson et al., 1999).

The Dalai Lama wrote that the very purpose of life is to strive for happiness (Dalai Lama & Cutler, 2003). Peterson et al. (2005) suggested three orientations of happiness, namely, pleasure, engagement and purpose in life. Thus there are many perspectives or views on happiness in the western theoretical literature. Among them, two perspectives or approaches are widely known. The first is eudaimonia and the second is hedonism. Eudaimonia approach considers happiness as a complete virtue through which people learn to be true to one's self and involve self-validation and self-actualization (Seligman, 2002; Warr, 2011). While hedonic approach of happiness is clearer than eudomonia approach in terms of measurement of happiness, therefor, researchers generally follow hedonic approach (Veenhoven, 2017).

Fisher (2010) has offered three levels of analysis of happiness at work, that is, personal, collective and transient/state, laying emphasis on happiness at work as an individual's experience affected by work group dynamics. However, due to overemphasis on job satisfaction, convergence of affect, moods, wellbeing and affective commitment (despite separate variables) have been criticized by researchers (Singh & Aggarwal, 2018). The construct of happiness given by Fisher (2010) does not include the cognitive aspect, that is, life satisfaction (Veenhoven, 2015).

Dr. Ruut Veenhoven, one of the most progressive thinkers, a leading authority on happiness research and the founder of 'Collection of Happiness Measures' of the 'World Database of Happiness Research' says that affective and cognitive components measure the happiness in the most effective way. After reviewing more than five thousand studies, he stated that happiness

consists of three dimensions, namely, presence of positive affect; absence of negative affect; and satisfaction with life (Veenhoven, 2017). The present study follows this concept of happiness. Table 2.9 presents some of the important definitions, presenting the evolution of concept of happiness.

**Table 2.9: Evolution of Definition of Happiness**

<b>Author(s)</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Fordyce (1977)	“Happiness is the emotional well-being that provides an indication of a person’s perception about the life.”
Argyle et al. (1989)	“Happiness defined as satisfaction with life, presence of positive affect and absence of negative affect.”
Seligman (2002)	“Happiness embraces both the positive activities and emotions of three categories-past, present and future.”
Dalai Lama and Cutler (2003)	“Happiness refers to the very purpose of life is to strive for.”
Peterson et al. (2005)	“Happiness comprises three orientations, namely, pleasure, engagement and purpose in life.”
Paschoal and Tamayo (2008)	“Happiness at work is the prevalence of positive emotions over negative emotions (emotions include affects and moods).”
Januwarsono (2015)	“Happiness at work is when someone enjoy his work and loves what she/he does at work.”
Veenhoven (2017)	“Happiness consists of three dimensions, namely, presence of positive affect, absence of negative affect and satisfaction with life.”

## 2.4.2 Relevant Theories on Happiness

### 2.4.2.1 Veenhoven’s Theory of Happiness Assessment

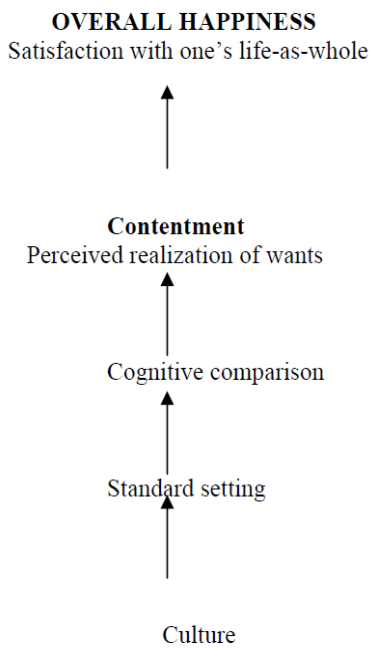
Veenhoven (2009) propounded a theory of happiness assessment. He emphasized, building upon the comparison theory, that happiness theory asserts that the happiness of an individual results from a rational mental calculus. The process involves comparison between the experiences of real life and expectations for good life. Thus, cognitive theory is an alternative theory that fits better with the utilitarian creed. The ‘affect’ theory states that happiness depends on unreasoned emotional experience, reflecting gratification of needs. Both theories are discussed in brief below.

**Cognitive Theory of happiness.** Cognitive theory holds that happiness is a product of human thinking and reflects the discrepancies between perceptions of life-as-it-is and notions of how-life-should-be. Notions of how life should be are assumed to originate in the collective beliefs and vary across cultures (Sondakh & Rajah, 2006). This view on happiness is dominant in psychological literature and is considered as life satisfaction. The theory assumes that we have ‘standards’ of a good life and that we constantly weigh the reality of our life against these

standards. Standards are presumed to be variable rather than fixed. Figure 2.2 presents the assessment of happiness as per the cognitive theory of happiness.

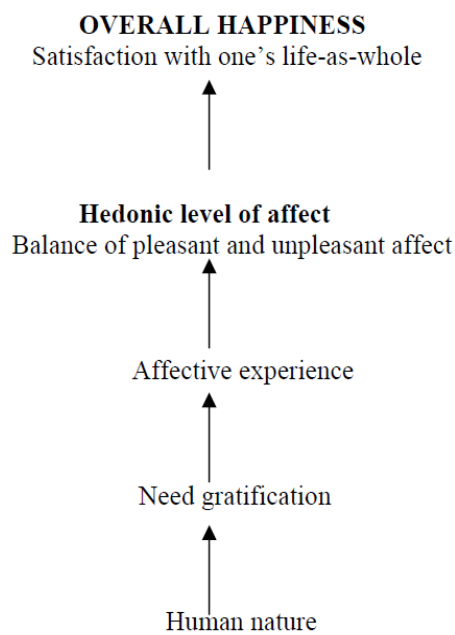
**Affective Theory of happiness.** Affect theory holds that happiness reflects how well people feel generally. In this view, people do not ‘calculate’ happiness, but rather ‘infer’ it. This theory answers the question how an individual takes a stock of affective experience. Another question is what makes them feel good or bad, and this links to the wider question about the functions of affect. Figure 2.3 presents the assessment of happiness as per affective theory of happiness.

**Figure 2.2: Cognitive Theory of Happiness Assessment**



Source: Veenhoven (2009)

**Figure 2.3: Affective Theory of Happiness Happiness Assessment**



Source: Veenhoven (2009)

**2.4.2.2 Broaden and Build Theory**

Broaden and build theory of positive emotions was propounded by Fredrickson in 1998. As asserted by the theory, negative emotions contract our focus and limit our behavioral range while positive emotions bring about broad thought and action that eventually contribute to durable intellectual, physical and social resources. One reason that positive emotions such as gratitude and trust and decision making such as forgiveness might lead to success could be due to the durable resources built over time, which can be utilized in times of hardships and growth by the organizations. Explicitly, it may encourage creativity, purposefulness, intrinsic motivation and initiate an upward spiral of positive emotions and outcomes. A happy individual also builds up a reserve of positive emotions that can be drawn on in times of need and to facilitate the tendency to undertake new goals. Based on this information, one can understand that happiness generates

an ‘upward spiral’, enhancing emotional well-being and promote optimal functioning.

#### **2.4.2.3 Affective Events Theory**

Affective events theory, propounded by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), provides sufficient background to understand happiness at work, that is, an employee’s affective experiences related to work prompt positive or negative emotional reactions, which in turn influence his/her work-related attitudes and behavior (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective events have been conceptualized as negative (hassles) and positive (uplifts) in the literature. Small things can irritate or frustrate employees while working. During a phase of heavy workload, any support from co-workers or the manager generates positive affect whereas getting negative feedback from the supervisor for one’s work generates negative affect at work. Such events influence an individual’s well-being and happiness.

#### **2.4.2.4 Affect Theory of Social Exchange**

Affect theory of social exchange has been propounded by Lawler (2001). The theory explains how and when emotions, produced by social exchange, generate stronger or weaker ties in relations, groups or networks. It is argued that social exchange produces positive or negative feelings, which are internally rewarding, or happiness, or punishing, or unhappiness. The theory indicated that social units (relations, workgroups, etc.) are perceived as a source of these feelings, contingent on the degree of involvement in the exchange task. When exchanges occur successfully, actors experience an emotional uplift (a ‘high’) and when exchanges do not occur successfully, emotional ‘down’ happens. Everyday feelings, therefore, are intertwined with exchange. Positive emotions include excitement, pleasure, pride and gratitude, whereas negative emotions include sadness, shame and anger. Social exchange is a quintessential joint activity, but the nature and degree of involvement varies.

#### **2.4.3 Antecedents of Happiness**

With the burgeoning field of studying happiness at work, researchers have identified various variables that lead to develop happiness in employees. A literature review on the antecedents of happiness at work is conducted to reflect upon the type of relationship between various job-related factors and happiness at work. Job satisfaction (Senasu & Singhapakdi, 2014), dignified treatment, pride in company fairness, and camaraderie with co-workers (Sirota et al., 2005), lean management (De Koeijer et al., 2014), flexible working (Atkinson & Hall, 2011) and transformational leadership (Salas-Vallina et al., 2017) significantly predict happiness of employees.

Also, organizational virtuousness (Rego et al., 2011), good opportunity at work (Warr, 2011), resilience (Paul, 2017), personality (Koydemir et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2013; Ziapour et al., 2018), self-esteem (Baumeister et al., 2003), freedom at work (Gavin & Mason, 2004), interpersonal relationships/pleasant interaction (Salas-Vallina et al., 2018), work-role fit (Van Zyl et al., 2010), and need to belong and perceptions of spirit of camaraderie (Rego et al., 2009) share a positive relationship with happiness and negative relationship with stress at work (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003; Rego & e Cunha, 2008). Table 2.10 shows the various antecedents of happiness at work.

**Table 2.10: Antecedents of Happiness**

<b>Antecedents</b>	<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Job satisfaction	Positive	Senasu & Singhapakdi, 2014
Lean management	Positive	De Koeijer et al., 2014
flexible working	Positive	Atkinson & Hall, 2011
Transformational leadership	Positive	Salas-Vallina et al., 2017
organizational virtuousness	Positive	Rego et al., 2011
Good opportunity at work	Positive	Warr, 2011
Resilience	Positive	Paul, 2017
Personality	Positive with agreeableness, extroversion, openness, conscientiousness/negative with neuroticism	Koydemir et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2013; Ziapour et al., 2018
Self-esteem	Positive	Baumeister et al., 2003
Freedom at work	Positive	Gavin & Mason, 2004
Stress at work	Negative	Fairbrother & Warn, 2003; Rego & e Cunha, 2008
Interpersonal relationships/pleasant interaction	Positive	Salas-Vallina et al., 2018
Work-role fit	Positive	Van Zyl et al., 2010

#### **2.4.4 Consequences of Happiness**

Though past studies have mainly explored the antecedents of happiness at work keeping it as the ultimate purpose of human being, few studies have emphasized the positive outcomes of happiness at work, such as employee innovative behavior (Bani-Melhem et al., 2018; Gupta, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior and organizational learning capability (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017), engagement (Hellén & Sääksjärvi, 2011; Singh et al., 2018), commitment (Field & Buitendach, 2011; Paul, 2017; Rego et al., 2011), career success (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Walsh et al., 2018), sound mental and physical health (Sabatini, 2014; Veenhoven, 2008) and productivity (Oswald et al., 2015; Zelenski et al., 2008). Table 2.11 presents the outcome variables of happiness.

**Table 2.11: Consequences of Happiness**

<b>Consequences</b>	<b>Relationship</b>	<b>Author(s)</b>
Employee innovative behavior	Positive	Bani-Melhem et al., 2018; Gupta, 2012
Organizational citizenship behavior and organizational learning capability	Positive	Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017
Engagement	Positive	Hellén & Sääksjärvi, 2011; Singh et al., 2018
Commitment	Positive	Field & Buitendach, 2011; Paul, 2017; Rego et al., 2011
Career Success	Positive	Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Walsh et al., 2018
Sound mental and physical health	Positive	Sabatini, 2014; Veenhoven, 2008.
Productivity	Positive	Oswald et al., 2015; Zelenski et al., 2008.

#### **2.4.5 Related Literature on Happiness**

This section also lists the contemporary research on happiness (Table 2.12), which will help to identify the areas of prior scholarship to prevent duplication of effort and point the way in fulfilling the need for additional research. Table 2.12 presents some of the crucial studies focussing upon the happiness.



**Table 2.12: Related Literature Focusing on Happiness**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objectives of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the study	Journal
Borgonovi (2008)	Formal volunteering, health, socio-economic status and happiness	To examine the relationship between formal volunteering and health and happiness.	Social capital community Benchmark Survey (USA), Correlation and regression analysis	29,200 respondents working in various religious groups and organizations located in USA	The findings indicated that socio-economic status is significantly related to health (volunteers or non-volunteers). Further, the results revealed that those who have low socio-economic status are linked with unhappiness (for non-volunteers) whereas volunteers are likely to be happy irrespective of high or low status.	<i>Social Science &amp; Medicine</i>
Hosie and Sevastos (2009)	Workplace happiness (affective well-being and job satisfaction) and performance	To investigate the relationship between workplace happiness and performance.	Questionnaire, correlation and regression analyses	400 managers working in 19 Western Australian organizations	The results showed that intrinsic job satisfaction and affective well-being significantly predict performance of managers (contextual and task performance).	<i>International Journal of Workplace Health Management</i>
Rego et al. (2010)	Organizational virtuousness, organizational citizenship behavior and happiness	To understand the impact of organizational virtuousness and organizational citizenship behavior on happiness...	Questionnaire, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling	216 employees working in 14 organizations from Portugal.	The results supported that both organizational virtuousness (OV) and happiness (affective well-being) are significant predictors of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Further, affective well-being partially mediates the relationship between OV and OCB.	<i>Journal of Business Ethics</i>
Rego et al. (2011)	Happiness (affective well-being), affective commitment and organizational virtuousness	To investigate the relationship between organizational virtuousness and affective commitment with happiness as a mediator.	Questionnaire, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling	205 employees working in organizations (glass, plaster, moulds and rubber)	The study confirmed that perceptions of organizational virtuousness and happiness are significant predictors of affective commitment. Also, happiness partially mediates this relationship.	<i>Journal of Business Research</i>

**Table 2.12: Related Literature Focusing on Happiness (continued)**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objectives of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the study	Journal
Rego and Cunha (2012)	Authentizotic climate and happiness	To explore the impact of authentizotic climate dimensions (fairness/justice, spirit of camaraderie, communication, trust, credibility, work-family conciliation and personal development) on happiness.	Questionnaire, CFA, correlation analysis and hierarchical regression analyses	342 young graduate from engineering background	The study established that dimensions of authentizotic climate significantly determine happiness.	<i>Journal of Happiness Studies</i>
Visser et al. (2013)	Leader's happiness and sadness, follower's happiness and sadness, task structure and performance	To analyse the impact of leaders' and followers' happiness and sadness on followers' performance.	Experimental and questionnaire, ANOVA	122 students from the Netherlands	The study suggested that leaders' happiness lead to followers' happiness and better performance in case of creative task whereas leaders' sadness lead to followers' sadness but better performance in case of analytical tasks.	<i>The Leadership Quarterly</i>
Golden et al. (2014)	Work-schedule flexibility and happiness	To examine the impact of work-schedule flexibility on the happiness of employees.	Nationally representative US survey, correlation and regression analyses	26,101,625 employees working in USA	The findings revealed that refusing to overtime, work hour duration or work timings discretion predicts happiness of happiness.	<i>Journal of Social Research and Policy</i>
Sousa and Porto (2015)	Organizational values, person-organization fit and happiness at work	To investigate the impact of organizational values and personal-organizational fit on happiness at work.	Questionnaires, correlation and regression analyses	145 employees working in Brazilian military organization	The results indicated that both organizational values and person-organization fit predict happiness at work. Further, individual values moderate the link between organizational values and happiness.	<i>Paidéia</i>

**Table 2.12: Related Literature Focusing on Happiness (continued)**

Author(s)	Variables under Study	Objectives of the Study	Collection of Data and Analysis	Sample size and Population	Findings of the study	Journal
Bakker and Oerlemans, (2016)	Work happiness, burnout and work engagement	To find out how job burnout and work engagement impact need satisfaction and happiness at work.	Day construction method, on-line questionnaire, correlation and regression analyses	136 employees from the Netherlands	The findings suggested that high levels of job burnout lead to lower satisfaction of the basic needs. Further, high levels of work engagement lead to happiness of employees. Also, psychological need satisfaction fully mediates the relationship between time spent in daily activities and happiness.	<i>The Journal of Psychology</i>
Salas-Vallina et al. (2017)	Happiness at work and organizational learning capability and organizational citizenship behavior	To examine the relationship between happiness at work and organizational citizenship behavior with mediating role of organizational learning capability.	Questionnaire, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling.	167 respondents from medical staff working in Spanish public health services.	The results established that the relationship between happiness at work and organizational citizenship behavior is fully mediated by organizational learning capability.	<i>International Journal of Manpower</i>
de Waal (2018)	Happiness at work, high performing organizations and organizational attractiveness	To explore the relationship between happiness at work, organizational attractiveness and high performing organizations.	Questionnaire, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling.	12000 Dutch employees and managers	The results confirmed that higher happiness at work leads to organizational attractiveness and high performance. Further results indicated that high performing organizations have more organizational attractiveness.	<i>Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance.</i>

#### **2.4.6 Happiness studies in the Indian Context**

With the advent of positive organizational psychology, the research on happiness at work is booming worldwide. However, until recently, little research has empirically examined happiness in Indian workplace settings and has revolved around the concepts of work-role conflict, fatigue, psychological distress, emotional intelligence quality of work life, resilience, personality traits, leadership behavior and work engagement. The following paragraphs summarize the findings of happiness studies conducted on Indian samples.

Dasgupta (2010) aimed to examine the relationship between work-life role conflict, quality of work life, perceived happiness and emotional intelligence among 30 female employees working in IT sector organizations in Kolkata. The empirical evidence showed that emotional intelligence is positively and significantly related with quality of work life and perceived happiness. Also, the study revealed that there is a significantly negative correlation between emotional intelligence and work-life role conflict. Pendse and Ruikar (2013) found on a sample of 81 employees from service sector organizations in Pune that quality of work life and resilience are positively and significantly related to employees' happiness in the first of their two studies. Later, the same findings were observed in a sample of nine employees working in BPO sector in the second study as well.

Mukherjee et al. (2014) aimed to examine the level of organizational role stress and perception of stressful life events in two groups, namely, happy and unhappy employees. The data were collected from 100 employees (male aged between 28–32 years) working in IT organizations. The results revealed that in the happy group organizational role stress was lower than in the unhappy group. No significant difference with regard to the perception of stressful life events was found between happy and unhappy groups. Goel and Singh (2015) aimed to explore the link between personality traits and employee happiness on a sample of 136 women employees working in various organizations operating in Delhi/NCR. The study found that personality traits, namely, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness and agreeableness were positively and neuroticism was negatively related with happiness.

Indhira and Shani (2016) investigated the relationship between fatigue and happiness among 850 human resource managers working in IT organizations operating in Coimbatore. The study highlighted that for the same task, happy employees reported less fatigue than unhappy employees. Another remarkable study conducted in 2016 by Pal and Srivastava on a sample of 100 professionals from a pharmaceutical company operating in Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh, revealed that psychological capital (optimism, hope, resiliency and efficacy) significantly predict

happiness of the professionals. Gulyani and Sharma (2018) showed in their study on a sample of 201 employees from technology based new ventures that rewards are positively related with happiness and work engagement. Further, the findings suggested that the link between rewards and work happiness is fully mediated by work engagement. Singh et al. (2018) provided empirical evidence for a partial mediation effect of happiness on the relationship between organizational virtuousness and work engagement on a sample of 136 employees from five Indian organizations engaged in software development, consultancy, banking, academics and pharmaceuticals.

## **2.5 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND VARIATIONS IN CONTINUOUS VARIABLES**

### **2.5.1 Variations Due to Gender**

Past studies have provided strong evidence that there are gender differences in various job-related perceptions of the employees (e.g., Broadbridge & Hearn, 2008; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Further, recent studies also highlighted that the behavior of employees is influenced by their gender (Kelan et al., 2018; Kumar et al., 2015). According to the Eagly (1987), the difference in social behavior between genders stems from the socialization process (i.e., societal and cultural expectations). Further, Archer (1996) asserted that males are considered more agentic (i.e., masterful, instrumental and competitive) and females are considered more communal (i.e., friendly, cooperative and expressive). Thus, gender impacts employees' perception related to the job, workplace and people working around them.

### **2.5.2 Variations Due to Age**

In recent times, researchers have been emphasizing the influence of different demographical variables on behavioral responses in organizational settings, and age is one among them (Jiang et al., 2017; Schulte et al., 2013). The differences in demographical attributes also have implications, as individuals interact with several people with different age and not only do they affect others at work but they also get affected in the process (Guillaume et al., 2017).

### **2.5.3 Variations Due to Organization Type**

Prior studies conducted in public and private sector organizations have focused on variations related to organizational set up, characteristics, management philosophy (vision and mission), availability of resources, organizational power structure and politics (Gurtu, 2019; Perry & Rainey, 1988; Wettenhall, 2003). According to Markovits et al. (2007), these differences of organizational ownership affect the perceptions and behavior of employees working in it. Thus,

it may be expected that such variations between public and private organizations can cause variation in employee's perception of organizational trust, tendency of forgiveness and likelihood of happiness as well.

Hence, keeping the above discussion in mind, following hypotheses have been proposed:

**H<sub>1a</sub>:** Propensity to organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) differ between male and female employees.

**H<sub>1b</sub>:** Propensity to organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) differ with age of Indian employees.

**H<sub>1c</sub>:** Propensity to organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) differ with the type of organization (public or private sector) of employees.

**H<sub>2a</sub>:** Male and female employees tend to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differently.

**H<sub>2b</sub>:** Tendency to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differ with age of employees.

**H<sub>2c</sub>:** Tendency to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector) of employees.

**H<sub>3a</sub>:** Male and female employees perceive happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differently.

**H<sub>3b</sub>:** Perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differ with age of Indian employees.

**H<sub>3c</sub>:** Perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector) of Indian employees.

## **2.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES**

### **2.6.1 Organizational Trust and Happiness**

Researchers have continuously emphasized the role of trust as an important factor in determining stability, success and well-being of people. The underlying theoretical foundations of affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001) and broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) supports that stable and trustful work environment impacts the frequent occurrence of positive over negative events and result in happiness. However, few studies have focused on the relationship between organizational trust and happiness of the employees. A study conducted by Yamaoka (2008), using data from a cross-sectional survey in East Asia (Japan, South Korea,

Singapore, five areas in Mainland China, and Taiwan), found that lower interpersonal trust, weakness in norms of reciprocity and lack of trust in organizations were associated with poor subjective life satisfaction (one dimension of happiness) at the individual level.

A study conducted by Tokuda et al. (2010) on a sample of 39,082 participants (students, retired people and homemakers) with cross-national data from 29 Asian countries (except India) revealed that trust independently and significantly influenced happiness of people. Kuroki (2011) taking the Japanese General Social Survey of 14,538 people revealed trust as one of the dimension of social capital has a causal impact on happiness at individual level.

Another study conducted by Rego et al. (2011) on a sample of 205 employees working in different organizations (glass, plaster, moulds and rubber) revealed that organizational trust as one dimension of organizational virtuousness positively and significantly impacts the affective component of happiness of the employees.

A study conducted by Rego and Cunha (2012) explored authentic climate (fairness/justice, spirit of camaraderie, communication, trust, credibility, work-family conciliation and personal development) of organizations in which trust as an important dimension significantly influenced the happiness of young engineering students. Similar results were found by Garg and Rajah (2012) in the context of South Africa. Han et al. (2013) established from a sample of 4,585 respondents from 25 administrative areas of Seoul, South Korea, using multilevel analysis that trust as a social capital dimension at both individual and area level is positively linked with the subjective happiness of people. A similar evidence that trust influences happiness of individuals has been found by Rodríguez-Pose and von Berlepsch (2014) in their study using ordinal logistic regression analysis on a sample of 48,583 people from 25 European countries .

Williams et al. (2015) conducted a longitudinal study by examining the relationship between perception of organizational virtues (with trust as one dimension) and work happiness in a sample of 247 school staff of Victoria, Australia. The results showed that there is a positive and significant association between trust and work happiness among school staff. A recent study by Yagi (2017) on data from 9,142 people belonging to five countries (Germany, France, UK, USA and Japan) revealed that trust (one dimension of social capital) enhances positive happiness, for example feelings of attainment, and reduces negative happiness, for instance anger or anxiety.

It appears that trust, whether regarded as one dimension of social capital or organizational virtuousness, is significantly related to affective and/or cognitive components of happiness. However, none of the past studies have been conducted in Indian organizational settings. The present study argues that organizational trust, categorized in three dimensions, namely,

competence, benevolence and reliability, is expected to be a determining factor for the happiness of employees. In other words, affects the overall happiness. Hence, the following hypotheses have been proposed.

**H<sub>4a</sub>:** Competence- based trust is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.

**H<sub>4b</sub>:** Benevolence- based trust is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.

**H<sub>4c</sub>:** Reliability- based trust is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.

### **2.6.2 Forgiveness and Happiness**

Forgiveness has been conceptualized as a positive psychological response towards an interpersonal harm and refrains the harmed from taking revenge for transgressions, and encourages the individual for a positive outlook (Thompson et al., 2005). Past theoretical and empirical studies have revealed that forgiveness is linked with happiness (McCullough, 2000; Toussaint & Webb, 2005). Moreover, the findings of cross-sectional studies have shown the positive relationship between the individual's tendency to forgive others and different dimensions of happiness. For instance, people who are likely to forgive others reported a higher level of positive affect, more life satisfaction, self-acceptance and gratitude (Hill & Allemand, 2010; Maltby et al., 2005; Sastre et al., 2003).

Additionally, forgiving people are less prone to anger, anxiety, negative affect and depressive symptoms (Thompson et al., 2005). Besides, findings of longitudinal research have evidenced that variations in the tendency to forgive are positively associated with variations in subjective well-being/happiness and negatively related to variations in negative affect (Bono et al., 2008; Orth et al., 2008). Finally, from the experimental and intervention studies, it is also quite evident that forgiveness and well-being are related (Karremans et al., 2003; Worthington et al., 2007).

In accordance with the broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998; 2001), affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001) and a meta-analysis of over 300 studies conducted by Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, and Schkade (2005) shows that positive character strengths such as forgiveness, might lead to well-being. This could be due to the durable resources built over time, which can then be utilized in the times of hardships and growth by organizations. However, few studies have been conducted with a significant emphasis on understanding the direct linkages between forgiveness and happiness. For instance, a study conducted by Matlby et al. (2005)



examined the relationship between forgiveness and well-being (hedonic, short-term happiness and eudaimonic, long-term happiness) among college students from the UK and showed different results from a study conducted by Sastre et al. (2003) in that there was small to moderate correlational relationship between forgiveness and short- as well as long-term happiness.

However, Maltby et al. (2005) emphasized the difference between short-term and long-term happinesses and the correlation with forgiveness. It is possible to re-conceptualize the measures they used in their study as measures of two different domains of well-being. We emphasize here that the measures used by Maltby et al. (2005) could be replaced by measures of affect (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) and cognition (satisfaction with life; Diener et al., 1985). With this substitution, and from the previous literature, it appears that forgiveness is expected to be related with dimensions of happiness, that is, affect and life satisfaction. Although there are studies on forgiveness at work (Fehr & Gelfand, 2012; Schulte et al., 2013; Woodyatt et al., 2017) and happiness and/or well-being of employees (Toussaint & Friedman 2009; Yao et al. 2017), the organizational literature is comparatively silent on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. The present study explores the forgiveness dimensions, namely, forgiveness of self, forgiveness of others and forgiveness of situations, which significantly contribute to the happiness of employees. Therefore, the hypothesis is:

**H<sub>5a</sub>:** Forgiveness of self is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.

**H<sub>5b</sub>:** Forgiveness of others is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.

**H<sub>5c</sub>:** Forgiveness of situations is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.

### **2.6.3 Organizational Trust, Forgiveness and Happiness**

Researchers have highlighted that one of the primary sources of happiness is satisfactory relationships (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Salas-Vallina et al., 2018). Though work relationships are characterized by professionalism and are generally known for getting the work done, employees also fear the opportunistic behavior (do anything to get ahead) of their co-workers. Still, they desire to have a trustful and go-to friend type colleague when they face a work predicament (Vanhala et al., 2016). Therefore, trustworthy relationships at work may have a significant impact on emotional well-being and provide social support and comfort. Because such a large part of the lives of employees are spent at work, the quality of experiences they get from the workplace

are expected to have consequences on their identities and happiness. Therefore, happiness although a subjective state is deeply rooted in the work context and both of its components – emotional and cognitive – are to some extent expected to be influenced by trust and forgiveness at work, which are developed by interpersonal contacts at work. This indicates a similarity between trust and forgiveness– that they are affected by social interactions.

Despite the link between organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness, very little research has been conducted in this direction in the Indian context. The present study attempts to extend the work of trust in these work settings and also strives to establish the link between existing trust literature and to explain the influence of trust on the happiness of employees using forgiveness as a mediating variable. Happiness has been postulated as the ultimate form of human contentment, and if forgiveness at work is a reflection of the human character strength and positivity at work, it would be expected that forgiveness shares an association with trust and happiness in employees. Despite the utmost importance of trust, forgiveness at work and happiness for the organizations, very little is known about their interrelationships.

Martin et al. (2005) highlighted that employees having trust at work are more tend to develop positive perceptions of psychological well-being and/or happiness. Also, Fredrickson (2001) argued that employees who feel grateful and witness positive social exchanges (laced with trust) at work may experience high positive emotions. Dutton and Heaphy (2003) also suggested that ‘high-quality connections’ aroused by trust at work may foster positive emotions such as happiness in employees.

Further, researchers have argued that forgiveness in an established relationship (work place) is influenced as much as by interpersonal processes as it is by the attributes of the employees (Kelley et al., 2003; Rusbult et al., 2005; Pethe et al., 2000). Previous studies have indicated that from various perspectives of interpersonal processes related to forgiveness dynamics, one quality that is required utmost is trust in a relationship (Finkel et al., 2007; Rempel et al., 2001). The studies further suggested that trust in a relationship leads to forgiveness which further, results in happiness. For example, after a mistake is committed by a colleague, those who trust him/her typically form a more kind interpretation of the mistake occurred and tend to make and retain positive evaluation of the wrongdoer. These judgements create an environment in which both the victim and offender are more likely to seek and grant forgiveness and influence their happiness (Finkel et al., 2007). Therefore, the present study anticipated that role of forgiveness as a mediator between the relationship of organizational trust and happiness.

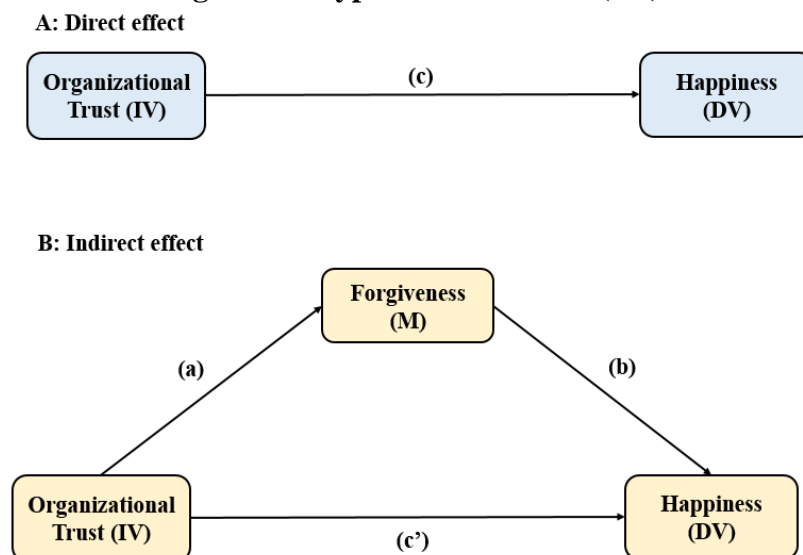
Prior studies have investigated the mediating role of forgiveness in various individual related

variables. For instance, a study conducted by Yalçın and Malkoç (2015) on a sample of 482 university students from Turkey revealed that forgiveness fully mediates the relationship between meaning in life and subjective well-being/happiness. Another study on the mediating role of forgiveness by Yao et al. (2017) on a sample of 475 undergraduates from China evidenced that two dimensions of forgiveness, namely, self-forgiveness and interpersonal forgiveness, partially mediate the relationship between self-esteem and subjective well-being (happiness). A recent study conducted by Gismero-González et al. (2019) on a sample of 456 Spanish adults established that forgiveness fully mediates the relationship between interpersonal offences and psychological well-being.

Therefore, despite the role of forgiveness, few past studies have attempted to understand the role of forgiveness as a mediator. Therefore, it seemed to be an essential undertaking that whether forgiveness at work act as a mediator between organizational trust and happiness of employees. The following hypothesis has been drawn and Figure 2.4 presents the hypothesized model.

**H6:** Forgiveness mediates the relationship between organizational trust and happiness of employees.

**Figure 2.4 Hypothesized Model (H6)**



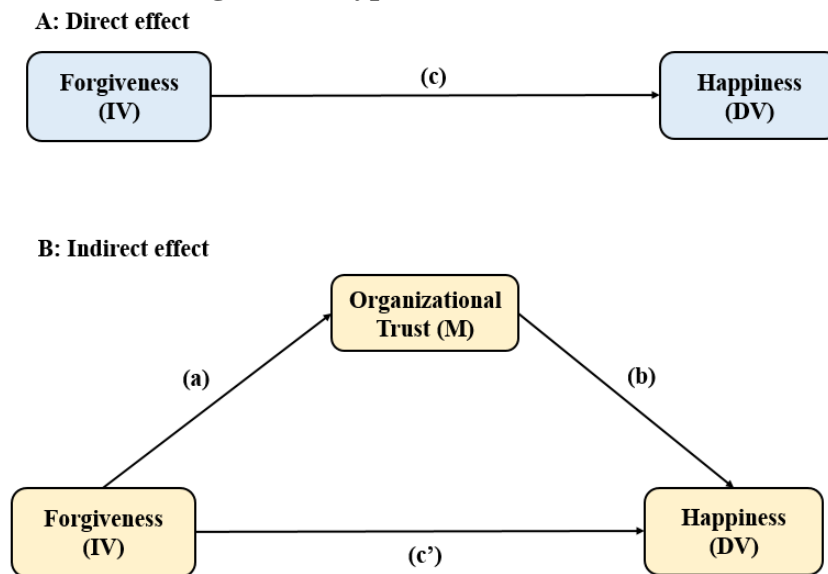
**Notes:** IV = independent variable (organizational trust); DV = dependent variable (happiness); M = mediating variable (forgiveness).

From the findings of past studies (conducted overseas), it has been evidenced that trust predicts forgiveness (Burnette et al., 2012; Luchies et al., 2013; Molden & Finkel, 2010). While researchers have also evidenced that trust acts both as a predictor and an outcome of forgiveness (Molden & Finkel, 2010; Wieselquist, 2009). Given these complex bi-directional relations, thus, it becomes important to also test whether organizational trust mediates the relationship between

forgiveness and happiness in Indian organizational settings. The hypothesis is made below and Figure 2.5 presents the hypothesized model.

**H<sub>7</sub>:** Organizational trust mediates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness of employees.

**Figure 2.5 Hypothesized Model (H7)**



**Notes:** IV = independent variable (forgiveness); DV = dependent variable (happiness); M = mediating variable (organizational trust).

#### 2.6.4 Gender as a Moderator Forgiveness and Happiness

The literature (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Gilligan, 1994; Kohlberg, 1984; McCullough et al., 1998; Miller et al., 2008) suggests that researchers have found gender-based differences in forgiveness and thus gender is a demographic variable. However, we can look at gender not only as a background variable but as a significant social construct, which merits closer examination. Finding the biological and cultural reasons for the differences between men and women is extremely difficult. Conventionally, research on sex differences has concentrated on the characteristics assumed to be biological in nature and inborn differences between males and females, whereas the sociology of gender has considered it as socially constructed nature of how men and women embrace gender roles (Frawley et al., 2014).

Further, according to Eagly (1987), the difference in social behavior between genders stems from the socialization process (i.e., societal and cultural expectations). Further, Archer (1996) stated that males are more agentic (i.e., masterful, instrumental, and competitive) and females are more communal (i.e., friendly, cooperative, and expressive). In other words, men focus largely on outcome whereas women focus more on interpersonal relationships (Chai et al., 2011; Verma, 2009; Kumari et al., 2012). Over forty years ago, in a review of 1400 studies on sex differences, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) highlighted a common pattern of gender and its associated behavior,

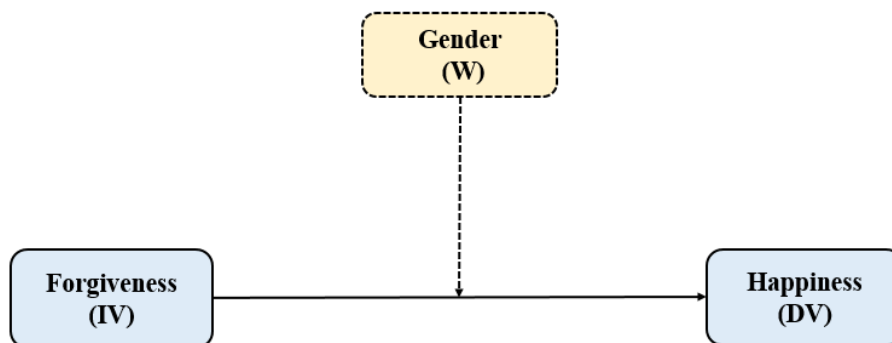
and some patterns are still persistent. Even decades later, Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) conclusion still seems to be highly relevant. That is, the ostensible distinction between sex as a biological fact and gender as a social construct is challenged by findings which reveal the inherent complexity in identifying and understanding the emotional expression of both the genders related to various psychological constructs (Simon & Nath, 2004; Sloan, 2012). Furthermore, structural theories of emotion (social interactional theory of emotions; Kemper, 1978; 1990) have suggested that there are gender differences in emotional expression (Kemper, 1991; Simon & Nath, 2004); however, it is imprecise to say that a similar pattern may found at work also (Sloan, 2012).

Based on the above line of reasoning, prior research has indicated that gender differences play a key role in emotions and expression of emotions. Presently, there is a noteworthy theoretical curiosity that forgiveness helps in encouraging happiness or well-being at work (Rijavec et al. 2010). Researchers suggest that forgiveness provides opportunities for identifying the transgression and understanding the transgressor. It generates compassion for others, increasing the value of social support systems and realizing the transformed meaning of life (Enright et al. 1998).

From the relevant literature, it is quite apparent that there are gender differences in the construct of forgiveness and happiness; but whether gender differences exist in the association between forgiveness and happiness in the Indian organizational context is an important research question and whether gender acts as a moderator of relationship between forgiveness and happiness. In other words, it may be the case that the association between forgiveness and happiness is different for women employees than it is for men employees. Thus, the following hypothesis has been formulated and Figure 2.6 depicts the hypothesized model.

**H<sub>8a</sub>**: Gender moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that the relationship is stronger for female employees than male employees.

**Figure 2.6 Hypothesized Model (H8a)**



**Notes:** IV = independent variable (forgiveness); DV = dependent variable (happiness); W = moderator variable (gender).

### **2.6.5 Age as a moderator between Forgiveness and Happiness**

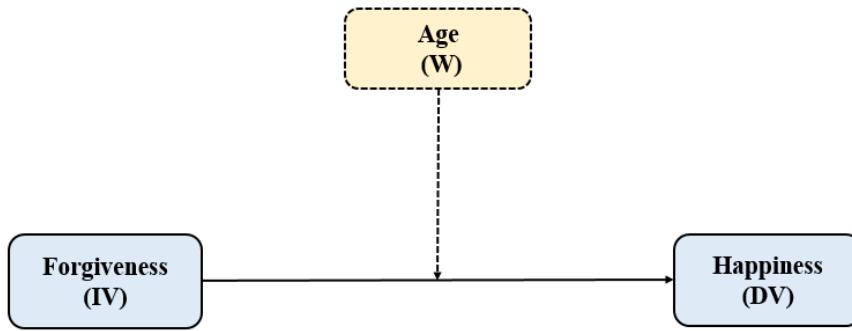
Over his/her lifetime, an individual's willingness to forgive (self, others, situations) varies. Past studies have found strong support for the influence of age on the tendency to forgive (e.g., Allemand, 2008; Toussaint et al., 2001). Erikson (1982) claims that there are eight stages of human development, each with a specific type of conflicts in an individual's life. A successful resolution of conflicts in each stage makes people strong regarding the sense of identity and good interpersonal relations. According to Hamachek (1990), as people move through self-centred orientation to interpersonal orientation, they might derive satisfaction and happiness, and this process requires acceptance, tolerance and compromise. Therefore, the expansion of self in order to include others contributes towards people's increasing ability to forgive.

An additional theoretical approach to study forgiveness among different age groups is the theory of socio-emotional selectivity (Carstensen et al., 1999). According to this theory, the perception of people regarding the time horizon of their life influences the selection of goals, preferences and prioritization of activities (Carstensen et al., 1999), and age gets shorter as the time horizon grows. Therefore, on an ongoing basis, they maximize their positive emotional experiences by managing affective states and deriving short-term emotional benefits from their relationships (Charles & Carstensen, 2010). Thus, people are strategically willing to forgive (self, others and situations) in order to develop positive emotions, which seems to be essential for life satisfaction across young and old adults.

Moreover, in terms of age and different types of forgiveness, past studies have reported differences in satisfaction with life (one dimension of happiness) among different age groups (Kaleta & Mróz, 2018; Sastre et al., 2003; Toussaint et al., 2001). For example, Sastre et al. (2003) found that older people tend to show resentment and are more willing to forgive compared to younger people. They self-report that they have more life satisfaction (one dimension of happiness). Additionally, Toussaint et al. (2001) also found that among older people, forgiveness of others has a positive link with life satisfaction. Thus, based on the theory and the findings of previous studies, we expect that age has the potential to moderate the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. Thus, we formulate the hypothesis below and Figure 2.7 presents the hypothesised relationship.

**H<sub>8b</sub>**: Age moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship will be stronger for old aged employees than young and middle-aged employees.

**Figure 2.7 Hypothesized Model (H8b)**



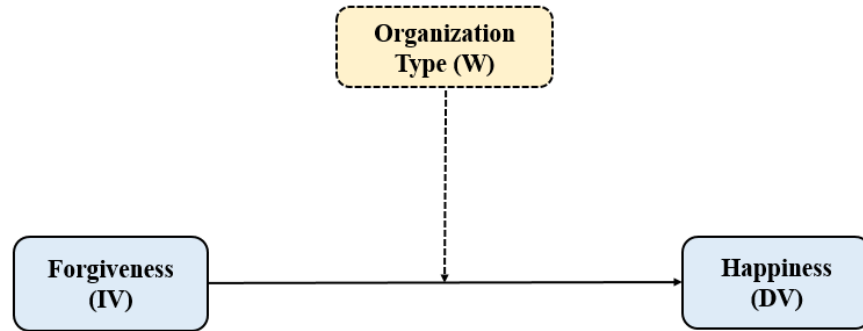
**Notes:** IV = independent variable (forgiveness); DV = dependent variable (happiness); W = moderator variable (age).

### 2.6.6 Organization Type as a Moderator between Forgiveness and Happiness

Researchers have illustrated the importance of influence of organizational type (private and public) on job-related attitude and behavior (Markovits et al., 2007; Perry & Rainey, 1988; Wettenhall, 2003). Existing literature also suggest that forgiveness tendency of employees differ according to the organizational ownership/type (public and private; Akeel & Indra, 2013; Baldwin, 2010; Posner & Schmidt, 2012). The aforementioned studies also highlighted that people working in public sector organizations value helpfulness, interpersonal relations, sensitivity—and empathy more than employees working in private sector organizations. Moreover, private sector organizations, due to their profit oriented objectives (Verma & Dhar, 2016), might give lower preference to employee forgiveness. Given that specific traits of people working in public and private sector affect their likelihood of forgiveness at work, it is proposed here that an interaction term of forgiveness and type of organization would influence the forgiveness–happiness link. In others words, the relationship between forgiveness and happiness would be different for public sector and private sector employees. To examine this, we hypothesize as below and Figure 2.8 depicts the hypothesized relationship between the variables.

**H<sub>8c</sub>:** Type of organization moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship will be stronger for employees working in public sector organizations than private sector organizations.

**Figure 2.8 Hypothesized Model (H8c)**

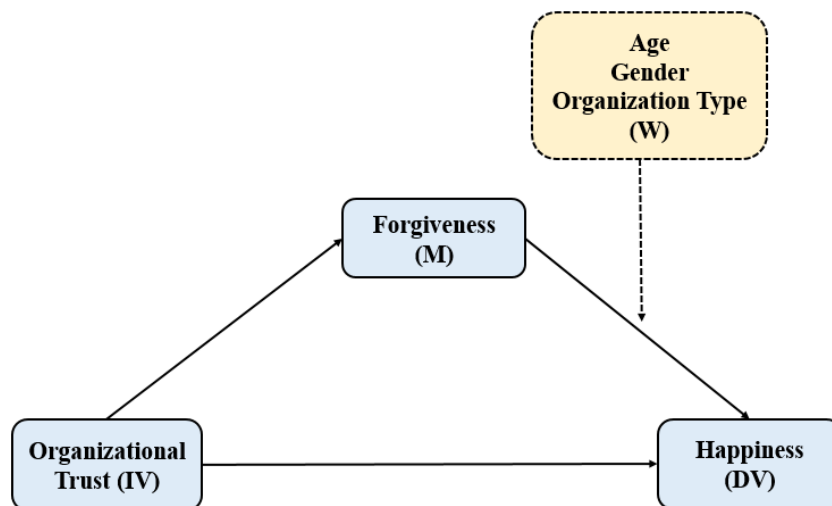


**Notes:** IV = independent variable (forgiveness); DV = dependent variable (happiness); W = moderator variable (organization type; public and private).

## 2.7 PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL

As evidenced in the survey of existing literature as well based on the above discussed hypothesized inter-relationships between variables, overall study model of the given research could be presented as Figure 2.9.

**Figure: 2.9: Proposed Research Model**



**Notes:** IV = independent variable (organizational trust); M = mediator variable (forgiveness); DV = dependent variable (happiness); W = moderator variables (age, gender, organizational sector).

## 2.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter focused on literature on the variables under study. The chapter began with the origin and evolution of the variables and also reviewed all relevant and accessible literature, which presented the lacuna existing in the Indian context. Despite its growing importance, there is a dearth of research on the variables (organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness) and their relationship in Indian organizations, which encouraged us to research them. Considering this, the present study strives to bridge the gap between theoretical claims of positive organizational behavior and core psychology literature by empirically testing the relationship between the variables and their dimensions.





## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter deals with the research methodology adopted to achieve the objectives of the study and the research questions derived from them. The chapter also includes a detailed description of the sample, procedure for data collection, research instruments employed to measure the variables under study and the statistical analysis approach adopted to test the research hypotheses.

### 3.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aims to examine the impact of organizational trust and forgiveness on the happiness of employees. Also, it is focused upon to understand the role of demographical differences in the perception of employees with respect to organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness of employees. In order to attain the aforementioned purposes of the study, the following objectives have been developed:

1. To comprehend the role of organizational trust in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (age, gender and organization type).
2. To comprehend the role of forgiveness in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (age, gender and organization type).
3. To comprehend the role of happiness of employees in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (age, gender and organization type).
4. To comprehend the relationship between organizational trust and happiness in Indian organizations.
5. To comprehend the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in Indian organizations.
6. To comprehend the mediating role of forgiveness in the relationship between organizational trust and employees happiness in Indian organizations.
7. To comprehend the mediating role of organizational trust in forgiveness and happiness relationship in Indian organizations.
8. To comprehend the moderating influence of demographic variables (age, gender and organization type) on forgiveness and happiness relationship in Indian organizations.

### 3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study utilises a conclusive research design (descriptive form), which is non-

experimental field study (survey) that aims to examine the association between a dependent variable(s) and several independent variables and makes associational inferences with minimal interference of the researchers (Mitchell, 1985). Here, the variables are usually chosen on the basis of some theory/theories to answer certain research questions or test some hypotheses. This form of design allows for the descriptive research by following the cross-sectional survey.

The present study uses primary data and statistical techniques to investigate the hypothesized interrelationships among the different variables under study. Tharenou et al. (2007) proposed that correlational field studies (surveys) are most suitable to test the models that not only examine the direct relationship between dependent and independent variables but also the differential predictions and alternative explanations by including mediator or moderator variables.

Additionally, the survey method is found appropriate for examining the extent of association between study variables as well as control variables on a large sample representative of the population (Tharenou et al., 2007). The present study measures the chosen variables based on a strong theoretical basis using standardized instruments with well-established reliability and validity, involves control variables, hypothesizes mediation and moderation effects and utilizes regression analysis to examine the relationships between dependent and independent variables. With the present research problem, correlational field survey was found to be the most appropriate research design.

The data was collected through administration of self-reported questionnaires. One of the prime characteristics of such research pattern is that it is well planned and structured in data collection and mostly applies to quantitative approach (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Additionally, with the time constraints for data collection, cross-sectional research design was regarded as the most suitable alternative. Cross-sectional research design entails one time measurement of variables, unlike longitudinal studies, which involve repeated observations of the same subjects over a long period of time (Malhotra & Dash, 2009).

Further, researchers such as Rindfleisch et al. (2008) also assert the supremacy of cross-sectional research design over longitudinal research approach. They advocate cross-sectional research method as the best approach to be adopted by researchers, especially when the target sample is well-educated and the research uses an array of measurement scales. Hence, given the sample characteristics (employees are relatively well-educated), the cross-sectional research design was found appropriate for the present research.

Further, the research design also includes hierarchical regression analysis to investigate the interrelationships between independent and dependent variables selected for the study, depending

on the theoretical foundation related to these variables in the existing literature (Hair et al., 2010). The independent variables of the study include three dimensions of organizational trust (competence-based trust, benevolence-based trust and reliability-based trust) and three dimensions of forgiveness (self, others and situations). The dependent variables of the study include the happiness of employees with three dimensions (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life).

### **3.4 DESCRIPTION OF POPULATION AND SAMPLE FOR THE STUDY**

The targeted population for the present study was employees working at junior, middle and senior managerial positions of Indian organizations. The organizations with more than Rs. 500 crores of annual turnover from both public and private sectors were targeted. Respondents from six organizations (three public sector and three private sector) that met this criterion were included in this study. The selected organizations are engaged in hydropower generation, automobile and infrastructure development and are located at industrial hub cities/states of India (i.e., Gurgaon, Noida and Uttarakhand). Data collected from organizations of such varied nature helped increase the statistical power and achieve greater occupational heterogeneity (Tomarken & Serlin, 1986).

Out of 590 questionnaires administered, 480 respondents returned the questionnaires, thus yielding 81.35% response rate. After discarding questionnaires on account of multiple, unengaged and missing responses, a total of 432 usable questionnaires were considered for analysis. The sample size thus obtained is adequate for the study as the guidelines proposed by Hair et al. (2010), indicated that a minimum sample size should be at least five times (more appropriately, 10 times) the number of observations to be analyzed. In the current study, the total number of items in the questionnaire is 59, so, the sample size should be between 295 and 590. Thus, 432 usable questionnaires were adequate to undertake data analysis.

The designations of the participants include ‘Senior Executives,’ ‘Assistant Managers,’ ‘Project Managers,’ ‘Production Managers,’ ‘System Analyst,’ ‘Business Analyst,’ ‘General Managers,’ ‘Deputy General Managers,’ ‘Senior Manager—Learning and Development,’ ‘HR managers,’ ‘Assistant Manager—HR,’ ‘Senior Engineers,’ ‘Assistant Engineers,’ ‘Test Engineers,’ ‘Key Account Manager,’ ‘Manufacturing Customer Service Representative,’ ‘Marketing Managers,’ ‘Manager Pre-Sales’ and ‘Area Sales Manager’. Table 3.1 presents the demographical details of the respondents.

**Table 3.1 Demographic Details of the Respondents**

<b>Demographic (n = 432)</b>	<b>No. of respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Age (in years)</b>		
Young (21–35)	169	39.10
Middle age (36–50)	142	32.90
Older (51–65)	121	28.00
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	304	70.37
Female	128	29.63
<b>Education</b>		
Diploma	146	33.80
Graduate	174	40.28
Postgraduate and above	112	25.93
<b>Managerial Positions level</b>		
Junior	159	36.81
Middle	145	33.56
Senior	128	29.63
<b>Work Experience (in years)</b>		
Less than 10	165	38.19
10–20	148	34.26
More than 20	119	27.55
<b>Organizational Type</b>		
Public	296	68.52
Private	136	31.28

The mean work experience of the respondents was 12.5 years and mean age was 37 years. The sample is dominated by males (70.37%) and females were only 29.63%. Also, the employees were divided into three age groups, namely, young (39.10%), middle-age (32.90%) and old employees (28%). Majority of the respondents held junior level positions in the organization (36.81%); middle level positions were held by 33.56%; and senior level positions were held by 29.63%. Majority (68.52%) of our participants were from public sector organizations while 31.28% were from private sector organizations. The employees were also divided into three experience groups based on their work experience: less than 10 years (38.19%), 10–20 years (34.26%) and more than 20 years (27.55%).

### **3.5 PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION**

The data were collected through simple random sampling method using the training programmes organized in the selected organizations. These organizations were randomly selected from the data of Continuing Education Centre of IIT Roorkee. Although convenience sampling is sometimes considered unfavourable due to its inability to produce replicable and representative results, we applied simple random sampling because of two reasons. First, it is one of the most

popular techniques for researchers in the field of social sciences, and second, it provides ease of access in choosing large samples which are free from bias and representative of the population, thereby enhancing the validity of data (Axinn & Pearce, 2006). Further, in order to increase the reliability of responses and to obtain sensitive information, the researcher also employed self-reported measures for data collection (Babbie, 2015).

The data were collected via self-administered questionnaires as it is a preferred method of data collection (such as face to face or telephonic interviews). Despite some disadvantages, self-administered questionnaire offer numerous advantages over other methods of data collection in survey research. For example, self-administered questionnaires reduce the cost of research both financially and in time efficiency, provide access to widely dispersed samples and minimize interviewer error and bias (Zikmund, 2003). In addition, as opposed to personal interviews where the respondent is most likely to give socially acceptable answers, self-administered questionnaire can help in eliciting actual and sensitive information, thus improving the reliability of responses (Babbie, 2015). The main disadvantage of self-administered questionnaires as reported in the literature is the low response rates (Zikmund, 2003; Kailasam & Wongsurawat, 2015). This, however, was not much of a problem in the present study. Further, since the responses obtained with the questionnaire are based on self-reports, common method bias could be a problem as it can artificially inflate or deflate relationships between the constructs (Ojha, 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, Harman's single factor test was conducted to assess the responses (results are reported in Chapter 4).

For the purpose of data collection, the researcher forwarded a training proposal to the HR managers of selected organizations. The training proposal was based on the emerging issues in organizational behavior and human resources management and involved discussion and training on organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness of the employees. The organizations that accepted the proposal invited the researcher to conduct the training programs in the organization. Each training program was one day long, with a batch size of 25–45 employees.

The training programs consisted of detailed discussions on the said topics before the survey was administered. Also, all queries from the participants regarding the purpose of the research and scoring were addressed and solved at the time of training. The employees of the organizations were assured of their anonymity. The results of the survey and its analysis were presented during the training programs and the reports of all such surveys were provided to the organizations. The respondents participated voluntarily and no remuneration for their participation was offered. Each participant received a packet that included a cover letter and two documents: a questionnaire

on demographic information and items on organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness. The study was conducted in English since it is widely spoken and understood at workplaces. As the scales were originally developed in English, there was no need to translate the instruments.

### **3.6 DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

The study focuses on the assessment of organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness of the employees working in public and private sector organizations of India. This section provides detailed information on the research instruments administered to assess the variables under study.

#### **3.6.1 Demographic Data**

The information on the employees' demographics was asked in the first section of the structured questionnaire. The respondents were asked to provide the information related to their age, gender, current organization type, managerial position/hierarchical level, educational level and work experience. The responses were taken on categorical scales. The gender was measured on a 2-point scale with male denoted by 1 and female by 2. Measurement of age was done by taking the actual age and also on a 3-point scale where 1 represented young age employees (21–35 years), 2 represented middle-aged employees (36–50 years) and old age employees (51–65 years) were labelled as 3. Similarly, work experience was measured with 1 (less than 10 years), 2 (10–20 years) and 3 (more than 20 years). The type of sector was measured using a 2-point scale with public organization labelled as 1 and private organization represented by 2. Hierarchical level was measured on a 3-point scale with junior level represented by 1, middle level represented by 2 and senior level represented by 3. Along the same lines, education level was measured on a 3-point scale on which diploma was 1, graduation was 2 and post-graduation and above was 3.

#### **3.6.2 Organizational Trust Scale**

In order to measure organizational trust, the scale developed by Vanhala et al. (2016) was administered with three dimensions, namely, competence-based trust (5 items), benevolence-based trust (5 items) and reliability-based trust (6 items). The present study specifically administered the trust scale developed by Vanhala et al. (2016) because unlike other scales, it is specific to employees and organizations while others are more generic. Moreover, the widely used scale developed by McAllister (1995) with two dimensions (cognition based trust and affect based trust) measures reliability, dependability, personal care and concern of others in organizational context. However, the scale by Vanhala et al. (2016) of organizational trust is more diverse and along with benevolence and reliability dimension also includes competence based trust which is missing in McAllister's (1995) scale. Since the development of this scale, it

has been applied in various samples across cultures (Kerstetter, 2018; Kilpiö, 2017; Tallant & Donati, 2019).

The illustrative items (adaptive) of the organizational trust scale (Vanhala et al., 2016) were: ‘The large majority of people (employees) in my organization are competent in their area of expertise’, for competence-based trust, ‘People (employees) in my organization are concerned with the welfare of others’ for benevolence-based trust and ‘The actions and behavior of my colleagues are always consistent’ for reliability-based trust. The items of the scale presents the organizational-level trust of employees’ propensity to trust at the workplace (Vanhala et al., 2016). The responses were taken on a 7-point Likert scale, where the response of 1 indicated ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 indicated ‘strongly agree’. High score presents higher level of propensity to organizational trust.

### **3.6.3 Forgiveness Scale**

To measure forgiveness at work, the Heartland Forgiveness Scale (HFS) developed by Thompson et al. (2005) was administered and items of the scales were adapted in the context of the employees. It consists of 18 items with three dimensions, presenting forgiveness of self (FOS; 6 items), forgiveness of others (FOO; 6 items), and forgiveness of situations (FOST; 6 items) at work. The present study selected HFS because in the empirical research, to measure forgiveness though researchers have developed several scales such as Forgiveness Likelihood Scale by Rye et al. (2001), Willingness to Forgive Scale by Hebl and Enright (1993) and Workplace Forgiveness Scale developed by Boonyriat et al. (2013) which are dispositional forgiveness scales and generally preferred due to their supremacy over non-dispositional forgiveness scales.

Past studies have indicated that dispositional scales are significantly related to psychological constructs whereas non-dispositional measures such as Workplace Forgiveness Scale (Boonyriat et al. (2013) and Decisional and Emotional Forgiveness Scale (Worthington et al., 2007), which focus on forgiveness of specific transgressions, are not related to psychological constructs (McCullough et al., 2001; Thompson et al., 2005).

Moreover, the existing scales on forgiveness have generally two dimensions, namely, self-forgiveness and interpersonal forgiveness. Besides these two dimensions of forgiveness, HFS developed by Thompson et al. (2005) has third dimension, namely, forgiveness of situations, which provides a broad applicability of forgiveness of transgressions. Recently, Schulte et al. (2013) and Dahiya and Rangnekar (2018b) also emphasized the importance of these three dimensions of forgiveness at work.



Sample items of HFS (Dahiya & Rangenkar, 2018b) for FOS, FOO, and FOST were: ‘With time, I am developing an understanding of myself for mistakes I have made at work’, ‘If my colleagues mistreat me, I continue to think positively about them’, and ‘If I am disappointed by uncontrollable circumstances at work, I continue to think positively about them’, respectively. The items of scale presents the employees’ forgiveness tendency. The responses were taken on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 as ‘[almost always false of me’ to 7 as ‘almost always true of me’. Higher score presents higher tendency to forgive.

### **3.6.4 Happiness Scale**

Happiness was measured using positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) originally developed by Watson et al. (1988) and satisfaction with life scale developed by Diener et al. (1985). Both scales have been used to measure happiness in various studies (e.g., Ceci & Kumar 2016; Field & Buitendach 2011; Yuki et al. 2013). Also, a recent review article by Veenhoven (2017) after reviewing more than five thousand studies on happiness stated that happiness consists of three dimensions, namely, the presence of positive affect, the absence of negative affect and satisfaction with life. The instruments are described in detail in the paragraphs below.

**Positive and Negative Affect Schedule.** In order to measure affect, the participants were asked to respond to PANAS with two dimensions (consisting of 10 items each), namely, positive affect and negative affect, as developed by Watson et al. (1988) and validated in Indian organizations by Dahiya and Rangnekar (2019c). Before undertaking the study, the scale was piloted on employees (n = 53) working in public and private sector organizations in India. The wording of the questionnaire was modified on the basis of the feedback from the pilot study. Respondents mentioned that they faced difficulty in understanding the context of one-word items (such as ‘enthusiastic’ and ‘distressed’), that is, whether it was related to their personal life or work life. Also, researchers have recommended that instead of one-word items, sentences that qualify for higher reading level and are easier to understand should be used (DeVellis, 2016; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Therefore, the items of PANAS for the study was modified by inclusion of the context of work life of employees. The modified illustrative items respectively for PA and NA were: ‘I feel enthusiastic at work’ and ‘I feel distressed at work’. The responses were taken on a 7-point Likert scale, where the response of 1 indicated ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 indicated ‘strongly agree’. High score presents higher level of affect (both positive and negative).

The present study found PANAS appropriate because it has been validated around the world in various countries and different languages (e.g., English, Portuguese, Chilean, German, Hindi, Japanese, Turkish, Estonian and Romanian) and consistent findings have confirmed the good

psychometric properties of the instrument (Cotigă, 2012; Pandey & Srivastava, 2008). At present, various versions of PANAS are available, for example, there is a shorter and an extended version of PANAS (Cotigă, 2012; MacKinnon et al., 1999) as well as a few versions for children (Crawford & Henry, 2004), for adolescents (von Humboldt et al., 2017) and older samples (Buz et al., 2015). Further, with the increasing importance of affect, researchers have developed scales to measure affect (Daniels, 2000; Russell & Daniels, 2018) among which PANAS, developed by Watson et al. (1988), has been widely used in different cultural settings and it fulfils the criteria of cross cultural validity and reliability (von Humboldt et al., 2017). Moreover, similar evidence has been revealed by Thompson (2007) and Terracciano and his colleagues (2003) who used different versions of PANAS in a range of different cultural backgrounds. Such applications make it evident that PANAS, due to its robust psychometric properties, has been a valid and reliable instrument.

**Satisfaction with Life.** Life satisfaction was measured using Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Diener et al. (1985). SWLS is the most widely-used measure of life satisfaction (Ceci & Kumar 2016; Field & Buitendach 2011; Pavot & Diener 2008; Yuki et al. 2013). It is a one-factor measure consisting of 5 items. No modifications in the items were made for the present study. The participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 indicated ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 ‘strongly agree’. Higher score on SWLS indicates a higher level of satisfaction with life. The illustrative items were ‘In most ways, my life is close to my ideal’ and ‘I am completely satisfied with my life’.

The present study deployed SWLS because it has been widely used scale in measuring life satisfaction since its development for past 33 years on several samples. Further, the existing data suggest that SWLS has been validated in various countries: in Sweden, on a sample of university students (Hultell & Gustavsson, 2008); in Norway on a nationally representative sample (Clench-Aas et al., 2011); in Malaysia, on Malay and Chinese participants (Swami & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009); in Turkey, on a sample of university students, correctional officers, and elderly adults (Durak et al., 2010); in Brazil, on five different samples, namely, high school students, undergraduates, elementary school teachers, general population, and physicians (Gouveia et al., 2009). It has also been used for comparison between two countries, namely, Russia and North America, combining student and community sample (Tucker et al., 2006). Moreover, it has been administered on Indian working adults (Dahiya & Rangenkar, 2019a, 2019b; Sharma & Garg, 2016; Sharma & Sharma, 2015).

Also, SWLS has been translated into various languages such as Norwegian (Vittersø et al., 2005),

Hebrew (Anaby et al., 2010), French (Fouquereau & Rioux, 2002), Russian (Balatsky & Diener, 1993), German (Glaesmer et al., 2011), Portuguese (Neto, 2001) and Spanish (Atienza et al., 2003). Also, a recent review study conducted by Emerson et al. (2017) on SWLS across different contexts and another study on its cross-cultural invariance by Jang et al. (2017) revealed that SWLS is a valid and reliable measure. From this discussion, it is evident that studies evaluating the psychometric properties of SWLS have found it to be consistent, which fulfils the criteria of validity.

### **3.7 Statistical Control Variables**

Spector and Brannick (2011) recommended that for quantitative research methods (regression analysis) in an organizational context, the effect of demographic variables should be statistically controlled so as to minimize their potential spurious or confounding effects that might influence the relationships between variables. Therefore, to examine the predictive effects of dimensions of organizational trust and forgiveness on happiness of employees, demographical variables of the present study, namely, age, gender and organizational sector were statistically controlled. Age was coded as 1 (21–35 years), 2 (36–50 years) and 3 (51–65 years), gender was coded as 0 (male) and 1 (female). The educational level of the respondents was coded as 1 (diploma), 2 (graduation) and 3 (post-graduation and above). The type of the organizational sector was coded as 1 (private sector) and 2 (public sector).

### **3.8 ANALYTICAL APPROACH**

First of all, preliminary tests were conducted to check the suitability of the data for hypotheses testing. These included data cleaning, handling missing responses, test of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multi-collinearity and common method bias. Also, the scales employed in the present study were subjected to exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and validity and reliability. Afterwards, pooled confirmatory factor analysis (first order and second order measurement model) was performed.

Further, in order to accomplish the objectives of the study and to test the hypotheses developed, various statistical techniques were utilized. These statistical techniques include correlational analysis, *t*-test, one-way ANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression. *T*-test and one-way ANOVA were used to test the influence of employee demographics on organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness (for hypotheses 1 to 3). Correlational analysis was utilized to understand the nature or direction of relationships between the variables under study (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Further, to test the predictive effects of the dimensions of independent variables, namely, organizational trust and forgiveness on the happiness of employees (dependent variable),

multiple hierarchical regression technique was deployed (for hypotheses 4 and 5). The mediating role of forgiveness between organizational trust and happiness was tested with mediated hierarchical regression analysis (for hypothesis 6 and 7). Mediation analysis was conducted following the procedure given by Baron and Kenny (1986). The moderating influence of age, gender and organization type was tested with moderated hierarchical regression analysis (for hypothesis 8). The current study used SPSS version 23.00 and AMOS version 24.00 for data analysis. The summary of statistical analysis to test the research questions and hypotheses developed has been provided in Table 3.3 below.

**Hypotheses on Objective 1:** To comprehend the role of organizational trust in the Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (gender, age and organization type).

**Table 3.2: Analytical Approach for Objective 1**

<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Hypotheses Drawn</b>	<b>Test Conducted</b>
Does the employees' propensity to organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) vary with respect to demographic variables (age, gender, job positions and organization type) in Indian organizations?	<b>H<sub>1a</sub>:</b> Propensity to organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) differ between male and female employees.	Independent sample <i>t</i> -test
	<b>H<sub>1b</sub>:</b> Propensity to organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) differ with the age groups of employees.	One way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
	<b>H<sub>1c</sub>:</b> Propensity to organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector organizations) of employees.	Independent sample <i>t</i> -test

**Hypotheses on Objective 2:** To comprehend the role of forgiveness in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (gender, age and organization type).

**Table 3.3: Analytical Approach for Objective 2**

<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Hypotheses Drawn</b>	<b>Test Conducted</b>
Does the employees' tendency of forgiveness (self, others and situations) vary	<b>H<sub>2a</sub>:</b> Male and female employees tend to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differently.	Independent sample <i>t</i> -test

with respect to demographic variables (age, gender, job positions and organization type) in Indian organizations?	<b>H<sub>2b</sub></b> : Tendency to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differ with the age (young, middle and old) of employees.	One way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
	<b>H<sub>2c</sub></b> : Tendency to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector organizations) of employees.	Independent sample <i>t</i> -test

**Hypotheses on Objective 3:** To comprehend the role of happiness of employees in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables (gender, age and organization type).

**Table 3.4: Analytical Approach for Objective 3**

Research Questions	Hypotheses Drawn	Test Conducted
Does the employees' perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) vary with respect to demographic variables (age, gender, job positions and organization type) in Indian organizations?	<b>H<sub>3a</sub></b> : Male and female employees perceive happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differently.	Independent sample <i>t</i> -test
	<b>H<sub>3b</sub></b> : Perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differ with the age groups of employees.	One way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
	<b>H<sub>3c</sub></b> : Perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector organizations) of employees.	Independent sample <i>t</i> -test

**Hypotheses on Objective 4:** To comprehend the relationship between organizational trust and happiness.

**Table 3.5: Analytical Approach for Objective 4**

Research Question	Hypotheses Drawn	Test Conducted
Does organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) predict happiness of employees (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) working in the selected Indian organizations?	<b>H<sub>4a</sub></b> : Competence-based trust is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.	Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis
	<b>H<sub>4b</sub></b> : Benevolence-based trust is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.	

	<b>H<sub>4c</sub></b> : Reliability-based trust is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.	
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**Hypotheses on Objective 5:** To comprehend the relationship between forgiveness and happiness of employees.

**Table 3.6: Analytical Approach for Objective 5**

Research Question	Hypotheses Drawn	Test Conducted
Does forgiveness (self, others, situations) predict happiness of employees (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) working in the selected Indian organizations?	<b>H<sub>5a</sub></b> : Forgiveness of self is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.	Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analysis
	<b>H<sub>5b</sub></b> : Forgiveness of others is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.	
	<b>H<sub>5c</sub></b> : Forgiveness of situations is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) of employees.	

**Hypotheses on Objective 6:** To comprehend the mediating role of forgiveness in organizational trust and happiness relationship.

**Table 3.7: Analytical Approach for Objective 6**

Research Question	Hypothesis Drawn	Test Conducted
Does forgiveness mediate the relationship of organizational trust and happiness?	<b>H<sub>6</sub></b> : Forgiveness mediates the relationship between organizational trust and happiness of employees.	Mediated Regression Analysis

**Hypothesis on Objective 7:** To comprehend the mediating role of trust in forgiveness and happiness relationship.

**Table 3.8: Analytical Approach for Objective 7**

Research Question	Hypotheses Drawn	Test Conducted
Does organizational trust mediate the relationship of forgiveness and happiness?	<b>H<sub>7</sub></b> : Organizational trust mediates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness of employees.	Mediated Regression Analysis

**Hypothesis on Objective 8:** To comprehend the moderating influence of demographic variables (age, gender and organization type) on forgiveness and happiness.

**Table 3.9: Analytical Approach for Objective 8**

Research Question	Hypotheses Drawn	Test Conducted
Does the relationship between forgiveness and happiness is moderated by age, gender, job positions and organization type?	<b>H<sub>8a</sub></b> : Gender moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that the relationship is stronger for female employees than male employees.	Moderated Regression Analysis
	<b>H<sub>8b</sub></b> : Age moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship will be stronger for old aged employees than young and middle-aged employees.	
	<b>H<sub>8c</sub></b> : Organization type moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship will be stronger for employees working in public sector organizations than private sector organizations.	

### 3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter dealt with the research design of the current study and also provided detailed information about data collection and statistical analysis. The chapter also described the sample, the procedure adopted for collecting data, research instruments used to assess the variables under study and the statistical analysis approach to test the hypotheses developed to accomplish the objectives of the study.

## ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

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### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected and is divided into four sections. The first section details the preliminary screening of data, normality test and assessment of common method bias (CMB). The second section is about the process of validation of research instruments and the measurement model. The third section highlights the descriptive statistics of the variables under study. Various statistical techniques were used to test the hypotheses developed, which include correlational analysis, *t*-test, one-way ANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression. The fourth and final section details the process followed to test the hypotheses developed based on the research questions. Finally, a summary of the results has been presented.

### 4.2 DATA SCREENING AND PRELIMINARY TESTS

#### 4.2.1 Data Cleaning and Handling Missing Values

Data screening is an essential part of analysis. While preparing the data for subsequent analysis, they were scrutinized for missing, multiple and unengaged responses. Out of the 480 questionnaires received, 18 questionnaires contained multiple responses and 12 unengaged responses, so these questionnaires were not considered for the analysis. Moreover, 28 questionnaires missed data (18 questionnaires were discarded due to more than 65% items were not responded to by the participants), so after correcting for missing data (10 of the 28 questionnaires could be so treated), 432 questionnaires were used for the analysis. Following the recommendations given by researchers (Graham, 2009; Newman, 2009), missing responses were dealt with using the 'mean of nearby points' method. This method provides unbiased response from the other respondents and hence is widely used in social sciences.

#### 4.2.2 Test of Normality

The obtained data set was subjected to normality test for further screening. Normality was checked with SPSS Explore option for all variables under study. The results thus obtained revealed that the coefficients of normality (skewness and kurtosis) when divided by their standard error (SE) were falling in the range of  $-1.96$  to  $+1.96$ , thus indicating the normality of data (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Another way to identify normality of data using Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk method both of which are generally used for independent sample *t*-test and ANOVA test was also applied (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). Shapiro–Wilk test, which was earlier



presumed was applicable only for smaller sample (less than 50 numbers) but later on considered good for large sample size also ( $n < 5000$ ). Razali and Wah (2011) recommended Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test as most powerful and widely used tests of normality. The results presented in Table 4.1 indicate that the  $p$ -value for all variables under study was above .05 significance level, indicating the data set to be normal.

**Table 4.1: Results for Normality Tests**

<b>Variables N = 432</b>	<b>Skewness Statistics</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>Kurtosis Statistics</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>Shapiro-Wilk p Value (Sig.)</b>	<b>Kolmogorov- Smirnov p Value (Sig.)</b>
OT	-.118	.107	.183	.111	.055	.068
Forgiveness	-.116	.107	.144	.111	.061	.095
Happiness	.123	.107	.179	.111	.075	.087

**Notes:** N = number of participants; OT = organizational trust; S. E. = standard error

#### 4.2.3 Test of Linearity

Linearity test was conducted to examine any deviation from linearity in the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable is linear or not. It is required in correlation and regression analysis. Moreover, in the regression model, there should be a linear relationship between the free (independent) variables and dependent variable (Malhotra & Dash, 2009).

In order to check linearity between independent variables (organizational trust and forgiveness) and dependent variable (happiness), deviation from linearity test was performed in SPSS. The decision criterion given by Kutner et al. (2004) was followed which says if the value of significance of deviation from linearity is greater than .05, then the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable is linearly dependent. The results showed that significance value of deviation from linearity between organizational trust and happiness is .453, which is greater than .05 and forgiveness and happiness is .312, which also is greater than .05, which shows that there is a linear relationship between the independent (organizational trust and forgiveness) and dependent variable (happiness).

#### 4.2.4 Test for Homoscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity (the violation of homoscedasticity) is present in the data when the size of the error term differs across the values of an independent variables. More specifically, it is assumed that the error (also called ‘residual’) of a regression model is homoscedastic (Kutner et al., 2004). To put it more simply, a violation of heteroscedasticity of error terms determines the consistency or ability of a regression model to predict a dependent variable across all values of that dependent variable. Therefore, Heteroscedasticity Glejser test in SPSS was conducted as it is useful to

examine whether there is a difference in the residual variance of the observations (Kutner et al., 2004). The results fulfilled the decision criteria ( $p > .05$ ) as the value of significance of organizational trust was 0.734 and that of forgiveness was .511. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no heteroscedasticity in the data or there is homoscedasticity, which means constant variance across values. It is worth noting that heteroscedasticity in the context of regression is specifically related to error terms of the individual variables.

#### 4.2.5 Test for Non-multicollinearity

The next step is to determine whether there is a similarity between independent variables (organizational trust and forgiveness in the present study). It is necessary to conduct multicollinearity test to do so. Similarities between independent variables result in a very strong correlation. Multicollinearity test was also conducted to avoid the partial effect of independent variables on the dependent variables.

**Table 4.2: Results of Variation Inflation Factor (non-multicollinearity)**

Variable	Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)	Tolerance
Organizational trust	3.011	.332
Forgiveness	2.331	.429
Happiness	2.876	.347

In order to test multicollinearity in the data set, variance inflation factor (VIF) values were calculated. The results presented in Table 4.2 indicate that the obtained values of VIF are lower than 5 (organizational trust = 3.011; forgiveness = 2.331; happiness = 2.876) and no tolerance values are below .1. Therefore, meeting the criterion given by Kutner et al. (2004), these results indicated that multicollinearity is not a problem in the data.

#### 4.2.6 Assessment of Common Method Bias

Since the present study uses self-reported measures, common methods bias (CMB) is likely in the study. Following the methods prescribed by Podsakoff et al. (2003), we assessed CMB by using Harman's single factor test. While performing the test, all items were allowed to load on a single factor in principal component analysis and the number of factors to be extracted was fixed as one. Examination of the unrotated factor solution shows that a single factor accounts only for 38.15% variance, which is much less than 50%, the minimum threshold for the presence of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2012). This indicated that CMB was not an issue in the study.

### **4.3 FACTOR STRUCTURE, VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

The scales employed in the present study were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The main aim of factor analysis, also known as dimension reduction technique, is to reduce a large number of items into factors. Although measures used in the present study were all established by the previous researchers, but findings of the past studies suggested that in case of adopting or adapting the scales, researchers can perform the EFA and CFA on same data set because the factor structure or factor loadings of items of the scale may vary from sample to sample (Mani et al., 2016; Neff, 2003; Raghuvanshi et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2016). They further argued that any item of the scale may be having acceptable item-wise factor loading in EFA for a particular sample (original study) but while conducting the EFA again on a sample (with different characteristics) may have different factor loadings (as compared to original sample). Additionally, they argued that results from EFA being dimensions reduction technique needs to confirm by validating through the CFA. Therefore, following the suggestion, in the present study, measures developed, explored and validated mainly in Western nations were subjected to EFA before conducting the CFA. For this, the decision criteria of Eigen value greater than one, scree test and cumulative percentage of variance extracted were considered (Cattell, 1966). EFA was conducted using the widely followed principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation.

Validity of scale is considered to be the extent to which the tool (scale) claims to measure or expected to measure. After achieving the number of factors via EFA, it was necessary to ensure validity and reliability of the psychometric tools. As per Groth-Marnat (1997), the validity of a measure has been divided into three parts: content related validity (content and face validity), construct related validity (convergent and discriminant validity) and criterion related validity (predictive and concurrent validity).

Bollen (1989) defined content validity as “a qualitative type of validity where the domain of the concept is made clear and the analyst judges whether the measure fully represents the domain” (p.185). Face validity is established by test users (Groth-Marnat, 1997) and is a subjective judgement on the operationalization of a construct. All the three instruments used in this study are appropriate as all of them are standardised measures. The scales were discussed with researchers and managers involved in the relevant area.

Construct validity refers to the transformation of a concept/idea into a functioning and operating reality. It is examined by measuring convergent and discriminant validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Although the dimensions of a scale/measure are related to each other (convergent validity), they are theoretically different (discriminant validity). Further, criterion related validity is measured “between

a test measure and one or more external referents by their correlation” (Drost, 2011). This validity is mostly adopted by those researchers who construct the scale themselves for a specific research. As the instruments used in this study are standardised measures and not developed for this specific study, the testing of the instruments for criterion validity is not done and only convergent and discriminant validity (construct validity) are computed (Campbell & Fiske, 1959).

After construct validity, reliability check was done. Reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Chatterjee et al., 2015; Chatterjee & Maji, 2016; Hair et al., 2010). It refers to the degree to which the instrument gives the same results on repeated trials. Various methods used by researchers for assessing reliability are test-retest, internal consistency, inter-rater, parallel forms and split half. Among these different types of reliabilities internal consistency is evaluated in case of adapted or adopted scales whereas other types of reliabilities are computed in case of scale development (DeVellis, 2016). In this study, internal consistency method is used to analyse the reliabilities of the constructs of three instruments wherein Cronbach’s alpha describes the degree to which all items in a test measure the same concept and hence are connected to the interrelatedness of the items.

Regarding the minimum cut-off criterion for Cronbach’s alpha, there are different opinions. Some studies show that the minimal cut-off for Cronbach’s alpha should not be lower than .60 (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002; Fornell & Larcker 1981; Hair et al., 2010), whereas DeVellis (2016) reported that if acceptable values were to range from .70–.95, the scale would be more reliable and internally consistent. The present study follows the widely used Cronbach’s alpha value of .70 or more than .70 (Cronbach, 1951; Nunnally, 1978). Next three sections present the factor structure, convergent-discriminant validity and reliability of research instruments employed in present study.

#### **4.3.1 Validation of Organizational Trust Scale**

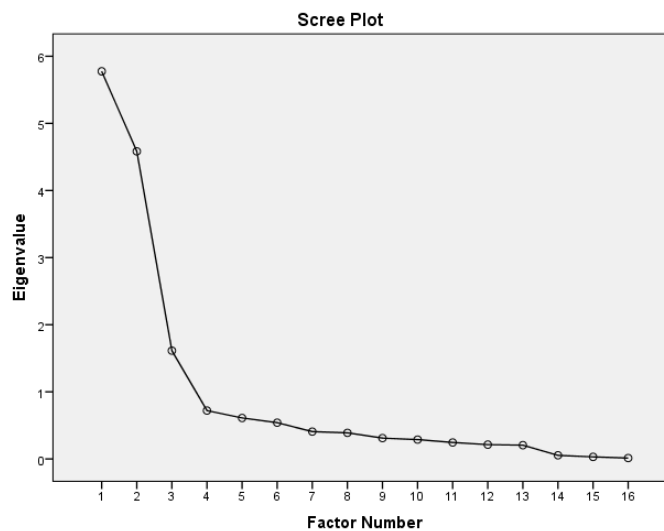
In the present study, employees’ propensity for organizational trust has been assessed by adapting a 16-item scale developed and validated by Vanhala et al. (2016). The scale measures employees’ propensity for organizational trust with respect to three dimensions. These dimensions are competence-based trust (5 items), benevolence-based trust (5 items) and reliability-based trust (6 items). The details of dimensions and its corresponding items have been displayed in Table 4.3.

To ensure the adequacy/suitability of data, two tests, namely, Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were conducted. The result of KMO for organizational trust was satisfactory with value .891 (KMO varies from 0 to 1.0 and should be .60 or higher to carry on with factor analysis; Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett’s test of sphericity tests the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which would indicate that the variables are unrelated and therefore unsuitable for structure detection (Kline, 1986). Small values (less than .05) of the

significance level indicated that factor analysis may be useful with the data. The results for Bartlett's test of sphericity were satisfactory [ $\chi^2 (120) = 6567.62$ ] with  $p < .001$ . This indicated the adequacy of the sample and suitability of the data for factor analysis.

Also, the results of Eigen value revealed that the three dimensions of organizational trust, namely, competence-based trust (Eigen value = 5.77 with 36.09% of variance explained), benevolence-based trust (Eigen value = 4.583 with 28.64% of variance explained) and reliability-based trust (Eigen value = 1.61 with 1.08% of variance explained) were satisfactory. Figure 4.1 shows the scree plot of the same. According to Stevens (1992), factor loadings greater than .30 are significant while Harman (1976) considered .29 at the .50 significance level to be significant. In this study, following the recommendation given by (Gorsuch, 1983), however, item loadings of .40 and above are considered significant for respective dimensions of scale. In the present study, loadings of the items for competence-based trust ranged from .852 to .899, for benevolence they ranged from .734 to .890 and for reliability-based trust they ranged from .715 to .873 (Table 4.3).

**Figure 4.1: Scree Plot of Organizational Trust Scale**



After exploring the factor structure of the organizational trust scale, the next step was to confirm it by evaluating the model fit of the construct as theorized. Hence, it was necessary to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test whether the research data fitted the theorized model or not on the same data set (Hair et al., 2010). Following the recommendation by Byrne (2010) and in alignment with the study conducted by Olsson et al. (2000), CFA was performed with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method. Further, following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), alternative models (one-factor, two-factor and three-factor) were created and compared for goodness of fit indices. It was found that the second order three-factor model of organizational trust was better than first order three factor model fit with the data as all indices of goodness of fit were within the recommended ranges given by Hair et al. (2010) and was kept for further analysis. Table 4.4 presents the fitness indices of organizational trust construct.

**Table 4.3: Reliability and Validity Analysis for Organizational Trust Scale (Vanhala et al., 2016)**

Dimensions	Item Code	Item Description	Item Loading	Eigen Value/ variance	CA/CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
CBT	CPT1	The employees in my organization have much knowledge about the work that needs to be done.	.882	5.77/36.09%	.939/.943	.767	.192	.186
	CPT2	The employees have faith in the expertise of the management of my organization.	.899					
	CPT3	I feel very confident about the skills of my colleagues as well as the work being organized in my organization.	.852					
	CPT4	Most employees in my organization are good at their job and have a clear vision about the future of the organization.	.858					
	CPT5	A large majority of the employees of my organization are competent in their area of work.	.887					
BBT	BNV6	The employees in my organization are concerned about my welfare.	.756	4.58/28.64%	.875/.903	.652	.185	.183
	BNV7	My needs and desires are important to my organization.	.734					
	BNV8	The employees in my organization would help me to overcome from the difficulties at work..	.846					
	BNV9	A typical employee in my unit is sincerely concerned with the problems of others.	.890					
	BNV10	Most of the times, the employees in my organization are supportive rather than just look out for themselves.	.800					
RBT	RLB11	The employees in my organization have a strong sense of justice.	.873	1.61/1.08%	.924/.928	.684	.192	.189
	RLB12	The management has made it clear that ethical actions and behaviors should be promoted in the organization.	.873					
	RLB13	The actions and behavior of the employees in my organization are always consistent.	.743					
	RLB14	Integrity is a key value in the operations of my organization.	.715					
	RLB15	My organization has kept the promises they made with regard to my job and personal development.	.868					
	RLB16	The employees in my organization get information that is important to them.	.872					

**Notes:** CPT = Competence-based trust; BNV = Benevolence-based trust; RLB = Reliability-based trust; CA = Cronbach's alpha; SD = Standard deviation; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; MSV = Maximum Shared Variance; ASV = Average Shared Variance; Items code represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

**Table 4.4: Results of Three-factor Model Fit of Organizational Trust**

Details	$\chi^2/df$	GFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor model <sup>a</sup>	<b>2.119</b>	<b>.829</b>	<b>.923</b>	<b>.919</b>	<b>.905</b>	<b>.040</b>
Three-factor model <sup>b</sup>	2.439	.811	.917	.912	.900	.052
Two-factor model	4.349	.721	.825	.819	.820	.111
One factor model	5.875	.671	.599	.612	.658	.412
<i>Recommended criteria</i>	< 3.00	≥ .80	≥ .90	≥ .90	≥ .90	≤ .08

Notes:  $\chi^2$  = chi-square;  $df$  = degree of freedom; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis Index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; values in bold presents the superior fit indices of the model.

<sup>a</sup> Second order model of organizational trust with three dimensions competence, benevolence and reliability

<sup>b</sup> First order-model with three dimensions competence, benevolence and reliability.

The internal consistency of the instrument was examined by the coefficient of reliability known as Cronbach’s alpha. The values of Cronbach’s alpha for organizational trust dimensions were .929 for competence-based trust (5 items); .875 for benevolence-based trust (5 items); .924 for reliability-based trust (6 items); and .912 for complete organizational trust scale (16 items). All values of Cronbach’s alpha were above the threshold value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) and confirmed that organizational trust scale was a reliable instrument.

To examine the validity of the factors, two types of validity, convergent validity and divergent validity, were computed. Results reported in Table 4.3 show that the values of indicators of convergent validity were satisfactory with composite reliability (CR; CPT = .943, BNV = .903, RLB = .928) and average variance extracted (AVE; CPT = .767, BNV = .652, RLB = .684). Both were greater than threshold values (CR > .70 and CR > AVE) recommended by Campbell and Fiske (1959) and Hair et al. (2010). Furthermore, the discriminant validity of factors (CPT = .875, BNV = .807, RLB = .827) were ensured with the values of maximum shared variance (MSV; CPT = .192, BNV = .183, RLB = .192), average variance extracted (AVE; CPT = .767, BNV = .652, RLB = .684) and average shared variance (ASV; CPT = .186, BNV = .183, RLB = .189) fulfilled the recommended criteria (AVE>MSV and AVE>ASV) given by Hair et al. (2010). Hence, it was clear that the adapted version of the scale with 16 items was a reliable and valid instrument in Indian organizational context.

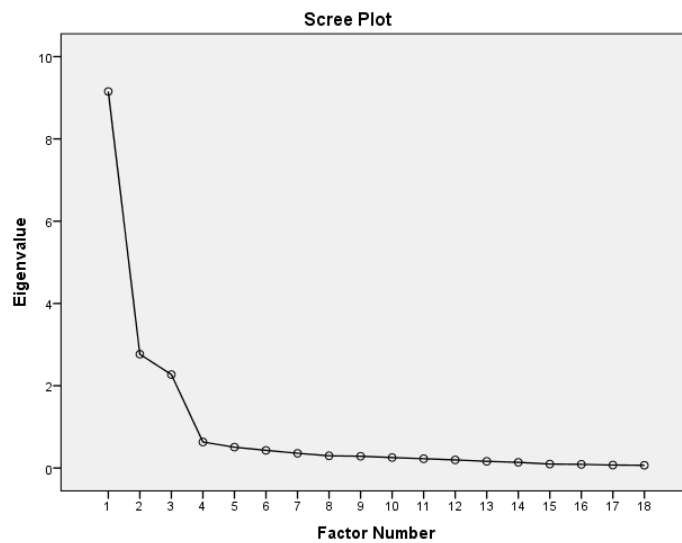
### 4.3.2 Validation of Heartland Forgiveness Scale

Employees’ tendency to forgive was measured by adapting an 18-items scale developed and validated by Thomson et al. (2005). The scale measures the tendency to forgive with respect to three dimensions. These dimensions are forgiveness of self (6 items), forgiveness of others (6 items) and forgiveness of situations (6 items). The details of the dimensions and the

corresponding items have been displayed in Table 4.5.

Suitability of the data for factor analysis was ensured with KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The results indicated sample adequacy with a significant value of KMO (.826) for forgiveness, which was greater than the recommended value of .60 given by Kaiser (1974). Also, the results for Bartlett's test of sphericity were satisfactory [ $\chi^2(153) = 7557.03$ ] with  $p < .01$ , fulfilling the criterion given by Kline (1986). This indicates sample adequacy and suitability of data for factor analysis.

**Figure 4.2: Scree Plot of Forgiveness Scale**



Also, the results of Eigen value revealed that the three factors of forgiveness, namely, FOS (Eigen value = 9.153 with 5.84% of variance explained), FOO (Eigen value = 2.766 with 15.36% of variance explained), and FOST (Eigen value = 2.27 with 12.62% of variance explained) were satisfactory. Figure 4.2 shows the scree plot of the same. Following the recommendation given by Gorsuch (1983), item loadings of .40 and above are considered significant. In the present study, the item loadings for FOS ranged from .785 to .878; for FOO, they ranged from .723 to .932; and for FOST, they ranged from .788 to .962. Thus, all items were significantly loaded on the respective dimensions (Table 4.5).



**Table 4.5: Results of EFA, Reliability and Validity Analysis for Forgiveness Scale (Thompson et al., 2005)**

Dimensions	Item Code	Item Description	Item Loading	Eigen Value/ variance	CA/CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
FOS	FOS1	Although I feel badly at first when I mess up at work, over time I can give myself some slack.	.878	9.15/5.84%	.935/.940	.722	.288	.269
	FOS2	I do not hold grudges against myself for negative things I've done at work.	.875					
	FOS3	Learning from bad things that I've done at work helps me get over them.	.852					
	FOS4	It is easy for me to accept myself once I've messed up at work.	.865					
	FOS5	With time, I am understanding of myself for mistakes I've made at work.	.839					
	FOS6	I stop criticizing myself for negative things I've felt, thought, said, or done at work.	.785					
FOO	FOO7	I forgive a colleague who has done something that I think is wrong.	.798	2.76/15.36%	.929/.934	.641	.288	.246
	FOO8	With time, I am understanding of others for the mistakes they've made at work.	.840					
	FOO9	I forgive my colleagues who have hurt me.	.879					
	FOO10	Although others (colleagues) have hurt me in the past, I have eventually been able to see them as good people.	.932					
	FOO11	If my colleagues mistreat me, I continue to think positively about them.	.850					
	FOO12	When my colleagues disappoint me, I can eventually move past it.	.723					
FOST	FOST13	When things go wrong at work for reasons that can't be controlled, I do not get stuck in negative thoughts about it.	.942	2.27/12.62%	.959/.967	.714	.251	.229
	FOST14	With time, I can develop understanding of bad circumstances at work.	.898					
	FOST15	If I am disappointed by uncontrollable circumstances at work, I do continue to think positively about them.	.945					
	FOST16	I eventually make peace with bad situations at work.	.962					
	FOST17	It is easy for me to accept negative situations at work for which no body is at fault.	.923					
	FOST18	Eventually, I let go of negative thoughts about bad circumstances that are beyond anyone's control at work.	.788					

**Notes:** FOS = Forgiveness of self; FOO = Forgiveness of others; FOST = Forgiveness of situations; SD = Standard deviation; CA = Cronbach's alpha; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; MSV = Maximum Shared Variance; ASV = Average Shared Variance; Items code represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire.

The internal consistency of the instrument was examined by Cronbach's alpha. The values of Cronbach's alpha for forgiveness factors were .935 for FOS (6 items); .929 for FOO (6 items); .959 for FOST (6 items); and .941 for complete forgiveness scale (18 items). All values of the Cronbach's alpha were above the threshold value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) and confirmed that forgiveness scale is a reliable instrument.

Further, following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), alternative models (one-factor, two-factor and three-factor) were created and compared for goodness of fit indices. It was found that second order three-factor model of forgiveness was better than the first order three-factor model fit with the data as all indices of goodness of fit were within the recommended ranges given by Hair et al. (2010) and was kept for further analysis. Table 4.6 presents the fitness indices of forgiveness construct.

**Table 4.6: Results of Three-factor Model Fit of Forgiveness**

Details	$\chi^2/df$	GFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor model <sup>a</sup>	<b>1.492</b>	<b>.875</b>	<b>.966</b>	<b>.938</b>	<b>.969</b>	<b>.029</b>
Three-factor model <sup>b</sup>	1.578	.867	.949	.912	.963	.049
Two-factor model	3.749	.621	.725	.723	.669	.311
One factor model	7.151	.567	.680	.609	.598	.812
<i>Recommended criteria</i>	<i>&lt; 3.00</i>	<i>≥ .80</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≤ .08</i>

**Notes:**  $\chi^2$  = chi-square; *df* = degree of freedom; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; values in bold presents the superior fit indices of the model

<sup>a</sup> Second order model of forgiveness with three dimensions self, others and situations <sup>b</sup> First order model with three dimensions self, others and situations

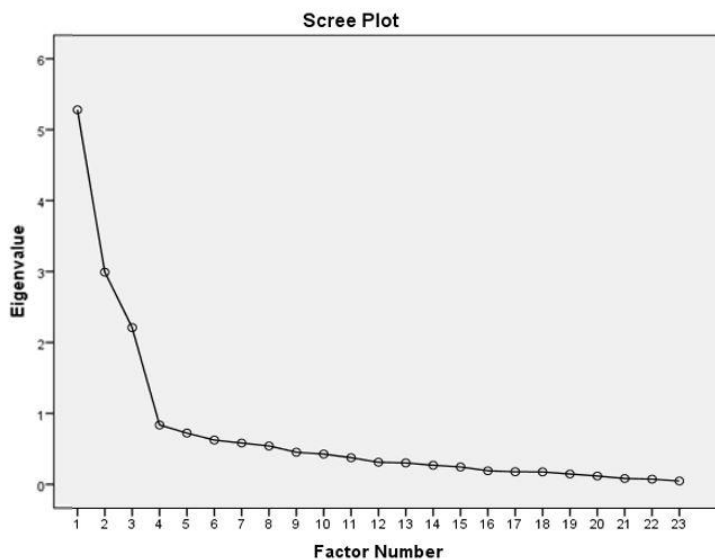
To examine the validity of the factors, two types of validity, convergent validity and divergent validity, were computed. Results reported in Table 4.5 show that the values of the indicators of convergent validity were satisfactory with composite reliability (CR; FOS = .940, FOO = .934, FOST = .967) and average variance extracted (AVE; FOS = .722, FOO = .705, FOST = .839). Both were greater than threshold values (CR > .70 and CR > AVE) recommended by Campbell and Fiske (1959) and Hair et al. (2010). Furthermore, the discriminant validity of factors (FOS = .849, FOO = .839, FOST = .911) were ensured with the values of maximum shared variance (MSV; FOS = .288, FOO = .288, FOST = .251), average variance extracted (AVE; FOS = .722, FOO = .705, FOST = .831) and average shared variance (ASV; FOS = .269, FOO = .246, FOST = .229) fulfilled the recommended criteria (MSV < AVE and ASV < AVE) given by Hair et al. (2010). It was found that the adapted version of the forgiveness scale with 18 items was a reliable and valid instrument in Indian organizational context.

### 4.3.3 Validation of Happiness Scale (PANAS)

Employees' perception of happiness has been measured in the present study by adapting 25 items scale suggested by Veenhoven (2017) and developed by Watson et al. (1988) and Diener et al. (1985). The scale measures the perceptions of happiness with respect to three dimensions. These dimensions are positive affect (PA; 10 items), negative affect (NA; 10 items) and satisfaction with life (SWL; 5 items). The details of dimensions and its corresponding items have been displayed in Table 4.7. The results indicated sample adequacy with a significant value of KMO (.843) for happiness, which is greater than recommended value of .60 given by Kaiser (1974).

Also, the results for Bartlett's test of sphericity were satisfactory [ $\chi^2 (300) = 6532.702$ ], with  $p < .01$  fulfilling the criterion given by Kline (1986). This indicated the sample adequacy and suitability of data for factor analysis. Also, the results of Eigen value revealed that three factors of happiness, namely, PA (Eigen value = 5.352 with 29.91% of variance explained), NA (Eigen value = 3.00 with 18.17% of variance explained), and SWL (Eigen value = 2.070 with 15.23% of variance explained) were satisfactory. Figure 4.3 shows the scree plot for the same.

**Figure 4.3: Scree Plot of Happiness Scale**



Following the recommendation given by Gorsuch (1983), item loadings of .40 and above are considered significant. In the present study, the item loadings of PA ranged from .741 to .952 and for SWL, they ranged from .855 to .93. However, for NA, two items (NA13 and NA20) had loading less than .40, and were dropped from further analysis while all other items were significantly loaded on the respective dimensions (Table 4.7).

The internal consistency of the instrument was examined by Cronbach's alpha. The values of Cronbach's alpha for forgiveness factors were .932 for PA (10 items), .866 for NA (8 items),

.951 for SWL (5 items) and .905 for the happiness scale (23 items). All values of Cronbach's alpha were above the threshold value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) and confirmed that happiness scale is a reliable instrument. Further, following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), alternative models (one-factor, two-factor and three-factor) were created and compared for goodness of fit indices. It was found that second order three-factor model of happiness was better than the first order three-factor model fit with the data as all indices of goodness of fit were within the recommended ranges given by Hair et al. (2010) and was kept for further analysis. Table 4.8 presents the fitness indices of happiness construct.

To examine the validity of the factors, two types of validity, convergent validity and divergent validity, were computed. Results reported in Table 4.7 show that the values of indicators of convergent validity were satisfactory with composite reliability (CR; PA = .961, NA = .923, SWL = .951) and average variance extracted (AVE; PA = .755, NA = .609, SWL = .797). Both were greater than the threshold values (CR > .70 and CR > AVE) recommended by Campbell and Fiske (1959) and Hair et al. (2010).

Furthermore, the discriminant validity of factors (PA = .868, NA = .780, SWL = .892) were ensured with the values of maximum shared variance (MSV; PA = .311, NA = .185, SWL = .185), average variance extracted (AVE; PA = .755, NA = .609, SWL = .797) and average shared variance (ASV; PA = .244, NA = .162, SWL = .218) fulfilled the recommended criteria (MSV < AVE and ASV < AVE) given by Hair et al. (2010). Hence, it was found that the adapted version of the happiness scale with 23 items was a reliable and valid instrument in Indian organizational context.

**Table 4.7: Results of EFA, Reliability and Validity Analysis for Happiness Scale (Watson et al., 1988; Diener et al., 1985)**

Dimensions	Item Code	Item Description	Item Loading	Eigen Value/ variance	CA/CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Positive Affect	PA1	I feel interested at work.	.801	5.35/29.91%	.961/.968	.755	.311	.244
	PA3	I feel excited at work.	.854					
	PA5	I feel strong at work.	.900					
	PA9	I feel enthusiastic at work.	.944					
	PA10	I feel proud at work.	.872					
	PA12	I feel alert at work.	.929					
	PA14	I feel inspired at work.	.836					
	PA16	I feel determined at work.	.835					
	PA17	I feel attentive at work.	.952					
	PA19	I feel active at work.	.741					
Negative Affect	NA2	I feel distressed at work.	.842	3.00/3/18.17%	923/.925	.609	.185	.162
	NA4	I feel upset at work.	.731					
	NA6	I feel guilty at work.	.834					
	NA7	I feel scared at work.	.717					
	NA8	I feel hostile at work.	.723					
	NA11	I feel irritable at work.	.845					
	NA13	I feel ashamed at work.	<b>.356</b>					
	NA15	I feel afraid at work.	.779					
	NA18	I feel jittery at work.	.757					
	NA20	I feel nervous at work.	<b>.243</b>					

(cntd): Results of Reliability and Validity Analysis for Happiness Scale (Watson et al., 1988; Diener et al., 1985)

Dimensions	Item Code	Item Description	Item Loading	Eigen Value/ variance	CA/CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
SWL	SWL21	In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.	.916	2.070/15.23%	.948/.951	.797	.185	.218
	SWL22	The conditions of my life are excellent.	.900					
	SWL23	I am completely satisfied with my life.	.855					
	SWL24	So far, I have gotten the most important things I want in life.	.860					
	SWL25	If I could live my life over, I would change nothing.	.930					

**Notes:** PA = Positive Affect; NA = Negative Affect; SWL = Satisfaction with Life; SD = Standard deviation; CA = Cronbach's alpha; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; MSV = Maximum Shared Variance; ASV = Average Shared Variance; Items code represent the order in which items were placed in the questionnaire; Italicised and bold value of items of NA were below .40 and excluded for further analysis.

**Table 4.8: Results of Three-factor Model Fit of Happiness**

Details	$\chi^2/df$	GFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor model <sup>a</sup>	<b>1.897</b>	<b>.835</b>	<b>.937</b>	<b>.933</b>	<b>.939</b>	<b>.038</b>
Three-factor model <sup>b</sup>	2.108	.815	.909	.902	.909	.043
Two-factor model	5.192	.608	.754	.749	.786	.411
One-factor model	8.23	.875	.699	.590	.595	.912
<i>Recommended criteria</i>	<i>&lt; 3.00</i>	<i>≥ .80</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≤ .08</i>

**Notes:**  $\chi^2$  = chi-square; *df* = degree of freedom; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; values in bold presents the superior fit indices of the model

<sup>a</sup> Second order model of happiness with three dimensions positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life

<sup>b</sup> First order model with three dimensions positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life

#### 4.4 POOLED CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (MEASUREMENT MODEL)

This section of the chapter deals with the pooled/combined confirmatory factor analysis of the first- and second order measurement model of variables (organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness) under study. The results of goodness of fit indices are presented in Table 4.9, which indicated that though both models, namely, first order model with nine sub-constructs (dimensions) and second order model with three main constructs (organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness) met the recommend criteria of fit indices. However, the second order model reported slightly better fit indices. Also, we compared the change in  $\chi^2$  between both models and the results revealed a significant delta  $\chi^2$  ( $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.119$  with  $p < .05$ ).

**Table 4.9: Results of Goodness of Fit Indices (pooled CFA)**

Details	$\chi^2/df$	$\Delta\chi^2$	GFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Second order model <sup>a</sup>	2.515	1.119*	.875	.966	.938	.969	.035
First order model <sup>b</sup>	2.589	—	.867	.949	.912	.963	.049
<i>Recommended criteria</i>	<i>&lt; 3.00</i>		<i>≥ .80</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≥ .90</i>	<i>≤ .08</i>

**Notes:**  $\chi^2$  = chi-square;  $df$  = degree of freedom; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; values in bold presents the superior fit indices of the model

<sup>a</sup> Second order model of organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness (with dimensions)

<sup>b</sup> First order model with nine dimensions (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust, forgiveness of self, others and situations and positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life)

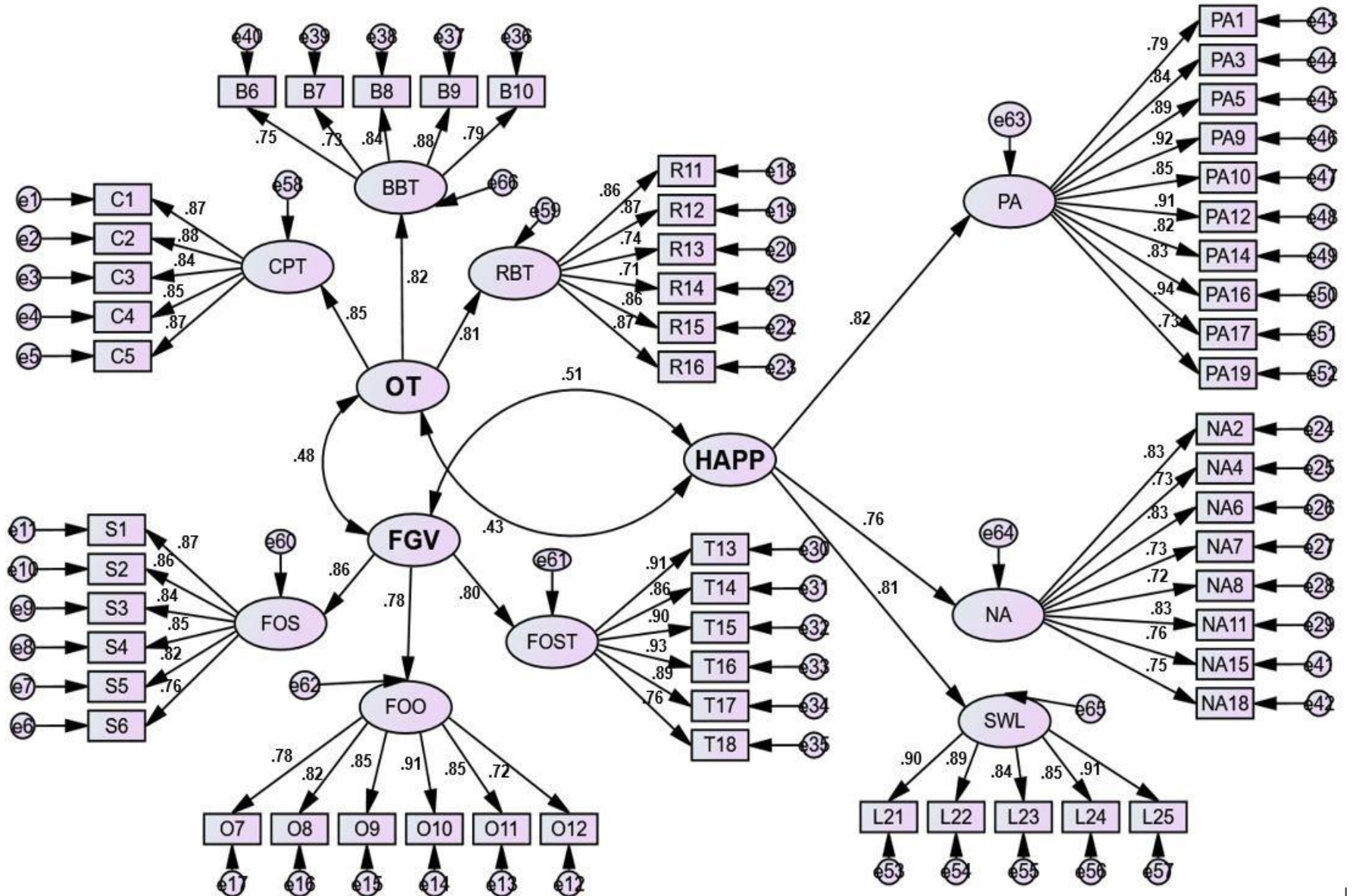
**Table 4.10: Results of Reliability and Validity Statistics of the Measurement Model**

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	OT	FGV	HAPP
<b>OT</b>	.866	.684	.230	.207	<b>.827</b>		
<b>FGV</b>	.855	.663	.260	.245	.481**	<b>.814</b>	
<b>HAPP</b>	.839	.635	.260	.221	.431**	.510**	<b>.796</b>

**Notes:** OT = organizational trust; FGV = forgiveness, CR = Composite Reliability, AVE = Average Variance Extracted, MSV = Maximum Shared Variance, ASV = Average Shared Variance; values in bold presents discriminant validity; \*\*correlation is significant at the .01 level.

Results reported in Table 4.10 show that the values of indicators of convergent validity, namely, composite reliability (CR; OT = .866, FGV = .855, HAPP = .839) and average variance extracted (AVE; OT = .684, FGV = .663, HAPP = .635) were greater than threshold values (CR > .70 and CR > AVE) recommended by Campbell and Fiske (1959) and Hair et al. (2010). The discriminant validity of factors (OT = .827, FGV = .814, HAPP = .796) were ensured with the values of maximum shared variance (MSV; OT = .230, FGV = .260, HAPP = .260), average variance extracted (AVE; OT = .684, FGV = .663, HAPP = .635) and average shared variance (ASV; OT = .207, FGV = .245, HAPP = .221), which fulfilled the recommended criteria (MSV < AVE and ASV < AVE) given by Hair et al. (2010). Figure 4.4 presents the results of measurement model.

Figure 4.4: Results of Pooled CFA (measurement model)





#### 4.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES

This section discusses the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and inter-correlations between variables and their dimensions. The present study considered two independent variables, namely, organizational trust, with three dimensions (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust), and forgiveness, with three dimensions (forgiveness of self, others, situations) and one dependent variable happiness, with three dimensions (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life). The results of mean, standard deviation and correlations between the dimensions are presented in Table 4.12.

The results revealed that the mean for reliability-based trust ( $M = 4.86$ ,  $SD = 1.40$ ) among all dimensions of organizational trust is the highest, followed by competence-based trust ( $M = 4.84$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) and benevolence-based trust ( $M = 4.74$ ,  $SD = 1.56$ ). Further the results of correlation matrix revealed that the dimensions of organizational trust are associated with each other, with significant correlation observed between reliability- and benevolence-based trust ( $r = .431$ ,  $p < .01$ ), between reliability- and competence-based trust ( $r = .439$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and between benevolence- and competence-based trust ( $r = .424$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Also, the mean for forgiveness of self ( $M = 4.85$ ,  $SD = 1.45$ ) among all dimensions of forgiveness was the highest, followed by forgiveness of others ( $M = 4.79$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ), and forgiveness of situations ( $M = 4.43$ ,  $SD = 1.56$ ). The results of correlation matrix revealed that the dimensions of forgiveness are associated with each other, with significant correlation observed between forgiveness of self and others ( $r = .537$ ,  $p < .01$ ), between forgiveness of self and situations ( $r = .501$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and between forgiveness of others and situations ( $r = .456$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

The mean for satisfaction with life ( $M = 4.82$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ) among all dimensions of happiness was the highest, followed by positive affect ( $M = 4.77$ ,  $SD = 1.24$ ) and negative affect ( $M = 3.49$ ,  $SD = 1.37$ ). The results of correlation matrix revealed that the dimensions of happiness are associated with each other with significant negative correlation observed between positive affect and negative affect ( $r = -.430$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and between satisfaction with life and negative affect ( $r = .375$ ,  $p < .01$ ) while positive affect and satisfaction with life are positively related ( $r = .558$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Negative affect was found to be negatively correlated with all dimensions while others were positively correlated.

**Table 4.11: Mean, SD and Inter-correlations between Dimensions of Variables**

Variables	Mean	SD	CBT	BNV	RLB	FOS	FOO	FOST	PA	NA	SWL
<b>CBT</b>	4.84	1.05	<b>(.939)</b>								
<b>BBT</b>	5.02	1.56	.424*	<b>(.875)</b>							
<b>RBT</b>	4.96	1.40	.439*	.431**	<b>(.924)</b>						
<b>FOS</b>	5.05	1.45	.455*	.410**	.331**	<b>(.935)</b>					
<b>FOO</b>	4.85	1.07	.568***	.361**	.385**	.537**	<b>(.929)</b>				
<b>FOST</b>	4.67	1.56	.351***	.237**	.298**	.501*	.456**	<b>(.959)</b>			
<b>PA</b>	5.12	1.24	.429*	.438*	.354**	.338**	.431**	.331**	<b>(.961)</b>		
<b>NA</b>	3.49	1.37	-.239**	-.431**	-.311*	-.481**	-.398**	-.561*	-.430**	<b>(.923)</b>	
<b>SWL</b>	4.96	1.23	.425*	.462**	.415**	.375*	.489**	.431**	.558*	-.375**	<b>(.948)</b>

**Notes:** SD = Standard Deviation; CBT = Competence-based trust; BBT = Benevolence-based trust; RBT = Reliability-based trust; FOS = Forgiveness of self; FOO = Forgiveness of others; FOST = Forgiveness of situations; PA = Positive Affect; NA = Negative Affect; SWL = Satisfaction with life; the reliability coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) are displayed in parentheses and appears in bold on the diagonal of correlation matrix; significance at \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$  and \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

**Table 4.12: Mean, SD and Inter-correlations between the Variables**

Variables	Mean	SD	OT	FGV	HAPNS
<b>OT</b>	4.93	1.34	<b>(.912)</b>		
<b>FGV</b>	4.89	1.36	.481**	<b>(.941)</b>	
<b>HAPNS</b>	3.82	1.29	.431**	.510**	<b>(.944)</b>

**Notes:** SD = Standard Deviation; OT = Organizational Trust; FGV = Forgiveness; HAPNS = Happiness; the reliability coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) are displayed in parentheses and appears in bold on the diagonal of correlation matrix; significance at \*\* $p < .01$ .

Additionally, descriptive statistics were also computed at the aggregate level for organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness. The mean and standard deviation of variables are displayed in Table 4.12 [organizational trust ( $M = 4.82$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ); forgiveness ( $M = 4.82$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ); happiness ( $M = 3.82$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ )]. Following the recommendation given by Koydemir and Schütz (2012), to obtain the total score of happiness, the score of negative affect was subtracted from the score of positive affect to derive net affect score which was further added in the score of satisfaction with life. The correlation matrix indicated that there is a significant positive correlation between organizational trust and forgiveness ( $r = .481$ ,  $p < .01$ ), between organizational trust and happiness ( $r = .431$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and between forgiveness and happiness ( $r = .510$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The internal consistency of the instruments was examined by Cronbach's alpha. The values of Cronbach's alpha of variables and its dimensions were above the threshold value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). The reliability coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) are displayed in parentheses and appear in bold italic on the diagonal of the correlation matrix.

#### **4.6 INVESTIGATION RELATED TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This section describes the testing of hypotheses, which were developed to achieve the objectives of the study. The hypotheses are divided into categories (i.e., 1a, 1b, 1c, etc.). As per the eight research objectives (ROs), the respective hypotheses are developed accordingly. Each of the hypotheses was examined using the most appropriate statistical technique, which was finalised considering the nature of the research problem. The interpretations have been elaborated to address various research objectives.

##### **4.6.1 Testing Hypotheses Developed to Address RO1**

###### **4.6.1.1 Testing Hypothesis 1(a)**

Hypothesis 1(a) asserts that employees' propensity for organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) will differ according to gender. In order to test the same, independent sample  $t$ -test was conducted to evaluate the significance of the equality of means. The results presented in Table 4.13 shows that there are non-significant differences in the mean scores of male and female participants for competence-based trust [ $t(430) = 1.344$ ,  $p > .05$ ]. However, significant differences in the mean score were found for benevolence-based trust [ $t(430) = 2.090$ ,  $p < .05$ ] with female participants having higher mean score than male ones whereas the male participants scored higher on reliability-based trust [ $t(430) = -2.107$ ,  $p < .05$ ] than female ones. Therefore, the results partially support hypothesis 1(a).

**Table 4.13: Results of Independent Sample *t*-test for Organizational Trust dimensions (gender-wise)**

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	Diff.	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
CBT	Male	304	4.89	-.140	.98	-1.344	430	.179 <sup>n.s</sup>
	Female	128	4.75		1.01			
BBT	Male	304	4.68	.310	1.39	2.090	430	.037*
	Female	128	4.96		1.45			
RBT	Male	304	4.83	-.230	1.03	-2.107	430	.035*
	Female	128	4.60		1.05			

**Notes:** N = 432; CBT = Competence-based trust; BBT = Benevolence-based trust; RBT = Reliability-based trust; Diff. = Mean difference; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; \**p* < .05; *n.s.* = non-significant.

#### 4.6.1.2 Testing Hypothesis 1(b)

Hypothesis 1(b) asserts that the dimensions of organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based) vary with the age of the employees (young-, middle- and old age). In order to test this, one-way ANOVA was conducted. The fundamental assumption of the ANOVA test was also met by performing Levene's test of homogeneity (*p* > .05), which ensured equality of variances assumed in organizational trust dimensions across different age groups. Table 4.14 presents the results of hypothesis 1(b), which indicated that there were significant age-based differences in variation in competence [F (2, 429) = 17.295, *p* < .01], benevolence [F (2, 429) = 11.564, *p* < .001] and reliability [F (2, 429) = 13.83, *p* = .000] dimensions of organizational trust. Since, ANOVA does not mention among which groups the difference exists, post-hoc analysis using Tukey HSD test was conducted.

**Table 4.14: Results of One-way ANOVA for Organizational Trust dimensions (age)**

Dimensions	Age	N	Mean	SD	F-value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
CBT	Young	169	5.01	.94	17.295	(2, 429)	.000**
	Middle	142	4.69	.89			
	Old	121	4.38	.87			
BBT	Young	169	4.99	1.09	11.564	(2, 429)	.000**
	Middle	142	4.70	1.01			
	Old	121	4.40	.98			
RBT	Young	169	4.35	1.11	13.83	(2, 429)	.000**
	Middle	142	4.71	1.25			
	Old	121	5.05	.98			

**Notes:** N = 432; CBT = Competence-based trust; BBT = Benevolence-based trust; RBT = Reliability-based trust; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; \*\**p* < .001.

The results of Tukey HSD post-hoc test showed that competence-based trust declines with age and there are significant age-based differences among the groups (young vs. middle-aged: Diff = -.320, 95% CI = -.562 to -.077, *p* = .005; young vs. old age: Diff = -.630, 95% CI = -.883

to  $-.376, p = .000$ ; middle vs. old age: Diff =  $-.310$ , 95% CI =  $-.573$  to  $-.046, p = .016$ ). Similar results were found for benevolence-based trust, which revealed that the perception of benevolence significantly declines with age (young vs. middle-aged: Diff =  $-.290$ , 95% CI =  $-.566$  to  $-.013, p = .037$ ; young vs. old age: Diff =  $-.590$ , 95% CI =  $-.879$  to  $-.300, p = .000$ ; middle vs. old age: Diff =  $-.300$ , 95% CI =  $-.600$  to  $.0008, p = .050$ ).

However, the results revealed that age-based differences in the reliability dimension of organizational trust were significant (Diff =  $.360$ , 95% CI =  $.059$  to  $.661, p = .014$ ) between young ( $M = 4.35, SD = 1.11$ ) and middle-aged employees ( $M = 4.71, SD = 1.25$ ). Also, the results indicated that young ( $M = 4.35, SD = 1.11$ ) and old aged ( $M = 5.05, SD = .98$ ) employees significantly differ in age (Diff =  $.700$ , 95% CI =  $.385$  to  $1.014, p = .000$ ). Additionally, the results of pairwise comparison for middle vs. old age was significant (Diff =  $.340$ , 95% CI =  $.012$  to  $.667, p = .039$ ). The results support hypothesis 1b. These findings suggest that reliability-based trust increases with age.

#### 4.6.1.3 Testing Hypothesis 1(c)

Hypothesis 1(c) asserts that employees' propensity for organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) will differ according to the type of organization they work in. In order to test the same, independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the significance of equality of means. The results presented in Table 4.15 show that there are non-significant differences in the mean score of public and private sector employees for competence-based trust [ $t(430) = .43, p > .05$ ].

**Table 4.15: Results of Independent Sample *t*-test for Organizational Trust dimensions (organizational type-wise)**

Dimensions	Org. Type	N	Mean	Diff.	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
CBT	Public	296	4.81	.040	.89	.43	430	.672
	Private	136	4.85		.96			
BBT	Public	296	4.93	-.330	1.20	-2.75	430	.006**
	Private	136	4.60		1.05			
RBT	Public	296	4.92	-.240	1.12	-2.02	430	.0432*
	Private	136	4.70		1.19			

**Notes:** N = 432; CBT = Competence-based trust; BBT = Benevolence-based trust; RBT = Reliability-based trust; Org. Type = Organization Type; Diff. = Mean difference; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .

However, significant differences in mean score were found for benevolence-based dimensions of organizational trust [ $t(430) = -2.75, p < .01$ ], and reliability [ $t(430) = -2.02, p < .05$ ] with public sector employees having higher mean score compared to the employees working in private sector organizations. Therefore, the results partially support hypothesis 1(c).

## 4.6.2 Testing the Hypotheses Developed to Address RO2

### 4.6.2.1 Testing Hypothesis 2(a)

Hypothesis 2(a) asserts that employees' tendency to forgive (self, others and situations) will differ according to gender. In order to test the same, independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the significance of equality of means. The results are presented in Table 4.16, which show that there are significant differences in the mean score of male and female participants for forgiveness of self [ $t(430) = 2.02, p < .05$ ] with male having high level of self-forgiveness.

Also, the significant difference in mean score was found for forgiveness of others [ $t(430) = 2.325, p < .05$ ] and forgiveness of situations [ $t(430) = 2.318, p < .05$ ]. The results suggest that females tend to forgive others and situations more in comparison to males who tend to forgive self more than females. Therefore, these results support hypothesis 2(a).

**Table 4.16: Results of Independent Sample *t*-test for Forgiveness dimensions (gender-wise)**

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	Diff.	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
FOS	Male	304	4.88	.190	.85	2.020	430	.044*
	Female	128	4.68		.91			
FOO	Male	304	4.60	.260	1.09	2.325	430	.020*
	Female	128	4.86		.99			
FOST	Male	304	4.53	.220	.83	2.318	430	.021
	Female	128	4.75		1.05			

**Notes:** N = 432; Diff. = Mean difference; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; FOS = Forgiveness of self; FOO = Forgiveness of Others; FOST = Forgiveness of situations; \* $p < .05$ .

### 4.6.2.2 Testing Hypothesis 2(b)

Hypothesis 2(b) asserts that the dimensions of forgiveness (self, others and situations) vary with the age of employees (young, middle and old age). In order to test this, one-way ANOVA was conducted. The fundamental assumption of the ANOVA test was also met by performing Levene's test of homogeneity ( $p > .05$ ), which ensured the equality of variances assumed in forgiveness dimensions across different age groups. Table 4.17 present the results, which indicated that there are age-based differences in forgiveness of self [ $F(2, 429) = 11.475, p = .000$ ], forgiveness of others [ $F(2, 429) = 3.684, p = .025, p < .05$ ] and forgiveness of situations [ $F(2, 429) = 12.073, p = .001$ ].

The results of post-hoc test indicated that forgiveness of self between young ( $M = 4.46, SD = 1.01$ ) and old aged ( $M = 5.03, SD = 1.02$ ) employees significantly differ (Diff =  $-.570, 95\% CI = -.851$  to  $-.289, p = .000$ ). Also, the results of pairwise comparison of young vs. middle was significant (Diff =  $-.300, 95\% CI = -.571$  to  $-.028, p < .05$ ), However, there was non-significant

difference in middle-aged vs. old employees (Diff =  $-.270$ , 95% CI =  $-.557$  to  $.017$ ,  $p = .070$ ). Further, the results indicated that tendency to forgiveness of others significantly differ between young (M = 4.41, SD = 1.03) and old aged (M = 4.99, SD = .98) employees (Diff =  $.580$ , 95% CI =  $.297$  to  $.862$ ,  $p = .000$ ). Also, the results of pairwise comparison of young vs. middle (Diff =  $.280$ , 95% CI =  $.010$  to  $.549$ ,  $p < .05$ ) as well as middle-aged vs. old employees (Diff =  $.300$ , 95% CI =  $.006$  to  $.593$ ,  $p < .05$ ) was found significant ( $p < .05$ ).

Further, the results revealed that forgiveness of situations between young (M = 4.42, SD = 1.04) and old age (M = 5.01, SD = 1.00) employees significantly differ (Diff =  $.590$ , 95% CI =  $.307$  to  $.872$ ,  $p = .000$ ). Also, the results of pairwise comparison of young vs. middle-aged employees was significant (Diff =  $.280$ , 95% CI =  $.006$  to  $.553$ ,  $p < .05$ ) along with middle-aged vs. old employees (Diff =  $.310$ , 95% CI =  $.021$  to  $.598$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Hence, the variation in self-forgiveness decreases with age while forgiveness of others and situations increases with age. However, the results provided support for this hypothesis.

**Table 4.17: Results of One-way ANOVA for Forgiveness dimensions (age)**

Dimensions	Age	N	Mean	SD	F-value	df	Sig. (p)
FOS	Young	169	5.03	1.01	11.475	(2, 429)	.000*
	Middle	142	4.73	.99			
	Old	121	4.46	1.02			
FOO	Young	169	4.41	1.03	11.736	(2, 429)	.000*
	Middle	142	4.69	.98			
	Old	121	4.99	1.01			
FOST	Young	169	4.42	1.04	12.073	(2, 429)	.001**
	Middle	142	4.70	.99			
	Old	121	5.01	1.00			

**Notes:** N = 432; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; FOS = Forgiveness of self; FOO = Forgiveness of Others; FOST = Forgiveness of situations; \* $p < .001$ .

#### 4.6.2.3 Testing Hypothesis 2(c)

Hypothesis 2(c) asserts that employees' tendency to forgive (self, others and situations) will differ according to the type of the organization they work in. In order to test the same, independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the significance of equality of means. The results are presented in Table 4.18.

Results highlighted that there are significant differences in the mean score of public and private sector employees for forgiveness of self [ $t(430) = -2.101$ ,  $p < .05$ ] and forgiveness of others [ $t(430) = -.220$ ,  $p < .05$ ]. However, non-significant differences were found for forgiveness of situations [ $t(430) = .558$ ,  $p > .05$ ]. These results suggest that tendency to forgive self and others are higher in employees working in public sector compared to employees working in private

sector organizations. Therefore, results partially supported hypothesis 2(c).

**Table 4.18: Results of Independent Sample *t*-test for Forgiveness dimensions (organizational type-wise)**

Dimensions	Org. Type	N	Mean	Diff.	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
FOS	Public	296	4.93	-.230	1.09	-2.101	430	.036*
	Private	136	4.70		.98			
FOO	Public	296	4.83	-.220	1.05	-2.095	430	.037*
	Private	136	4.61		.93			
FOST	Public	296	4.54	.060	1.08	.558	430	.577
	Private	136	4.60		.94			

**Notes:** N = 432; Org. Type = Organization Type; Diff. = Mean difference; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; FOS = Forgiveness of self; FOO = Forgiveness of Others; FOST = Forgiveness of situations; \**p* < .05.

### 4.6.3 Testing Hypotheses Developed to Address RO3

#### 4.6.3.1 Testing Hypothesis 3(a)

The hypothesis 3(a) asserts that perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) will differ according to gender. In order to test the same, independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate significance of equality of means.

**Table 4.19: Results of Independent Sample *t*-test for Happiness dimensions (gender-wise)**

Dimensions	Gender	N	Mean	Diff.	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
PA	Male	304	4.78	.270	1.24	2.106	430	.035*
	Female	128	5.05		1.16			
NA	Male	304	4.63	-.660	1.19	-5.368	430	.000**
	Female	128	3.97		1.11			
SWL	Male	304	4.98	-.260	1.11	-2.247	430	.025*
	Female	128	4.72		1.07			

**Notes:** N = 432; Diff. = Mean difference; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative Affect; SWL = Satisfaction with life; \**p* < .05; \*\**p* < .001.

The results are presented in Table 4.19, which indicate that there are significant differences in the mean score of males and females for positive affect [ $t(430) = 2.106, p < .05$ ] with females scoring high. Though the results for negative affect was also significant [ $t(430) = -5.368, p < .001$ ], males scored high on this dimension of happiness. A similar evidence was found for satisfaction with life with significant differences in the mean score [ $t(430) = -2.247, p < .05$ ]. Males scored high on this dimension of happiness than females. Therefore, the results support hypothesis 3(a).



#### 4.6.3.2 Testing Hypothesis 3(b)

Hypothesis 3(b) asserts that the dimensions of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) vary with the age of the employees (young, middle and old age). In order to test this, one-way ANOVA was conducted. The fundamental assumption of the ANOVA test was also met by performing Levene's test of homogeneity ( $p > .05$ ), which ensured the equality of variances assumed in happiness dimensions across different age groups. Table 4.20 presents the results, which indicated that there are significant age-based differences in the perceptions of positive affect [ $F(2, 429) = 11.165, p = .000$ ], negative affect [ $F(2, 429) = 12.630, p < .05$ ] and satisfaction with life [ $F(2, 429) = 12.496, p < .05$ ]. Since, ANOVA does not mention among which groups the difference exists, post-hoc analysis using Tukey HSD test was conducted.

The results of post-hoc test revealed that positive affect between young and old aged employees significantly differ (Diff = .580, 95% CI = .290 to .869,  $p = .000$ ). Also, the results of pairwise comparison of young vs. middle was significant (Diff = .280, 95% CI = .003 to .556,  $p < .05$ ) as was middle-aged vs. old employees (Diff = .300, 95% CI = -.0007 to .600,  $p < .05$ ). These results suggest that the amount of variation in positive affect increases with age.

**Table 4.20: Results of One-way ANOVA for Happiness dimensions (age)**

Dimensions	Age	N	Mean	SD	F-value	df	Sig. (p)
PA	Young	169	4.51	1.10	11.165	(2, 429)	.000**
	Middle	142	4.79	.97			
	Old	121	5.09	1.01			
NA	Young	169	4.98	1.03	12.630	(2, 429)	.020*
	Middle	142	4.69	.98			
	Old	121	4.38	1.01			
SWL	Young	169	4.37	1.05	12.496	(2, 429)	.031*
	Middle	142	4.66	1.03			
	Old	121	4.98	.99			

**Notes:** N = 432; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative Affect; SWL = Satisfaction with life; \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .

Further, the results indicated that negative affect between young and old aged employees significantly differ (Diff = -.600, 95% CI = -.881 to -.318,  $p = .000$ ). Also, the results of pairwise comparison of young vs. middle was significant (Diff = -.290, 95% CI = -.559 to -.020,  $p < .05$ ) as was middle-aged vs. old employees (Diff. = -.310, 95% CI = -.602 to -.017,  $p < .05$ ). Hence, the variation in negative affect decreases with age. Satisfaction with life between young and old aged employees significantly differ (Diff = .610, 95% CI = .322 to .897,  $p = .000$ ). Also, the results of pairwise comparison of young vs. middle was significant (Diff = .290, 95% CI = .015 to .564,  $p < .05$ ) as was middle-aged vs. old employees (Diff = .320, 95% CI = .021 to .618,  $p < .05$ ). Hence, the variation in satisfaction with life increases with age. Therefore, these

results support hypothesis 3(b).

#### 4.6.3.3 Testing Hypothesis 3(c)

Hypothesis 3(c) asserts that employees' perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) will differ according to the type of organization they work in. In order to test the same, independent sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate significance of equality of means. The results are presented in Table 4.21. The results shows that there are significant differences in the mean score of public and private sector employees for positive affect [ $t(430) = -3.197, p < .01$ ].

Also, significant differences in mean score were found for negative affect [ $t(430) = 2.030, p < .05$ ], and satisfaction with life [ $t(430) = -2.161, p < .05$ ] dimensions of happiness. Public sector employees have higher mean score compared to employees working in private sector organizations with respect to positive affect and satisfaction with life while private sector employees scored high on negative affect. Therefore, results support hypothesis 3(c).

**Table 4.21: Results of Independent Sample *t*-test for Happiness dimensions (organizational type-wise)**

Dimensions	Org. Type	N	Mean	Diff.	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	Sig. ( <i>p</i> )
PA	Public	296	5.01	-.330	.99	-3.197	430	.001**
	Private	136	4.68		1.01			
NA	Public	296	4.61	.230	1.10	2.030	430	.043*
	Private	136	4.84		1.08			
SWL	Public	296	4.84	.260	1.18	-2.161	430	.031**
	Private	136	4.58		1.12			

**Notes:** N = 432; Org. Type = Organization Type; Diff. = Mean difference; SD = Standard deviation; *df* = degree of freedom; PA = Positive affect; NA = Negative Affect; SWL = Satisfaction with life; \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ .

#### 4.6.4 Testing Hypotheses Developed to Address RO4

Hypotheses 4(a), 4(b) and 4(c) were to test that organizational trust dimensions (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) are positively related with happiness dimensions (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life). Although correlation analysis shown in Tables 4.11 and 4.12 depict significant linkages between the dimensions of organizational trust and happiness dimensions, since correlation analysis only helps in knowing the strength and direction of the relationships between two variables, predicting effects of variables were further examined by performing multiple regression analysis. Specifically to perform regression analysis, we used hierarchical multiple regression method as it best allows for testing the effects of predictor variables on the outcome variables after controlling for the effects of covariates.

The study thus followed the stepwise procedure of multiple hierarchical regression analysis. In the first step, control variables (age, gender and organizational type) were entered in block 1. The second and final step was completed with the entry of the organizational trust dimensions (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) in block 2. These steps were repeated thrice for the dependent variables of the study, namely, positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life.

The results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis regarding the impact of organizational trust dimensions on happiness dimensions are presented in Table 4.22. It can be seen that all three dimensions of organizational trust together account for 1.1% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 424) = 2.864$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .009$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .081$ ,  $p < .05$ ) in positive affect at work. Particularly, among the organizational trust dimensions, benevolence-based trust ( $\beta = .144$ ,  $t = 2.603$ ,  $p < .01$ ) was found as the strongest predictor of positive affect at work. Also, reliability-based trust ( $\beta = .109$ ,  $t = 2.180$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly predicted positive affect. Competence-based trust ( $\beta = .076$ ,  $t = 1.913$ ,  $p = .056$ ,  $p < .05$ ) was found to be a significant predictor of positive affect at work.

Further results revealed that all three dimensions of organizational trust together account for 12.5% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 424) = 32.011$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .121$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .105$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in negative affect at work. Among the organizational trust dimensions, reliability-based trust ( $\beta = -.159$ ,  $t = 2.657$ ,  $p < .01$ ) was found as the strongest predictor of negative affect at work. Also, benevolence-based trust ( $\beta = -.111$ ,  $t = 2.212$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly predicted negative affect. Interestingly, competence-based trust ( $\beta = -.106$ ,  $t = 2.160$ ,  $p < .05$ ) was also found to be a significant predictor of negative affect at work. These results suggest that dimensions of organizational trust negatively influence negative affect at work and provide partial support for hypothesis 4(b).

Surprisingly, it was found that all three dimensions of organizational trust together account for only 5.80% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 424) = 17.453$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .055$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .037$ ,  $p < .05$ ) in satisfaction with life. Further elaboration of the results revealed that benevolence-based trust ( $\beta = .126$ ,  $t = 2.352$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and reliability-based trust ( $\beta = .143$ ,  $t = 2.593$ ,  $p < .01$ ) were the significant predictors of satisfaction with life. However, competence-based trust ( $\beta = .063$ ,  $t = 1.892$ ,  $p < .05$ ) was also a significant predictor of satisfaction with life.

The sign of the standardized regression weights was in the predicted direction, thus, competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust are positively associated with positive affect and satisfaction with life whereas negatively with negative affect. These results provide partial support for hypothesis 4(a), 4(b) and 4(c).

**Table 4.22: Results of multiple hierarchical regression for testing the impact of Organizational Trust dimensions on Positive affect, Negative affect and Satisfaction with life.**

	Predictors	Positive Affect (DV)		Negative Affect (DV)		Satisfaction with Life (DV)	
		$\beta$		$\beta$		$\beta$	
		Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1:	<i>Control Variables</i>						
	Age	.094	.007	.082	.016	.078	.021
	Gender	.069	.009	.025	.004	.047	.002
	Organization Type	.071	.015	.079	.022	.048	.013
Step 2:	<i>Predictors (IV)</i>						
	CBT		.076*		-.106*		.063*
	BBT		.144**		-.111*		.126*
	RBT		.109*		-.159**		.143**
	$\Delta F$	8.864*	2.864*	12.015*	32.011**	6.604*	17.453*
	$R^2$	.020	.101	.020	.125	.021	.058
	Adjusted $R^2$	.039	.009	.017	.121	.019	.055
	$\Delta R^2$	—	.081*	—	.105**	—	.037*

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; CBT = competence-based trust; BBT = benevolence-based trust; RBT = Reliability-based trust; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

#### 4.6.5 Testing Hypotheses Developed to Address RO5

Hypotheses 5(a), 5(b) and 5(c) were to test that forgiveness factors (self, others and situations) are positively related with happiness dimensions (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life). In order to test the same, multiple hierarchical regression analysis was conducted and results are presented in Table 4.23. It can be seen that all three dimensions of forgiveness together account for 12.1% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 424) = 22.741$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .118$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .112$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in positive affect at work. Particularly, among the forgiveness factors, forgiveness of self ( $\beta = .175$ ,  $t = 2.875$ ,  $p < .01$ ) was found as the strongest predictor of positive affect at work. Also, forgiveness of others ( $\beta = .167$ ,  $t = 2.727$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and forgiveness of situations ( $\beta = .115$ ,  $t = 2.215$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly predicted positive affect.

Similarly, results revealed that all three dimensions of forgiveness together account for 13.4% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 424) = 16.970$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .131$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .127$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in negative affect at work. Among the forgiveness factors, forgiveness of self ( $\beta = -.156$ ,  $t = 2.605$ ,  $p < .01$ ) was found as the strongest predictor of negative affect at work. Also, forgiveness of others ( $\beta = -.127$ ,  $t = 2.360$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and forgiveness of situations ( $\beta = -.108$ ,  $t = 2.165$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly predicted negative affect.

It was found that all three dimensions of forgiveness together account for only 1.70% variance ( $F(3, 424) = 9.019$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .102$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .104$ ,  $p < .05$ ) in satisfaction with life. Further elaboration of the results revealed that forgiveness of self ( $\beta = .106$ ,  $t = 2.160$ ,  $p < .05$ ), forgiveness of others ( $\beta = .112$ ,  $t = 2.214$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and forgiveness of situations ( $\beta = .101$ ,  $t = 2.110$ ,  $p < .05$ ) were the significant predictors of satisfaction with life.

The sign of the standardized regression weights was in the predicted direction, thus, forgiveness of self, others and situations are positively associated with positive affect and satisfaction with life and negatively related to negative affect. These results provide partial support for hypotheses 5(a), 5(b), and 5(c).

**Table 4.23: Results of multiple hierarchical regression for testing the impact of Forgiveness factors on Positive affect, Negative affect and Satisfaction with life.**

Predictors	Positive Affect (DV)		Negative Affect (DV)		Satisfaction with Life (DV)	
	$\beta$		$\beta$		$\beta$	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: <i>Control Variables</i>						
Age	.294*	.187	.282*	.071	.178*	.141
Gender	.169*	.129	.125**	.085	.147*	.125
Organization Type	.111*	.135	.279*	.072	.148**	.021
Step 2: <i>Predictors (IV)</i>						
FOS		.175**		-.156**		.106*
FOO		.167**		-.127*		.112*
FOST		.115*		-.108*		.101*
$\Delta F$	8.345**	22.741**	5.429**	16.970**	3.813*	9.019*
$R^2$	.009	.121	.007	.134	.003	.107
Adjusted $R^2$	.006	.118	.005	.131	.002	.102
$\Delta R^2$	—	.112**	—	.127**	—	.104*

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; FOS = forgiveness of self; FOO = forgiveness of others; FOST = forgiveness of situations; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

#### 4.6.6 Testing Hypothesis Developed to Address RO6

Hypothesis 6 was to test the mediating role of forgiveness between organizational trust and happiness. In order to test the same, direct and indirect effects were computed with hierarchical regression analysis. Additionally, Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommendations were followed in testing the joint significance of indirect effect. First of all, direct effect of organizational trust on happiness was checked. In step 1, control variables were entered in block 1, and step 2 was followed by entering independent variable (organizational trust) in block 2. Similar steps were followed for testing the direct effect of organizational trust on forgiveness. Table 4.24 presents the results of hierarchical regression for direct effect of organizational trust on happiness and forgiveness.

**Table 4.24: Results of hierarchical regression for direct effects (OT on happiness and forgiveness)**

Predictors	Happiness (DV) $\beta$		Forgiveness (DV) $\beta$	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: <i>Control Variables</i>				
Age	.221*	.107	.282*	.101
Gender	.169*	.109	.221**	.009
Organization Type	.211*	.105	.254*	.019
Step 2: <i>Predictor (IV)</i>				
OT		.341**		.296**
$\Delta F$	12.145**	36.294**	11.593**	31.762**
$R^2$	.119	.241	.105	.215
Adjusted $R^2$	.114	.237	.100	.213
$\Delta R^2$	—	.122**	—	.110**

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; OT = organizational trust; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

The results highlighted that organizational trust accounts for 24.1% variance ( $\Delta F(1, 426) = 36.294$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .237$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .122$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in the happiness of employees. Also, the standardized coefficient beta ( $\beta = .341$ ,  $t = 3.904$ ,  $p < .01$ ) revealed significant direct effect on happiness. Further, direct effect of organizational trust on forgiveness was checked and results highlighted that organizational trust accounts for 21.5% variance ( $\Delta F(1, 426) = 31.762$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .213$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .215$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in forgiveness. Also, the standardized coefficient beta ( $\beta = .296$ ,  $t = 3.732$ ,  $p < .01$ ) revealed significant direct effect on forgiveness. These results (direct effect) suggested that organizational trust is a significant predictor of happiness and forgiveness.

Further, the indirect effect of organizational trust on happiness via forgiveness was checked by conducting hierarchical multiple regression. The results presented in Table 4.25 indicated that organizational trust and forgiveness collectively account for 32.3% variance ( $\Delta F(2, 425) =$

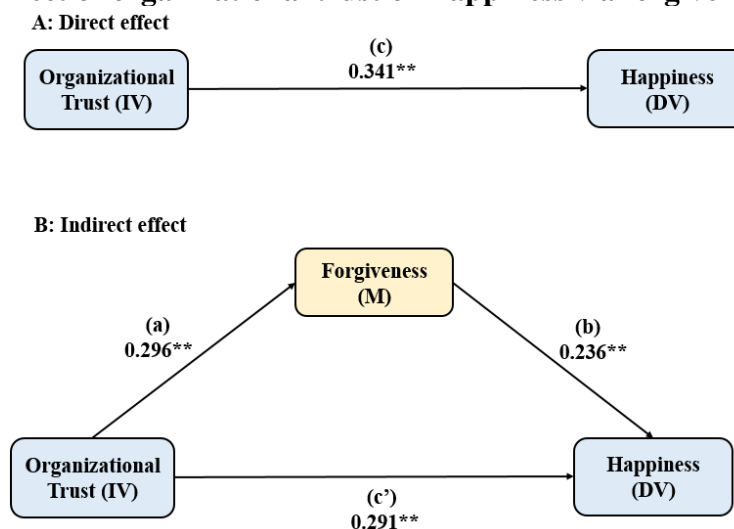
92.546; adjusted  $R^2 = .319$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .210$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in happiness. Also, the standardized coefficient beta for organizational trust on happiness was reduced with the presence of forgiveness in the regression model but remained significant ( $\beta = .291$ ,  $t = 3.712$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Additionally, standardized coefficient beta for forgiveness on happiness was significant ( $\beta = .236$ ,  $t = 3.453$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, there was partial mediation effect of forgiveness on the relationship between organizational trust and happiness.

**Table 4.25: Results of hierarchical multiple regression for indirect effects (OT on happiness via forgiveness)**

	Predictors	Happiness (DV) $\beta$	
		Step 1	Step 2
Step 1:	<i>Control Variables</i>		
	Age	.221*	.107
	Gender	.169*	.109
	Organization Type	.211*	.105
Step 2:	<i>Predictor (IV)</i>		
	Organizational Trust		.291**
	Forgiveness		.236**
	$\Delta F$ -Value	35.118**	92.546**
	$R^2$	.113	.323
	Adjusted $R^2$	.111	.319
	$\Delta R^2$	—	.210**

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficient are reported in the regression table; OT = organizational trust; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$

**Figure 4.5: Results of mediation analysis (Effect of organizational trust on happiness via forgiveness)**



**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variable; DV = dependent variable; M = mediator variable;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in table; \*\* $p < .01$ .

Furthermore, following the recommendation of Baron and Kenny (1986) the significance of indirect effect (organizational trust on happiness via forgiveness) was tested with by calculating the joint significance of direct effects ( $a*b$ ;  $a$  = effect of organizational trust on forgiveness;  $b$  =



effect of forgiveness on happiness). As shown by the results and Figure 4.5, both paths ‘a’ and ‘b’ were significant and supported that a\*b is also significant. Also, an alternative method to estimate the significance of indirect effect given by Sobel (1982) was followed by using Sobel Test. Results supported significant indirect effect [standardized indirect effect (a\*b) = .061; Sobel SE = .028; Z value = 2.188;  $p = .028$ ;  $p < .05$ ] and also standardized indirect effect, that is, a portion of organizational trust on happiness due to forgiveness was 14.66% [portion of (X → Y due to M) = (c-c’)/c]. These results partially support the hypothesis and evidence partial mediation effect of forgiveness in explaining the relationship between organizational trust and happiness.

#### 4.6.7 Testing Hypothesis Developed to Address RO7

Hypothesis 7 asserts that organizational trust mediates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness of employees. To test the same, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted.

**Table 4.26: Results of hierarchical regression for direct effects (Forgiveness on Happiness and Organizational Trust)**

Predictors	Happiness (DV)		Organizational Trust (DV)	
	$\beta$		$\beta$	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Step 1: <i>Control Variables</i>				
Age	.224*	.105	.278	.119
Gender	.163*	.110	.218	.116
Organization Type	.209*	.137	.243	.104
Step 2: <i>Predictor (IV)</i>				
Forgiveness		.247**		.009
$\Delta F$	13.119**	37.134**	1.011	11.107
$R^2$	.103	.211	.002	.005
Adjusted $R^2$	.101	.208	.001	.003
$\Delta R^2$	—	.108**	—	.003

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

Results presented in Table 4.26 reveal that forgiveness accounted for 21.1% variance ( $\Delta F$  (1, 426) = 37.134; adjusted  $R^2 = .208$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .108$ ,  $p < .01$ ) in the happiness of employees. Also, the standardized coefficient beta ( $\beta = .247$ ,  $t = 3.489$ ,  $p < .01$ ) revealed significant direct effect of forgiveness on happiness. However, results for the impact of forgiveness on organizational trust were non-significant ( $\beta = .009$ ,  $t = .812$ ,  $p = .417$ ;  $p > .05$ ). Therefore, these evidences did not allow further mediation analysis. Hence, H<sub>7</sub> could not be accepted.

#### 4.6.8 Testing Hypotheses Developed to Address RO8

Hypothesis 8 asserts the moderating influence of demographic variables (gender, age, and organization type) on forgiveness and happiness relationship. For testing the hypotheses 8(a), 8(b) and 8(c) regression analysis was conducted. As per Baron and Kenny's approach (1986), a stepwise procedure was followed. In the first step, control variables were entered; in the second step, the influencing variable (forgiveness) and the moderator variables were mean centred and checked whether they were significant or not for the dependent variable. Before testing the moderating effect of demographic variables on the relationship between independent variable (forgiveness) and dependent variable (happiness), interaction terms were created as suggested by Aiken and West (1991). Finally, in step 3, interaction terms were entered (Forgiveness  $\times$  Age). This procedure was repeated four times (for gender, age, and organization type).

Following the guidelines given by Aguinis (2004) and Jose (2013) for moderation analysis and in alignment with procedure followed by past studies (Inceoglu et al., 2012; Innocenti et al., 2013), age was kept as a continuous variable (instead of categorizing into age groups as 1, 2 or 3) in the present study. Also the moderator variables with categories [such as gender (male and female) and organization type (public and private) were dummy coded as 0 and 1 and converted into separate variables for the purpose of analysis (Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003; Marsh et al., 2011). Further, product/interaction terms were manually created.

##### 4.6.8.1 Testing Hypothesis 8(a)

Hypothesis 8(a) asserts that gender moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that the relationship is stronger for female employees than for male employees. The results of moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 4.27, which indicated that control variables (age and type of organization) account for 11.3% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 428) = 9.515$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .109$ ;  $p < .01$ ) in happiness. In step forgiveness ( $\beta = .283$ ,  $t = 3.687$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and gender ( $\beta = .053$ ,  $t = 2.180$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly increased the variance significantly to 24.3% ( $\Delta F(2, 426) = 97.749$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .239$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .130$ ;  $p < .01$ ).

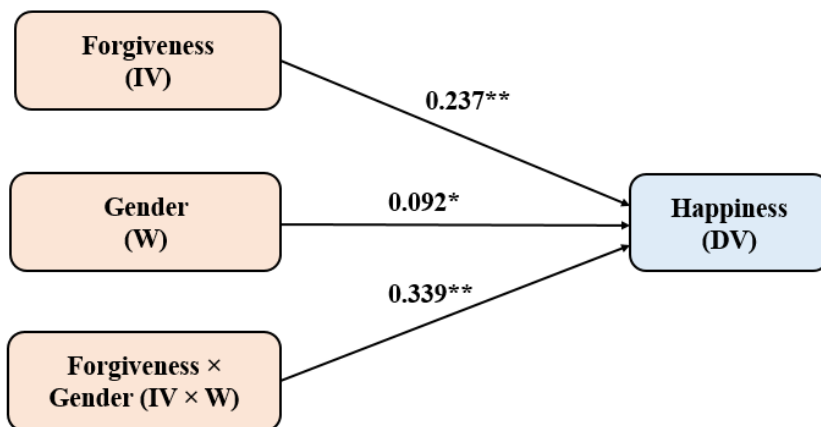
In step 3, interaction effect of forgiveness  $\times$  gender was added, which also significantly ( $\beta = .339$ ,  $t = 3.987$ ,  $p < .01$ ) increased the variance explained (36.5%;  $\Delta F(1, 425) = 5.231$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .363$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .122$ ;  $p < .05$ ), adding a 12.2% to the explained variance. Also, the standardized coefficient beta value of forgiveness on happiness was reduced but was significant and the interaction term provided greater predictive value. These results provide significant support for the moderating influence of gender on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. Figure 4.6 presents the results of the hypothesized model.

**Table 4.27: Results of moderating effect of gender on the relationship between Forgiveness and Happiness**

Predictors	Happiness (DV)		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1 <i>Control Variables</i>			
Age	.148	.084	.068
Organization Type	.163	.172	.163
Step 2 <i>Predictors (IV)</i>			
Forgiveness		.283**	.237**
Gender		.053*	.092*
Step 3 <i>Interaction Term</i>			
Forgiveness × Gender			.339**
$\Delta F$	9.515**	97.749**	5.231*
$R^2$	.113	.243	.365
Adjusted $R^2$	.109	.239	.363
$\Delta R^2$	—	.130	.122

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

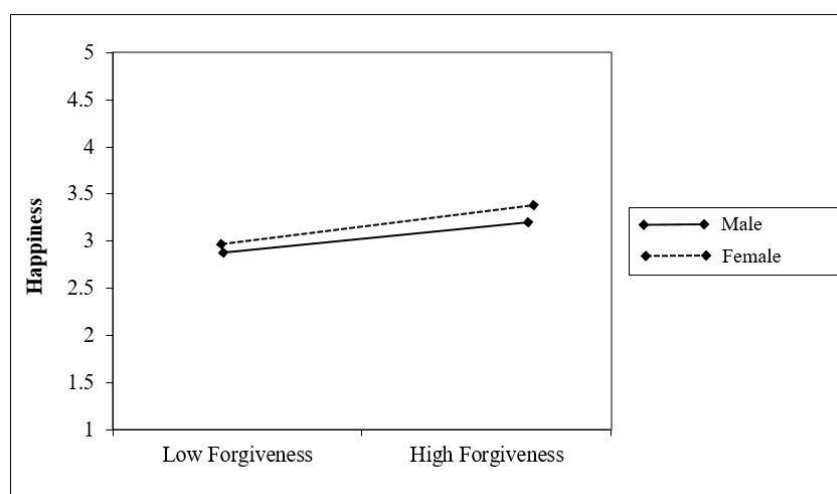
**Figure 4.6: Results of the hypothesized model 8(a)  
(Interactive effect of forgiveness and gender on happiness)**



**Notes:** IV = independent variable; DV = dependent variable; W = moderating variable;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

Following the procedure recommended by Aiken and West (1991), a plot was obtained using the prediction of criterion variable at low and high levels of forgiveness ( $\pm 1$  standard deviation of mean; McClelland & Judd, 1993). In Figure 4.7, it is apparent that the impact of forgiveness on happiness is higher for female employees than male employees. Furthermore, the slope difference test confirmed that gender differences in the relationship between forgiveness and happiness is significant ( $t$ -value for slope difference = 1.101,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 8(a) was supported.

**Figure 4.7: Moderating influence of Gender on the relationship between Forgiveness and Happiness**



#### 4.6.8.2 Testing Hypothesis 8(b)

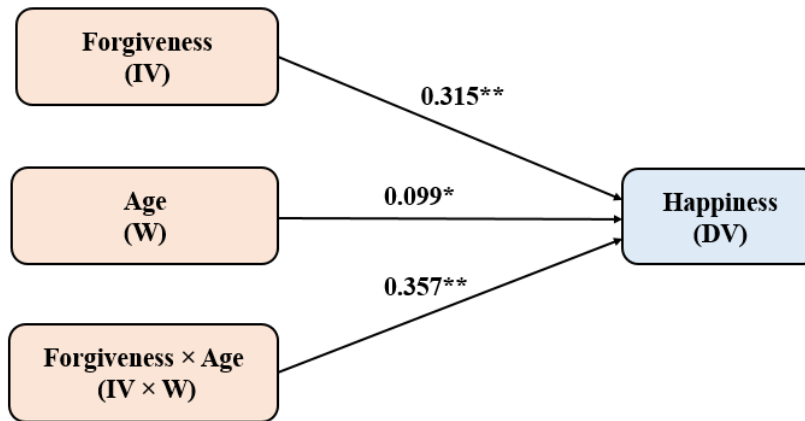
Hypothesis 8(b) asserts that age moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that the relationship will be stronger for old employees than young and middle-aged employees. The results of moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 4.28, which indicated that control variables (gender and the type of organization) account for 1.7% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 428) = 7.005$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .102$ ;  $p < .01$ ) in happiness. In step forgiveness ( $\beta = .355$ ,  $t = 3.907$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and age ( $\beta = .068$ ,  $t = 2.280$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly increased the variance significantly to 23.8% ( $\Delta F(2, 426) = 10.268$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .232$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .131$ ;  $p < .01$ ).

**Table 4.28: Results of moderating effect of Age on the relationship between Forgiveness and Happiness**

	Predictors	Happiness (DV)		
		$\beta$		
		Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1	<b>Control Variables</b>			
	Gender	.079	.101	.089
	Organization Type	.164	.181	.167
Step 2	<b>Predictors (IV)</b>			
	Forgiveness		.355**	.315**
	Age		.068*	.099*
Step 3	<b>Interaction Term</b>			
	Forgiveness $\times$ Age			.357**
	$\Delta F$	7.005**	10.268**	13.072**
	$R^2$	.107	.238	.321
	Adjusted $R^2$	.102	.232	.316
	$\Delta R^2$	—	.131	.083

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

**Figure 4.8: Results of the Hypothesized Model 8(b)  
(Interactive effect of Forgiveness and Age on Happiness)**

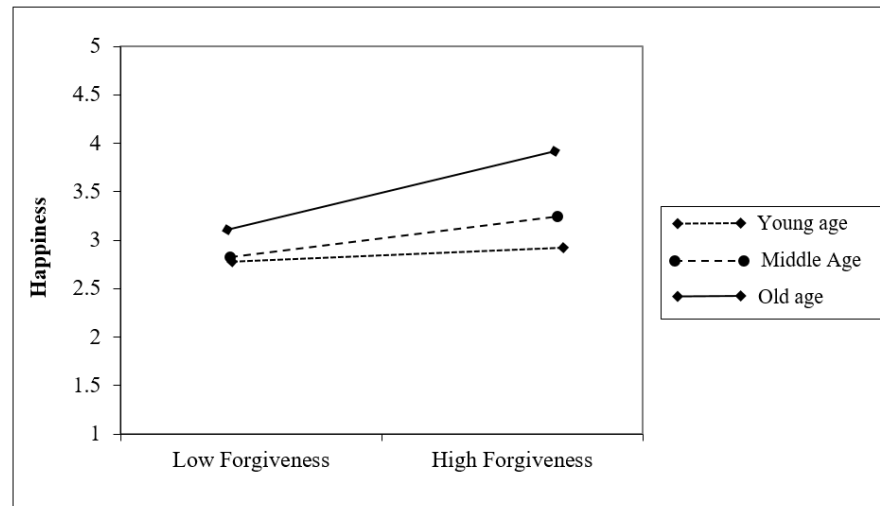


**Notes:** IV = independent variable; DV = dependent variable; W = moderating variable;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

In step 3, the interaction effect of forgiveness  $\times$  age was added, which also significantly ( $\beta = .357$ ,  $t = 3.814$ ,  $p < .01$ ) increased the variance explained to 32.1% ( $\Delta F(1, 425) = 13.072$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .316$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .083$ ;  $p < .01$ ), adding a total of 8.3% in the variance explained. Also, the standardized coefficient beta value of forgiveness on happiness was reduced but was significant and the interaction term provided greater predictive value. These results provide significant support for the moderating influence of age on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. Figure 4.8 presents the results of the hypothesized model.

Following the procedure recommended by Aiken and West (1991) a plot was obtained using the prediction of criterion variable at low and high level of forgiveness ( $\pm 1$  standard deviation of mean; McClelland & Judd, 1993). From Figure 4.9, it is apparent that the impact of forgiveness on happiness though significant for young, middle-aged and old employees, it is stronger for old employees in comparison to their counterparts (young and middle-aged employees). Pair-wise slope difference test confirmed that relationship between forgiveness and happiness is significant between young vs. middle-aged ( $t$ -value for slope difference = 2.103,  $p < .05$ ), middle-aged vs. old ( $t$ -value for slope difference = 2.152,  $p < .05$ ) and young vs. old age ( $t$ -value for slope difference = 2.387,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 8(b) is supported.

**Figure 4.9: Moderating influence of Age on the relationship between Forgiveness and happiness**



#### 4.6.8.3 Testing Hypothesis 8(c)

Hypothesis 8(c) asserts that the type of organization moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship is stronger for employees working in public sector organizations than for those working in private sector organizations. The results of moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 4.29, which indicated that control variables (age and gender) account for 14.4% variance ( $\Delta F(3, 428) = 6.602$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .139$ ;  $p < .01$ ) in happiness. In step forgiveness ( $\beta = .322$ ,  $t = 3.882$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and organization type ( $\beta = .125$ ,  $t = 2.250$ ,  $p < .05$ ) significantly increased the variance to 23.6% ( $\Delta F(2, 426) = 108.152$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .231$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .092$ ;  $p < .01$ ).

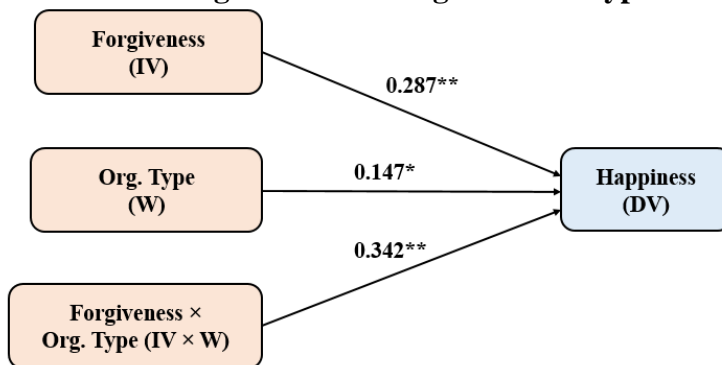
**Table 4.29: Results of moderating effect of organization type on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness**

	Predictors	Happiness (DV)		
		$\beta$		
		Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1	<i>Control Variables</i>			
	Age	.154*	.092*	.059
	Gender	.092	.102	.100
Step 2	<i>Predictors (IV)</i>			
	Forgiveness		.322**	.287**
	Org. Type		.125*	.147*
Step 3	<i>Interaction Term</i>			
	Forgiveness $\times$ Org. Type			.342*
	$\Delta F$	6.602**	108.152**	5.188*
	$R^2$	.144	.236	.338
	Adjusted $R^2$	.139	.231	.329
	$\Delta R^2$	—	.092	.102

**Notes:** N = 432; IV = independent variables; DV = dependent variables;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported in the regression table; Org. Type = Organization type; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

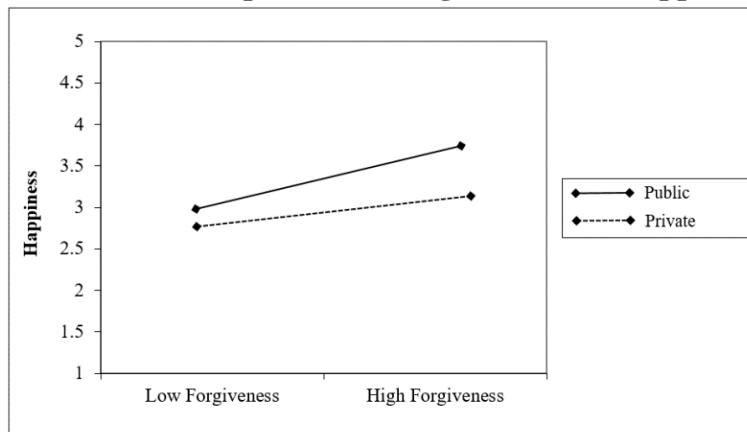
In step 3, interaction effect of forgiveness × organization type was added, which also significantly ( $\beta = .342, t = 3.991, p < .05$ ) increased the variance explained to 33.8% ( $\Delta F(1, 425) = 5.188$ ; adjusted  $R^2 = .329$ ;  $\Delta R^2 = .102$ ;  $p < .05$ ), adding a total of 1.2% in the variance explained. Also, the standardized coefficient beta value of forgiveness on happiness was reduced but was significant and the interaction term provided greater predictive value. These results provide significant support for the moderating influence of organization type on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. Figure 4.10 presents the results of the hypothesized model.

**Figure 4.10: Results of the Hypothesized Model 8(c)**  
**(Interactive effect of Forgiveness and Organization Type on Happiness)**



**Notes:** IV = independent variable; DV = dependent variable; W = moderating variable;  $\beta$  = standardized beta coefficients are reported; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \* $p < .05$ .

**Figure 4.11: Moderating influence of Organization Type on the relationship between Forgiveness and Happiness**



Following the procedure recommended by Aiken and West (1991) a plot was obtained with the help of prediction of criterion variable at low and high level of forgiveness ( $\pm 1$  standard deviation of mean; McClelland & Judd, 1993). From Figure 4.13 it is apparent that the impact of forgiveness on happiness though significant for employees working in public and private organizations, it is stronger for employees working in public organizations in comparison to the employees working in private sector organizations. Furthermore, the slope difference test confirms that the relationship between forgiveness and happiness is significant ( $t$ -value for slope difference =

2.209,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 8(b) is supported.

#### 4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with data analysis and results of the present study. Specifically, the impact of organizational trust and forgiveness on happiness of employees was examined with hierarchical regression analysis.. These variables were measured using standardized scales. Various statistical techniques, which include correlational analysis, *t*-test, one-way ANOVA and multiple hierarchical regression, were used to test the formulated hypotheses and to achieve the objectives of the study. Also, the details of data screening, data preparation, scale validation and assessment of common method bias were presented. The results obtained in the study are summarized in Table 4.30 below.

**Table 4.30: Summary of results obtained in the study**

<b>Hypotheses</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Result</b>
<b>Hypothesis 1</b>	<b>H<sub>1a</sub></b> : Propensity for organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) differ among male and female employees.	Partially Supported
	<b>H<sub>1b</sub></b> : Propensity for organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) differ with the age groups of Indian employees.	Supported
	<b>H<sub>1c</sub></b> : Propensity for organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector organizations).	Partially Supported
<b>Hypothesis 2</b>	<b>H<sub>2a</sub></b> : Male and female employees tend to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differently.	Partially Supported
	<b>H<sub>2b</sub></b> : Tendency to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differ with age in Indian employees.	Supported
	<b>H<sub>2c</sub></b> : Tendency to forgive (forgiveness of self, others and situations) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector organizations).	Partially Supported
<b>Hypothesis 3</b>	<b>H<sub>3a</sub></b> : Male and female employees perceive happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differently.	Supported
	<b>H<sub>3b</sub></b> : Perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differ with age of Indian employees.	Supported
	<b>H<sub>3c</sub></b> : Perception of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) differ with the type of organization (public and private sector organizations).	Supported
<b>Hypothesis 4</b>	<b>H<sub>4a</sub></b> : Competence is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) among Indian employees.	Partially Supported
	<b>H<sub>4b</sub></b> : Benevolence is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) among Indian employees.	Partially Supported
	<b>H<sub>4c</sub></b> : Reliability is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) among Indian employees.	Partially Supported



<b>Hypothesis 5</b>	<b>H<sub>5a</sub></b> : Forgiveness of self is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) among Indian employees.	Partially Supported
	<b>H<sub>5b</sub></b> : Forgiveness of others is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) among Indian employees.	Partially Supported
	<b>H<sub>5c</sub></b> : Forgiveness of situations is positively related to happiness (positive affect, negative affect and satisfaction with life) among Indian employees.	Partially Supported
<b>Hypothesis 6</b>	<b>H<sub>6</sub></b> : Forgiveness mediates the relationship between organizational trust and happiness of employees.	Partially Supported
<b>Hypothesis 7</b>	<b>H<sub>7</sub></b> : Organizational trust mediates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness of employees.	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 8</b>	<b>H<sub>8a</sub></b> : Gender moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that the relationship is stronger for female employees than male employees.	Supported
	<b>H<sub>8b</sub></b> : Age moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship will be stronger for old aged employees than young and middle-aged employees.	Supported
	<b>H<sub>8c</sub></b> : Organization type moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in such a way that relationship will be stronger for employees working in public sector organizations than private sector organizations.	Supported

## DISCUSSION

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### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of organizational trust and forgiveness on the happiness of employees. The rationale behind conducting the study was to augment research on happiness by finding the predictors of happiness at workplace, namely, organizational trust and forgiveness. Also, the study aims to continue research in the field of employee demographics by studying the age, gender, and organizational type differences in perceptions of organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness. The study extends the research area mentioned above by proposing and testing a model that integrates a variable, forgiveness, which explains the relationship between organizational trust and happiness and also seeks to understand its relationship with the moderating influence of age, gender and organization type.

The variables under study (organizational trust, forgiveness, and happiness) were measured on the responses of Indian employees, using three scales comprising 57 items. Consequently, to achieve the study objectives, appropriate statistical techniques (a judicious mix of both descriptive and inferential techniques) were applied to the responses. Empirical findings reported in Chapter 4 supported seven hypotheses (H1b, H3a, H3b, H3c, H8a, H8b and H8c), partially supported twelve hypotheses (H1a, H1c, H2a, H2b, H2c, H4a, H4b, H4c, H5a, H5b, H5c and H6), and did not support one hypothesis (H7). This chapter discusses the results in relation to previous research.

### 5.2 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

#### 5.2.1 Accomplishment of Objective 1

The first objective of the study was to assess the differences in employees' propensity for organizational trust in the selected Indian organizations with respect to their gender, age and the type of organization. All three dimensions, which constitute the construct of organizational trust in the present study, were assessed using the selected demographic variables.

##### 5.2.1.1 Gender Differences in Organizational Trust

Trust plays a critical role for all in various aspects of organizational functioning. Gender differences in the propensity for organizational trust were examined using *t*-test. The results of hypothesis 1(a) revealed that male (mean = 4.89) and female (mean = 4.75) employees do not differ significantly ( $p > .05$ ) in competence-based trust, while there were significant gender

differences ( $p < .05$ ) in the propensity for both benevolence- (mean; male = 4.68, female = 4.96) and reliability-based trust (mean; male = 4.83, female = 4.60). Although the mean score of competence-based trust of male gender was higher than female gender but this difference was not significant. This meant that Indian employees, whether male or female, feel that they have positive outlook and faith in their colleagues with regard to their knowledge, skills, expertise of management, as well as in the functioning of the organizations with regard to organization of work activities, emphasis on the growth and development of employees and clarity of vision about the future of the organization. This is in alignment with the findings of a study conducted by Xie and Peng (2009), who found that competence-based trust, established by an organization, can fulfil promises and is possible to bring forth through adequate knowledge, skills, expertise and leadership.

A study conducted by Tasdan and Yalcin in 2010 on a sample of 151 primary school teachers from Kars City Center, Turkey, also revealed that there were no gender differences in competence-based trust. However, in Indian organizations, interaction between the opposite genders is limited and a glass ceiling exists in this case. Nonetheless, many organizations have put in a lot of efforts to provide equal opportunity at their workplaces, which have helped them to function effectively for both genders. Initiatives such as work from home, flexible work hours, sensitivity training, and management development programmes are some of these initiatives. The result has been promising and, nowadays, women more or less work at par with men. Moreover, as suggested by Mishra and Mishra (2012) and Xie and Peng (2009), management of an organization demonstrate their competence by meeting or exceeding the expectations of employees, which may result in the increase of competence-based trust for both genders. Thus, equal efforts made by many Indian organizations for personal growth and professional development of both genders have contributed to the non-significant gender differences in the propensity for competence-based trust.

There were significant gender differences in the benevolence-based dimension of organizational trust. Female (mean = 4.96) achieved higher mean score than male (mean = 4.68) on benevolence-based trust. This reflected that, in Indian organizations, females tend to trust more on the dimension of benevolence, which is indicated by their faith in the organization regarding its concern for their welfare, having confidence that the people in the organization would respond constructively and with care to solve their problems. Also, female employees believe that the organization would look after their needs and desires, and take decision in their best interest. This is consistent with the findings of Martela and Ryan (2016) who posited that benevolence-based trust develops when the management helps their employees going beyond the prescribed formal

agreements. Similar findings were reported by Edmond (2011) in a sample of 116 Certified Public Accountants working in new ventures operating in the USA, indicating that there were gender differences in benevolence-based trust. Maddux and Brewer (2005) provided another justification for the prevalence of gender differences in benevolence-based trust where they opined that it prevails due to self-construals of employees and in finding meaning in the relationship. Men are more oriented towards self-construals and thus perceive less benevolence by others, whereas women are more relationship oriented, acknowledge, appreciate the helping and/or benevolent attitude of others.

The results of the present study indicated that male and female employees differ in their propensity for reliability-based trust – another dimension of organizational trust. The study showed that male (mean = 4.83) employees achieved higher mean score than female (mean = 4.60) employees. This reflected that male employees perceive their organization to be having a strong sense of justice, promoting integrity and having an intolerant approach towards unethical actions and behavior of people in the organization. This is consistent with the study conducted by Lee et al. (2000), which revealed that women give more importance to relationships whereas for men norms of justice are a priority and they are more sensitive to the issues of reliability than women. This argument was empirically tested among Taiwanese employees and it was found that male employees scored high on reliability-based trust (Chang, 1988).

#### **5.2.1.2 Age Differences in Organizational Trust**

The findings for hypothesis 1(b) indicated that the mean score of competence-based trust of employees significantly declines with increase in their age (Mean; young = 5.01; middle = 4.69; old = 4.38;  $p < .001$ ). This meant that employees' tendency to trust the competence of the people in the organization decreases with age. This could be due to perceived competence being a central construct in the development of judgements, beliefs, feelings, and understanding of one's abilities in general and in a particular domain (Ho et al., 2005; Sagar et al., 2006).

At a young age, the perceptions of abilities to accomplish task are more influenced by explanatory motivational orientations than actual assessment of skills (Awasthi, 2014). Moreover, the accuracy and level of perceived competence work as a function of socio-environmental changes and cognitive maturity that occurs with age (Awasthi, 2014; Dhar et al., 1999; Li & Fung, 2012). Therefore, at a young age, employees are very optimistic and they often overestimate the abilities of others, which may be due to undifferentiated conception of ability and sources from which the information is obtained. These beliefs are concrete and formed on objective evaluations to judge the competencies of others. Whereas, in middle and old age, the level of competence-based trust

declines and the focus shifts from competence to the accuracy of the work done (Castle et al., 2012; Dhar et al., 2001; Sagar et al., 2009). Employees no longer overestimate the abilities of others on the basis of objective ratings. Both objective and subjective ratings are used for developing competence-based trust (Sanghi, 2009). This change in the level of perceived competence is attributed to enhanced cognitive maturity, for instance, an ability to make judgements of one's skills within and between achievement domains. Moreover, peer evaluation, performance feedback and/or increased frequency of peer comparison as information source forms competence-based trust (Ho et al., 2005). Therefore, the level of competence-based trust of old employees may be effected by a number of sources of information that are used to assess competencies of employees in an organization.

While examining age differences in the benevolence-based trust, it was found that the propensity for benevolence also declines significantly with age (Mean; young = 4.99; middle = 4.70; old = 4.40;  $p < .001$ ). This is consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Roussin (2015), which states that an individual's perceptions of benevolence are developed on the basis of evaluations of past experiences and significantly decline with age. In order to avoid negative outcomes in future, they become alert to avoid past perceptive mistakes. Thus, extreme negative experiences become a salient deciding factor for believing or not believing the good intentions of others (benevolence). However, both positive and negative memories are accumulated with age and are considered as prime perceptive inputs (Fredrickson, 2001).

The assessment of intentions of others are based on relational experiences at work, such as an experience of trust betrayal (Lewicki et al., 2006), psychological contract breaches (de Lange et al., 2011) and other interpersonal mishaps, which serve as the strongest guides to those intentions. Middle-aged and old people have simply 'lived more', have a wide range of experiences and have encountered several behavioral consequences at work compared to young employees. Therefore, with comparatively greater interpersonal experiences and negative relational memories, middle-aged and old employees are likely to proceed with scepticism. Hence, the greater the age of the employee, the lower is the level of perceived benevolence of others.

The results indicated that there are significant age differences in the perception of reliability-based trust. The results also highlighted that the level of reliability-based trust increases with age (Mean; young = 4.35; middle = 4.71; old = 5.05;  $p < .001$ ). This may be due to the fact that people tend to trust others more as they get older. In fact, older employees, in comparison to younger employees, give priority to the achievement of emotional meaningful goals; therefore social connectedness and maintaining social involvement are two essential sources for them in

the realm of interpersonal relationships in which trust is an essential ingredient (Lancee & Radl, 2012). However, organizational trust is relatively understudied in the literature concerning the age of people. As far as we know, there is only one study that examined the effect of employees' age in their propensity for organizational trust. Sutter and Kocher (2007) employed a trust game to investigate reliability-based trust and trustworthiness in different age groups. They did not find any significant differences due to age. In their study, the behavior of participants were examined in an artificial setting. So, it is imperative to study the effect of age differences on trust more extensively in a representative sample. Undeniably, some studies in the social psychology literature examined the effect of age differences in trust and reported the trend that older adults have a higher generalized trust in comparison to younger and middle-aged adults (e.g., Robinson & Jackson, 2001).

The findings of this study is in alignment with the assertion of life span theory of control (Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996), which states that older people are more likely to regulate their emotions by transforming their internal feelings or beliefs to adapt to the external world. Moreover, with the increasing cognitive and physical constraints, older employees may face more difficulties in accomplishing all challenging tasks by themselves, and assistance of other people may become necessary. Therefore, they feel comfortable by relying on others at work. Similar findings were observed in a study conducted by Castle et al. (2012), which showed that there are age differences in the perceptions of reliability of others on neural and behavioral bases. They also indicated that older people rely on others more than younger people, and this trust on others makes them disproportionately vulnerable to other people. Another study on the effect of age differences on trust, conducted by Bailey et al. (2016) on 35 young and 37 old people working in Australia, suggested that older adults have high levels of trust than younger adults. The study highlighted that with an increase in the age of employees, their faith and reliability on others also increases.

### **5.2.1.3 Organization Type Differences in Organizational Trust**

Hypothesis 1(c) was applied to examine whether public sector employees would perceive organizational trust dimensions differently from employees working in private sector organizations. The results indicated that employees working in public (mean = 4.81) and private (mean = 4.85) sector organizations did not differ ( $p > .05$ ) on competence-based trust. This meant that Indian employees, irrespective of whether working for public or private sector, have a positive outlook and faith on other employees and on the functioning of the organization with regard to their knowledge, skills, expertise of management and people. This is consistent with the empirical evidence provided in the study conducted by Tan and Tan (2000) which showed

that a certain level of competence-based trust exists in both private and public sector employees, and the difference between the two sectors is non-significant.

The results revealed that private sector employees (mean = 4.60) have lower benevolence-based trust than public sector employees (mean = 4.93) do. This may be attributed to the fact that private organizations are goal-oriented and profit-driven and they usually have higher job demands than public sector organizations and therefore put less emphasis on benevolence. A similar finding was found by Albrecht and Travaglione (2003) on a sample of 750 employees from Western Australia, indicating that public sector employees have more trust in their organizations and people than private sector employees. Researchers have highlighted that increased benevolence-based trust among public sector employees can help mitigate the dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors of employees, thereby resulting in raised productivity (Gidwani & Dangayach, 2017; Moutinho et al., 1997; Pattnaik et al., 2018).

The results indicated that public sector employees (mean = 4.92) have a higher mean score than employees working in private sector (mean = 4.70) organizations on reliability-based trust. This may be due to the fact that private sector employees encounter more negative behavioural outcomes; for example, opportunistic and egocentric behavior of colleagues due to cut-throat competition within the organization, and they become risk averse for future too, thus relying less on others (Mazurek, 2017; Pisedtasalasai & Rujiratpichathorn, 2017). Researchers have reported that job security is an antecedent of reliability-based trust for employees working in public sector organizations (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Pisedtasalasai, 2010). The psychological contract literature also support that people working in public sector rely more on their organization (Aggarwal et al., 2007; Jafri, 2012; Paillé & Raineri, 2016).

Results for this hypothesis (reliability-based trust) are consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Shahnawaz and Goswami (2011) on a sample of 200 employees working in public and private sector organizations operating in Delhi and NCR. It was found that perception of trust varies with different organizational settings and that employees working in private sector organizations tend to rely less on others because of frequent psychological contract breach as compared to employees working in public sector organizations. Similar findings were obtained by Top et al. (2015) in their study on a sample of 108 employees of public and private hospitals belonging to the Turkish healthcare industry. The study revealed that given the same amount of social security to employees, there is no significant difference in the perception of reliability of organizations by employees; however, in the case of difference in social security, private sector employees tend to rely less on their organizations than public sector employees.

## **5.2.2 Accomplishment of Objective 2**

The second objective of the study was to examine the tendency of employees working in Indian organizations to forgive with respect to their gender, age and the type of organization. All three dimensions, which constitute the construct of forgiveness in the present study, were assessed using the selected demographic variables.

### **5.2.2.1 Gender Differences in Forgiveness**

Hypothesis 2(a) was applied to examine the gender differences in forgiveness at work with three dimensions, namely, forgiveness of self, others and situations. Results showed that male employees scored high on the dimension of self-forgiveness (mean; male = 4.88, female = 4.68;  $p < .05$ ), whereas female employees scored high on the dimension of forgiveness of others (mean; male = 4.60, female = 4.86;  $p < .05$ ) and situations (mean; male = 4.53, female = 4.75;  $p < .05$ ). This reflected that male employees tend to forgive themselves for the mistakes they did at work while they face difficulties in forgiving their colleagues or the situations. This can be attributed to the fact that men have more self-construals of independence and women have interdependent self-construals.

Consistent with the study by Cross and Madson (1997), the present study also shows that the self-schemas of independent self-construal by males emphasize self-related features and dismiss the influence of others. Thus, male employees are more self-forgiving and less forgiving of others. Whereas, the self-schemas of interdependent self-construal of female employees accentuate inclusion of others and therefore they forgive others more than they do themselves at work. Etxebarria et al. (2009) also highlighted that women have higher interpersonal sensitivity and are more prone to feel guilty. Therefore, after making mistakes at work and/or doing anything wrong while working, women are less likely to forgive their self. This may be attributed to high interpersonal sensitivity at work as women are sympathetic towards others.

Another justification for gender differences in forgiveness may be found from the remarkable study conducted by Ghaemmaghmi et al. (2011), which revealed that interpersonal conflicts are ordinary component of human life, which one must manage or handle also at work. Reactions to interpersonal conflicts differ between of men and women, with men being more vengeful and women being more forgiving. On the basis of research on the constructs of anger, revenge, hostility and aggression (El-Sheikh et al., 2000), and also consistent with the meta-analysis on forgiveness (Miller et al., 2008), men are less forgiving than women. Specifically, at workplace women may exhibit higher benevolence motivations, fewer confrontations and less vengeful motivations in comparison to men (Ghaemmaghmi et al., 2011; Moutinho & Vargas-Sanchez,



2018).

The results of the present study revealed that female employees (mean = 4.75) tend to forgive the situation more than male employees (mean = 4.53). This reflected that female employees tend to respond positively when it comes to forgiveness of uncontrollable situations at work. They try to make peace with bad circumstances, because it is not really hard for them to understand the negative situations at work and, eventually, they let go of the negative thoughts. Though researchers have found that women, more often than men, report feelings of vulnerability or feel scared to confront workplace difficulties due to personal reasons (e.g., lack of support from significant others) in difficult situations. However, their vulnerability has nothing to do with their ability to handle difficult situations (Roxburgh, 1996; Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000).

Women often utilize coping strategies to resolve difficulties/conflicts more than men. For example, women talk in depth and at length about the context of bad circumstances/situations at work, particularly focusing on their involvement in the relationship with the other party and emphasize fairness of dealings in a way that incorporates both their interests and the network of relationships. Men, on the other hand, use more rational and legalistic perspectives at work and are less able to forgo the bad situations they encounter (Davis et al., 2010).

Researchers have also found support for the role of women as a 'peacemaker' in an organization (Davis et al., 2010; Kolb, 1992), because they tend to handle difficult situations with more emotional, systemic and structural ways than men and try to make peace through forgiveness, while men become aggressive and vengeful due to high revenge motivations. The high mean score of female employees on forgiveness in the present study may be understood from the relational view of others, a contextual and related definition of self and situations, an emotional understanding of reasons responsible for bad situations and problem-solving through peace and giving another chance to others.

#### **5.2.2.2 Age differences in Forgiveness**

Hypothesis 2(b) was applied to examine the effect of age differences in the tendency to forgive self, others and situations. The results revealed that young employees tend to forgive self (mean = 5.03) more than middle- (mean = 4.73) and old-age employees (mean = 4.46). This meant that young employees are likely to forgive their own mistakes while old age employees face difficulties in forgiving themselves at work. This may be attributed to the fact that generally young people usually work at a junior level of management and, to a large extent, are fresher or in the early stages of their career. With new roles and responsibilities, they tend to make mistakes as they are learning, whereas middle-aged and old employees are seniors having good long years

of work experience, holding higher positions in the organizations and are well acquainted with their roles and responsibilities at work, thus, less tend to make mistakes. Moreover, they are aware of the fact that any mistake by them will affect their image and reputation and can bring severe problems to the organizations. Researchers have also found that with growing age, employees become more conscious of their image at work and, compared to young employees, get more affected by any wrongs that they may have done (Olson et al., 2012; Schulte et al., 2013). Their lower self-forgiveness may be attributed to this.

The results further indicated that old employees (mean = 4.99) are more likely to forgive others as compared to middle-aged (mean = 4.69) and young employees (mean = 4.41). This meant that employees become wiser, experienced and reflective at work with age. They focus on controlling their emotions and prioritize healthy interpersonal relationships at work. Moreover, with life experiences, they attain greater stability in their emotions and are less affected by exposure to and frequency and severity of negative events/episodes at work, because they have already faced and handled many interpersonal harm at work. Therefore, they make all efforts to keep away from getting upset by others and focus on employees' relational self and prioritize goodwill. In contrast, young employees are unable to anticipate and avoid interpersonal conflicts and hence aggressively respond to such negative situations.

The findings in this study concerning age differences in forgiveness of others are consistent with those from the studies conducted by Allemand (2008) and Toussaint et al. (2001). These authors found that the ability to forgive others is positively related with age and that older people are more forgiving than young and middle-aged people. Luong et al. (2011) emphasized that with age, relationship becomes better, and hence people become more forgiving in their middle- and old age. A study conducted by Schulte et al. (2013) on a sample of 313 employees in 54 teams from electrical and automotive industry revealed that there are age-related differences in the forgiveness tendency; old-age employees are more forgiving than young and middle-aged ones.

The results showed that old employees (mean = 5.01) tend to forgive the situations in comparison to middle-aged (mean = 4.70) and young employees (mean = 4.42). It may be due to the fact that they are aware that conflicting situations do not arise automatically and people are responsible for whatever bad circumstances they face at workplace. Therefore, at young age, may be due to less work experience and understanding, the likelihood of forgiving the situation is less. Middle-aged and old employees have good long years of experience and hence tend to be more forgiving to situations. Sadiq and Mehnaz (2017) also observed that old people tend to forgive the situations more than middle-aged and young people. People appraise life events as less stressful in their

later life (Aldwin, 1991). Previous research have also described elderly people reporting less negative emotions as compared to young people (Allemand, 2008; Schulte et al., 2013). A situation may invoke negative emotions, feelings and behaviors if it violates the positive assumptions pertaining to self and circumstances (Thompsons et al., 2005). When, people are unforgiving towards situations, their positive beliefs and schemas are converted into negative ones and, as a result, they are overwhelmed with negative emotions and thoughts. It is consistent with the findings of Thompson et al. (2005), who opined that forgiveness of situation leads to lower anger, anxiety and depression.

### **5.2.2.3 Organization Type Differences in Forgiveness**

Hypothesis 2(c) was applied to test whether public sector employees perceive forgiveness dimensions differently from employees working in private sector organizations. Results indicated that the mean score of employees working in public sector organizations were higher for forgiveness of self (mean; public = 4.93, private = 4.70,  $p < .05$ ) and others (mean; public = 4.83, private = 4.61,  $p < .05$ ) as compared to private sector employees. This reflected that the forgiveness (self and others) tendency of employees differs according to the organizational set-up (public or private). Posner and Schmidt (2012) also found that private sector employees, while starting with an organizations, perceive a low level of forgiveness at work, whereas public sector employees have high level of forgivingness at work. This is also consistent with the findings of Robinson & Rousseau (2008), who, in a study on a sample of 128 employees from the USA working in different companies, found that public sector employees place greater importance on the values of helpfulness, cheerfulness and forgiveness than private sector employees.

Also, Sharma and Garg (2016) reported the similar findings that employees working in private organizations less tend to forgive than employees working in public sector organizations because due to cut-throat competition in private sector they have lower level of mistake tolerance level. They further highlighted that in public sector also forgiveness does not propagate to accept or grant the forgiveness to such an employee who does it regularly or casually but it propagates good health, improvement in performance, enriching the psychological work environment and excellence in the organization by the correcting the mistakes and learning from mistakes. Additionally, enormity of mistakes influence the tendency to forgive at work (Kumar & Dixit, 2014).

Researchers have also opined that specific traits of people working in public and private sector affect the likelihood of forgiveness at work. For example, Baldwin (2010) found that public sector employees in Poland give more importance to moral and human values as they work with

the perspective of social service, and hence they show more tendency to forgive than private sector employees. However, private sector employees, due to repercussions of making mistakes at work, find it difficult to forgive themselves and others. Employees working in public sector organizations, on the other hand, easily forgo their own mistakes as well as committed by their colleagues due to job security and the social service value (Seth et al., 2005). Akeel and Indra (2013) also reported similar findings from a sample of 128 employees working in banks operating in Libya, which supported the view that private sector banks, being driven by the motive of profit, give lower consideration to forgiveness at work than public sector banks.

The results showed that the tendency to forgive situations did not differ between employees working in public and private sector organizations (mean; public = 4.60, private = 4.54;  $p > .05$ ). This can be attributed to the fact that these situations are often uncontrollable and people unintentionally get involved, which can happen in organizations irrespective of being public or private. In other words, the type of organizational ownership does not affect the tendency of the employees to forgive situations or not. Taylor (2010) also suggested that employees have to adjust with people and offensive situations at work in order to function effectively on a day-to-day basis, irrespective of whether they work for public or private sector.

### **5.2.3 Accomplishment of Objective 3 of the Study**

The third objective of this study was to assess employees' perceptions of happiness in Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables, namely, gender, age, and type of organization. To examine this, all the three dimensions that constitute the happiness construct were assessed using the selected demographic variables.

#### **5.2.3.1 Gender Differences in Happiness**

Hypothesis 3(a) aimed to test that perceptions of happiness dimensions will differ according to gender. The results indicated that mean score of females was higher for positive affect (mean difference = .270), whereas male employees scored higher on the dimensions of negative affect (mean difference = .660) and life satisfaction (mean difference = .260). This reflected that Indian female employees show more positive emotions, for instance, feeling excited, interested, proud, and inspired, while male employees show more negative emotions such as distress, irritability, jitteriness and hostility. Notably, in patriarchal societies (like in India), gender has been considered a crucial factor in influencing the emotional behavior of individuals (Awasthi & Ojha, 2007; Simon & Nath, 2004), as they are supposed to play gender roles as expected by others.

Kemper (1990) also reported that men and women may vary in the type and amount of their

emotional behavior. The expression of aggression such as anger, hostility and outrage is considered normal in men but unacceptable for women and, interestingly, the expression of positive emotions is conventionally more expected from women in comparison to men (Brody, 2000). However, it does not mean that men do not experience positive emotions; they tend to express positive emotions less because expression of positive emotions is linked with femininity (Jansz, 2000).

Studies on emotional expression have also indicated that, overall, with the exception of anger, women are more expressive in terms of their emotions than men and they express themselves in different ways (Simon & Nath, 2004). Specifically, women ostensibly express their positive emotions. For example, they smile more often than their male counterparts. On the other hand, men have a disposition to suppress expression of positive emotions (LaFrance & Hecht, 2000). Because of these, perceived dissimilarities in emotional expression add to the reasoning of high emotional quotient of women than men with a special reference to the expressivity of positive emotions (Alexander & Wood, 2000; Awasthi, 2017).

In addition to the above, female employees reported lower life satisfaction than male employees in the present study. Inconsistent with previous studies (e.g., Casas et al., 2013; Cummins, 2014), male employees reported comparatively high life satisfaction than female employees in the current study. These gender differences in satisfaction with life may be attributed to the variables related to contextual and cultural specificity. It can be attributed to the fact that, in the Indian society, gender is a foundational factor for social categorization. In Indian organizations, gender has been considered as a crucial factor for the diversity efforts in the workforce (Kundu et al., 2017; Verma, 2009). Kundu (2003) also found that there is gender-based difference in the perceptions of employees. The findings of the present study are in line with the research conducted by Dorahy et al. (1996), which revealed that Indian female employees reported comparatively lower life satisfaction than male employees. Furthermore, the authors highlighted that female employees are satisfied with their co-workers and job, whereas male employees are more concerned (basis of satisfaction) about their salary, promotion and supervision.

Recently, researchers have highlighted that gender equality is at the forefront in the global humanitarian agenda. Joshi et al. (2015) mentioned the progress made in some developing countries for women. We know that women are now entering the workforce in higher number globally and have been working in top positions in business, education and government, and thus are encouraging gender diversity in the workforce around the world (Ali et al., 2011). India is not untouched by these drastic social, cultural and economic changes. As a result, like never

before, female participation in Indian workforce has increased substantially. However, it still lags behind the participation of men (Dahiya & Rangnekar, 2019a). Similar to countries having low gender ratio, Indian society also adheres to the traditional gender roles. Indian society still considers men as the prime bread winner and expects women to look after the household. In their study, Hughes et al. (2003) suggested that the conventional role of women to take care of the family may lead them to take up and value those jobs that provide more work flexibility and support work–life balance.

Researchers have stated that men and women have different preferences for work (Bhargava & Baral, 2009; Chatterjee et al., 2015). For example, women may prefer the work that involves helping others or emotional labour. In today's society, women's roles often include fulfilling family obligations, caregiving for children and/or elderly parents and work responsibilities as well as other roles. As demands increase to carry out these roles, women can feel overwhelmed and dissatisfied because of time pressure, unmet obligations and increase in the gap between expected and real-life experiences. Because of the multiple roles that they play, female employees might have reported lower life satisfaction than male employees.

### **5.2.3.2 Age Differences in Happiness**

Hypothesis 3(b) was applied to examine the effect of age difference on the dimensions of happiness. The results revealed that positive affect of employees (mean; young = 4.51, middle = 4.79, old = 5.09,  $p < .001$ ) and life satisfaction (mean; young = 4.37, middle = 4.66, old = 4.98,  $p < .05$ ) increase with age, whereas negative affect decreases with age (mean; young = 4.98, middle = 4.69, old = 4.38,  $p < .001$ ). This is consistent with the findings of Lawton et al. (1993), which established that across the adult lifespan, positive affect of an individual may change. Various studies have supported that old individuals have more stability with respect to positive affect when compared with young and middle-aged individuals (Carstensen et al., 2003). Researchers have also affirmed that as one ages, there is also a certain increase in their positive affect at work (Carstensen et al., 2003; Shook et al., 2017). Important individual factors such as personality, health or well-being can also cause positive affect at work (Narayana et al., 2014; Ready et al., 2011; Seth et al., 2006). Old-age employees have good long years of experience and due to acquisition of more accomplished and efficient emotion regulatory skills, in other words, being more focused on emotion regulatory strategy, they tend to report less negative affect and more positive affect at work.

The possibility of maximizing positive experience and minimizing negative experience is based on the theory of socio-emotional selectivity (Carstensen et al., 1999). Researchers have also

found that positive affect in old age is comparatively stable and more likely to have a greater balancing in affective level, even after experiencing negative events at work (Röcke et al., 2009). On the other hand, it has been found that young employees are unable to anticipate and evade negative events (Birditt et al., 2005). Phillips et al. (2006) established that the feeling of anger is more acute in young people than in older people. Researchers have stated that young employees are prone to face a variety of high intensity transgressions more frequently (Akiyama et al., 2003; Chatterjee et al., 1997; Steiner et al., 2011) than middle-aged and old employees. Young employees are not able to handle such transgressions appropriately and hence experience more negative affect at work. This is consistent with the study conducted by Downey (2008) on a sample of 227 employees from Virginia. It was found in their study that young employees experienced more negative affect while middle-aged and old employees experienced more positive affect.

The results showed that an employee's life satisfaction varies with age (mean; young = 4.37, middle = 4.66, old = 4.98,  $p < .05$ ). Life satisfaction in old-age employees is significantly more than in employees who are middle-aged or young. Increment in age is usually associated with more work experience, satisfaction with work performance, achievement of a higher position in the organization and a rise in income. The findings of the present study are in alignment with previous studies that claim that age has a significant impact on life satisfaction, so much so that younger employees feel less satisfied in comparison to older employees (Hamarat et al. 2001; Lee & Wilbur, 1985). Additionally, Hamarat et al. (2001) also showed that there is a positive relationship between age and life satisfaction.

Past studies have indicated that younger adults perceive more stress, while in middle-aged and older adults, the effectivity of the coping resource is more than it is in younger adults (e.g., Hamarat et al., 2001). The present findings in the Indian context are interesting as younger employees more often work at a lower level of hierarchy and earn a lower income, and this is associated with social and economic status in India (Shastri et al., 2011). As per Robbins et al. (2009), for young employees, salary is more important whereas old employees look for higher-order needs such as position and power. Also, young employees encounter more social pressure such as getting settled in life or starting a family. However, income is a significant factor for them, which defines their overall life satisfaction. Older employees, who are generally working at a senior level and are fetching more income, on the other hand, attach more importance to their position in the organization. In line with this reasoning, young employees reported lower life satisfaction than middle-aged and old employees in Indian organizations.

### 5.2.3.3 Organization Type Differences in Happiness

Hypothesis 3(c) was applied to test that public sector employees would perceive happiness dimensions differently from the employees working in private sector organizations. The results indicated that employees working in public sector organizations scored higher for positive affect (mean; public = 5.01, private = 4.68;  $p < .01$ ) and life satisfaction (mean; public = 4.84, private = 4.58;  $p < .05$ ), while private sector employees reported higher score for negative affect (mean; public = 4.61, private = 4.84;  $p < .05$ ). This can be attributed to the fact that private organizations pay less and demand more work, which contribute to the atmosphere of constant mental and physical fatigue. This further leads to stress and frustration, thereby acutely affecting the employees' emotional well-being. The findings for this hypothesis are consistent with the study conducted by ASSOCHAM (Associated Chambers of Commerce and Industry of India), which showed that 42.5% employees working in Indian private sector reported affect imbalance (more negative affect than positive affect; Joshi, 2018).

Additionally, private sector in India has become the hub of 'cheap labour' for most of the employers across the globe. This leads to extremely demanding schedules, elevated stress levels and constant performance pressure on employees. Thus, in a bid to aid and add to the 'cheap labour' of the corporate industry, Indian working class in private sector has traded its peace of mind and leisure. Even for managers, and other top ranking officers working in the private sector, the situation is not different, but is often graver in comparison to public sector organizations.

Another important justification for the higher mean score of employees working in public sector organizations for positive affect and life satisfaction is the prevalence of seniority-based pay system in comparison to performance-based pay system in private sector (Budhwar & Boyne, 2004). In India, age is still considered an essential factor in designing the pay structure (Pio, 2007). Employees working in private sector might have felt less satisfied because their pay system is linked with performance and it is a likely reason for further frustration that results in their lower life satisfaction. A study conducted in 2010 by Frey and Stutzer revealed that there is a large variation in the life satisfaction (one dimension of happiness) of government employees (working in Switzerland) in comparison to the private employees. Thus, there are certain differences in happiness of employees according to the type of organization they work in.

Also, many researchers have reported results that support the view that people working in public sector experience lower pressure in job (e.g., Blank, 1985) and higher emotional well-being, which is further related to higher job security and better working timings (Demoussis & Giannakopoulos, 2007). Heywood et al. (2002) and Okun et al. (2007) offered a more nuanced



view of the extent of higher job satisfaction and life satisfaction in public sector employees, arguing that people working in public sector organizations have better work-life balance than those working in private sector. Therefore, employees working in Indian public sector report better positive affect, lower negative affect and higher life satisfaction than private sector employees.

#### **5.2.4 Accomplishment of Objective 4 of the Study (Organizational Trust Dimensions on Happiness)**

The fourth objective was to examine the relationship between organizational trust and happiness in Indian organizations. For this, all three dimensions, which constitute the organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) and happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction) were subjected to correlation and multiple hierarchical regression analysis. The results of correlational analysis revealed that there is a positive significant relationship between organizational trust dimensions (competence, benevolence and reliability) and positive affect and life satisfaction, whereas negative relationship exists with negative affect. Further, results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis indicated that all dimensions of organizational trust significantly predicted the dimensions of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction).

Findings of this hypothesis (4a) reflected that trust on the competence of co-workers and organization affects the positive affect ( $\beta = .076$ ) and negative affect ( $\beta = -.106$ ) at work. It also impacts life satisfaction of employees ( $\beta = .063$ ), which is a broader concept. Consistent with past studies (Mason et al., 2016; Meyer & Maltin, 2010), the findings for this hypothesis means that perceived competence as the dimension of organizational trust brings good emotional workplace outcomes such as being interested, calm, determined and inspired, and curbs the feelings of fear and/or jitteriness at work. Griffin et al. (2002) also suggested that trust in the competence of others leads to lesser psychological distress and promotes the affect balance. Moreover, in line with the findings of Hofer and Busch (2011), the results of the present study also showed that experiences of perceived competence are associated with the life satisfaction of employees, as work domain is part of the overall life domain. Moreover, supporting the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), perceived competence is important in all types of functioning areas, which might contribute to emotional well-being and life satisfaction.

The findings of hypothesis 4(b) reflected that employees have a perception that benevolence-based trust provides them an individualized form of care within the work domain, for example, concern for the welfare of co-workers and having confidence that people in the organization will

respond constructively and with care to solve their problems. They also believe that the organization will look after their needs and desires and take decisions in their best interest. These perceptions affect their positive affect ( $\beta = .144$ ), negative affect ( $\beta = -.111$ ) and life satisfaction ( $\beta = .126$ ). Martela and Ryan (2016) highlighted that benevolence at work is also expressed with non-work reference in the organization as a form of individualized care; for example, considering co-workers as family members, helping them in personal emergencies and adversities, which might impact their affect level in terms of enhanced positive affect and reduced negative affect at work.

Additionally, Kashyap et al. (2016) asserted that going beyond professional relationships and showing holistic concerns impact life satisfaction of employees and result in positive changes in the affect level. Recent studies (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016; Martela & Ryan, 2016) have also emphasized that through positive social exchanges at work, employees experience emotional well-being and life satisfaction.

Findings of hypothesis 4(c) highlighted that reliability-based trust is positively linked with affect (positive affect;  $\beta = .109$ , negative affect;  $\beta = -.159$ ) and life satisfaction ( $\beta = .143$ ). As suggested by Bhal and Ansari (2007), employees perceive that people in the organization have a strong sense of justice, promote integrity and do not tolerate unethical actions and behavior. This further impacts the affect level at work in a positive way by reducing negative and enhancing positive emotions, and thus contributes to the overall satisfaction. This is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Agote, 2013; Kelloway et al., 2012) suggesting that reliability-based trust creates positive psychosocial environment, which evokes positive emotions in employees and tends to reduce negative emotions by providing psychological safety at work. This also contributes in the overall satisfaction (Elgar et al., 2011). Furthermore, in line with the development of positive psychology (e.g., Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Snyder & Lopez, 2002), there has been more emphasis on the role of trust in creating a healthy work environment, which implies promotion of affect balance and life satisfaction (Seligman, 2008).

#### **5.2.5 Accomplishment of Objective 5 of the Study (Forgiveness Dimensions on Happiness)**

The fifth objective of the study was to examine the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in Indian organizations. For this, all three dimensions, which constitute forgiveness (self, others, situations) and happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction), were subjected to correlation and multiple hierarchical regression analysis. The results of the correlational analysis revealed that there is a positive significant relationship between forgiveness dimensions (self, others and situations) and positive affect and life satisfaction, whereas negative

relationship exists with negative affect. Again, the results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis indicated that forgiveness of self significantly predicts the dimensions of happiness (positive affect;  $\beta = .175$ , negative affect;  $\beta = -.156$  and life satisfaction;  $\beta = .106$ ). Also, forgiveness of others significantly impacts the dimensions of happiness (positive affect;  $\beta = .167$ , negative affect;  $\beta = -.127$  and life satisfaction  $\beta = .112$ ). The results further revealed that forgiveness of situations significantly affects the dimensions of happiness (positive affect;  $\beta = .115$ , negative affect;  $\beta = -.108$  and life satisfaction ( $\beta = .101$ ).

The results of this hypothesis reflected that forgiveness at work has a spill-over effect on the happiness of Indian employees. The spill-over model claims that an effect of one domain has a tendency to spill over to other domains (Unanue et al., 2017), suggesting that forgiveness in work domain predicts the happiness of employees. The findings of the present study offer significant empirical evidence for the same. This is in concordance with previous studies (Bono et al., 2008; Toussaint & Friedman, 2009), indicating that forgiveness dimensions significantly predict higher positive affect, lower negative affect and higher life satisfaction.

The findings further revealed that by forgiving self and forgiving offenders, Indian employees feel relaxed, free and calm as a result of the release of the feelings of resentments and revenge instead of inclinations towards hostility. Moreover, self-forgiveness provides them an internal stability, linear thinking by learning from mistakes, and helps them in letting go of resentments, which is also in alignment with the stress and coping model of self-forgiveness propounded by Toussaint et al. (2017). Thus, forgiving oneself acts as a guard against negativity. It predicts lower negative affect and promotes higher positive affect in employees.

As suggested by Allemand et al. (2013), forgiveness leads to empathy, compassion and love. The forgiver denounces negative judgements about the transgression and such thought process leads to change in the attribution of blame. Consistent with the Hobfoll (1989), who posits that effective coping, that is, forgiving the transgressions as a recovery approach in the current context, also enables Indian employees to manage their emotions at work, and this results in increased positive affect and decreased negative affect.

Although forgiveness of self and forgiveness of situations have been considered intentional, the results of the present study prove that both have a significant negative relationship with negative affect of employees (e.g., feeling guilty, afraid, hateful, nervous, sad, irritable, scared, ashamed, or upset). Moreover, the results indicated that interpersonal forgiveness or forgiveness of others significantly predicts lower negative affect in employees, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Akhtar et al., 2017; Allemand et al., 2013; Green et al., 2012). McCullough

et al. (2007) suggested that people who forgive self, others and situations are less likely to brood over past experiences, and this contributes to their mental health and well-being.

The findings also suggest that a safe and non-vindictive release of the feelings of bitterness and annoyance for a colleague heals emotional wounds and supports one to repair damaged relationships. Forgiveness offers a path for employees to manage their negative emotions, which are the consequences of transgressions, in such a way that it can empower and help them in successfully functioning at work.

Particularly, workplace forgiveness works as protection mechanism, which helps employees to remain calm under adverse circumstances, relieve distress and retain a quiet temperament. Employees' evaluation of offenses or wrongdoings, or when the source of transgression cannot be ascribed to anyone, reasonably contributes towards their life satisfaction (Macaskill, 2012; Toussaint et al., 2017). Additionally, interpersonal forgiveness or forgiving others increases positive affect, such as love, empathy, and compassion towards the offender by reducing negative emotions.

Self-forgiveness also regulates excessive negative affect in people. Researchers have found that both of these encourage cooperative behavior through a prosocial exchange, build strong interpersonal working relations, increase commitment and enhance satisfaction level (Aquino et al. 2003; Chaudhari, 2017; Shastri et al., 2010; Struthers et al., 2005; Worthington & Scherer, 2004). Also, by forgiving others, people tend to experience more positive emotions such as welfare and gratitude and thereby develop social support, which might contribute towards their life satisfaction (Zhu, 2015). This is also consistent with the study conducted by Chang et al. (2017), which showed that schemas related to self as well as to important others are unique factors of life satisfaction.

In the collectivistic culture of India, people depend on each other and thus expose themselves and others for transgressions. Seeing the helping attitude of Indians, promoting interpersonal forgiveness might work as a preventive measure to regulate stress and conflicts among employees and contribute towards their satisfaction with life. Because workplace is an environment that employees cannot escape, effectively coping with stressors and aversive emotions that arise at work is essential for employees' well-being.

Consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Thompson et al. (2005), the results of the present study also showed that forgiveness of situations predicts lower negative affect. Employees have to face unpleasant and uncontrollable negative situations at work where neither they nor others are the source of transgression, and by forgiving these situations, they ultimately

overcome negative affect. However, sufficient evidence could not be found in the literature with regard to forgiveness of situations, probably because this dimension is relatively new in forgiveness research. It, however, is substantial enough to warrant attention.

The discussion above suggests that Indian employees, even working in the current exigent business environment, can understand and accept mistakes made by them intentionally or unintentionally. When employees do not hold grudges against themselves, learn from their mistakes and forgive themselves, it significantly contributes towards their life satisfaction. They become free from the emotional baggage (shame, regret, frustration), which impacts their well-being and life satisfaction (Woodyatt et al., 2017). Through this mental clarity, employees can not only use their mental resources to face new challenges and adapt to changes but may also be able to find new ways to creativity and innovation.

### **5.2.6 Accomplishment of Objective 6 of the Study (Forgiveness as a Mediator)**

The sixth objective was to test the mediating role of forgiveness in the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. As hypothesized, Indian employees with more organizational trust revealed greater happiness. The results revealed that organizational trust is linked with forgiveness ( $\beta = .296$ ;  $p < .01$ ) and forgiveness partially mediates the relationship between organizational trust and happiness ( $\beta$  value reduced from .341 to .291 with  $p < .01$  with the presence of mediating variable, i.e., forgiveness).

The results are in line with the findings of a study conducted by Martin et al. (2005), which suggested that employees with positive perceptions of work environment are able to adjust with work better and are more likely to experience greater psychological well-being. Fredrickson (2001) found that employees who feel grateful and witness positive social exchanges at workplace may experience high positive emotions. Dutton and Heaphy (2003) also suggested that 'high-quality connections' aroused by trust at work may foster positive emotions such as happiness in employees. Also, consistent with broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) and affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001), trust enables employees to create and sustain positive spirals of forgiveness and cultivates happiness of employees.

Researchers have argued that forgiveness in an established relationship is influenced as much as by interpersonal processes as it is by the attributes of the victim and the offender (Kelley et al., 2003; Rusbult et al., 2005; Pethe et al., 2000). Previous studies have indicated that from various perspectives of interpersonal processes related to forgiveness dynamics, one quality that is required utmost is trust in a relationship (Finkel et al., 2007; Rempel et al., 2001). Trust in a relationship enhances forgiveness. For example, after an offence committed by a colleague, those

who trust him/her typically form a more kind interpretation of the offence and tend to make and retain positive evaluation of the wrongdoer. These judgements create an environment in which both the victim and offender are more likely to seek and grant forgiveness (Molden & Finkel, 2010; Shastri, 2008; Yadav, 2018).

Although trust is a complex and multifaceted construct, it impacts an employee's tendency to forgive in different mechanisms (Simpson, 2007). However, one core attribute of trust that emerges frequently in its various definitions is that it primarily includes supposing others to act in a beneficial way. For instance, from the perspective of interdependence proposition of social exchange theory, feelings of trust at work assumes that people in an organization will suppress their personal motivations and emphasize collective benefits (Blau, 1964).

Summarizing the diverse perspectives of trust, Rousseau and colleagues noted that trust fundamentally involves acceptance of 'vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the actions or intentions of another' (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395). From this point of view, organizational trust potentially motivates forgiveness in one of the two ways: it might increase employees' perceptions of protection from likely future offences (i.e., reduce the perceived probability of further loss, making it easier to accept vulnerability), or it might increase employees' perceptions of opportunities for future benefits (i.e., increase the perceived likelihood that one might still have something to gain in the relationship), thus enhancing positive expectations.

Another justification for this hypothesis is that several authors (e.g., Cameron & Caza, 2002; Ojha, 2015; Rego & Cunha, 2012) suggested that exposure to virtuousness in terms of trust and forgiveness produces empathy, love, zest and enthusiasm, which are essential for organizational excellence and managerial success. Such positive emotions may facilitate more effective and sound interpersonal relationships among employees. These positive social bonds at work may help employees meet their social and security needs, leading to greater happiness at work (Rego & Cunha, 2012).

Researchers have further indicated that close and gratifying relationships, built on trust and forgiveness with co-workers, may nurture perceptions of positive emotions, thus promoting happiness at work (Salas-Vallina et al., 2017; Sousa & Porto, 2015). The feelings of trust in the organization may render the job intrinsically rewarding and induce employee well-being (Rego et al., 2011). Observing forgiveness may also engender positive emotions, because the employee experiences psychological safety (Orth et al., 2008) and also considers work situations as controllable (Dahiya & Rangnekar, 2018b). Therefore, this sense of being respected may

reinforce an employee's feeling of self-worth (Ramarajan et al., 2008), which in turn may increase his/her happiness.

### **5.2.7 Accomplishment of Objective 7 of the Study (Organizational Trust as a Mediator)**

The seventh objective was to test the mediating role of organizational trust in the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. As hypothesized, Indian employees with a greater tendency to forgive show greater happiness. Moreover, organizational trust was found to be linked with happiness ( $\beta = .247; p < .01$ ). However, the relationship between forgiveness and organizational trust was non-significant ( $\beta = .009; p > .05$ ). Therefore, this hypothesis could not be accepted in the present study.

As expected, correlational analysis showed that there is a moderate positive relation between forgiveness and happiness. The results were consistent with previous studies documenting the relationship between forgiveness and happiness (Allemand et al., 2012; Bono et al., 2008; Green et al., 2012; Orth et al., 2008). It means that a high level of forgiveness leads to greater happiness. This hypothesis demonstrated that forgiveness is a predictor of happiness. Employees who are able to forgive can control the negative effects of conflict better, which can have a bad impact on the relationship. Moreover, Indian people have the ability to maintain interpersonal harmony (Suchday et al., 2006) and ensure quality relationships with others. Therefore, they tend to forgive others, which in turn leads to reduced negative affect and increase in happiness. In alignment with previous findings (Allemand et al., 2012; Toussaint & Friedman, 2009), the present study found that people who are more forgiving have less negative and more positive affect and experience greater interpersonal social support than those who are less forgiving (Green et al., 2012; Zhu, 2015), which may contribute to their happiness.

However, the linkages between forgiveness and well-being seem to be less robust across various studies. Sartre et al. (2003) and Maltby et al. (2005) found inconsistent relationship between forgiveness and well-being. McCullough et al. (2001) also reported absence of association between forgiveness motives and happiness. However, the present study showed a completely different picture. There was a statistically significant relationship between forgiveness and happiness, most at  $p < .01$  levels, and it was moderate-to-strong in magnitude.

The deviation of our results from the earlier studies could be because such studies were conducted on samples of college students and older adults. The characteristics of working adults are very different from college students as far as perceptions about organizations, work and the impact of day-to-day life on their well-being are concerned (Kundu, 2003). Thus, as the the present study showed, forgiving co-workers for their mistakes, offence or wrongdoing and giving them another

chance to improve might have helped the respondents to increase their happiness. It is evident from the results that while the link between forgiveness and happiness appears to be of great magnitude, the relationship between them, at least as evident in the present study, is important enough to warrant attention.

Though researchers have suggested that trust acts both as a predictor and as an outcome of forgiveness (Molden & Finkel, 2010; Watts & Noh, 2014; Wieselquist, 2009), the present study found that organizational trust is a predictor of forgiveness. The results for the impact of forgiveness on organizational trust were insignificant. This reflected that to forgive an offender or wrongdoer at work, it is necessary to have trust in that offender. Several studies also supported that for forgiveness, it is necessary to have sound and effective interpersonal dynamics in which trust is a fundamental factor (Finkel et al., 2007; Rempel et al., 2001). Therefore, trust is a precursor for forgiveness instead of forgiveness being a precursor of trust in an organization. This bidirectional relationship could not be supported in the present study.

#### **5.2.8 Accomplishment of Objective 8 of the Study**

The eighth objective was to examine the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in Indian organizations with respect to the moderating influence of gender, age and the type of organization.

##### **5.2.8.1 Gender as a Moderator**

Hypothesis 8(a) was about the moderating influence of gender on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. Empirical evidence obtained in the present study showed that forgiveness–happiness relationship is stronger for female employees than for male employees working in the selected Indian organizations. From the results, it is apparent that there is a significant moderating influence of gender on this relationship. The interaction term of forgiveness and gender presented greater predictive validity of happiness ( $\beta = .339$ ;  $p < .01$ ) due to gender differences in forgiveness, such as female showing a high level of forgiveness than their male counterparts, which therefore affected their happiness more.

The results of the present study are also consistent with the study of Miller et al. (2008), where they conducted a meta-analysis of 53 articles reporting 70 studies of gender and forgiveness, which pointed out that women are more forgiving in nature than men. Gender differences in forgiveness may be due to several reasons, namely, differences in measures, methodologies, dispositional qualities in the responses (McCullough et al., 1998), affective traits, coping ability (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996), attachment style and situational differences to response



(Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Moreover, Kohlberg (1984) stated that men are more inclined to transgressions and resort to fighting, vengeance (Miller et al., 2008) more than on justice. Also, Gilligan (1994) suggested that women are more drawn to warmth-based virtues. Another reason for Indian women being more forgiving than men is their religious orientation, which contributes to the tendency to forgive (Freese, 2004; Suchday et al., 2006).

However, our findings are inconsistent with a study conducted by Rijavec et al. (2010), mainly because of two reasons. First, they have used a different scale of forgiveness, which might have influenced the results, and second, the sample characteristics were different than the samples used in our study. Researchers have also asserted that economic security is backed by financial resources, which influence the individuals to be less driven to seek revenge and less defensive, thus more inclined to forgive (Worthington et al., 2007; Watts, 2010). A replication of the study was needed with working population and also with participants of different ages (Rijavec et al., 2010); this requirement has been addressed in the present study.

Another justification for the results of this hypothesis is that few researchers (Kadiangandu et al., 2007; Rego & Cunha, 2009; Kim et al., 2009) have mentioned that forgiveness has been understood in a different way in a collectivistic culture, such as in India, than in an individualistic culture. In a collectivistic culture, people are dependent on each other and one can achieve self-hood by maintaining significant relationships with others rather than by pursuing independence and individuality (Rego & Cunha, 2009). The relationship between forgiveness and gender in a collectivistic culture (such as in India) may thus be more complex in comparison to the relationship previously theorized in Western contexts; it becomes even more complicated when gender dynamics also play their roles.

As indicated by Kemper (1978, 1990), an individual's emotional appraisal and interpretation thereof is shaped by the 'emotion culture' to which he or she belongs. Notably, in patriarchal societies (like in India), gender has been considered a crucial factor in influencing emotional behavior of individuals (Hearn & Parkin, 2007) as they are supposed to play the gender roles as expected by others. Indeed, theory and research proposes that the expression of aggression such as anger, hostility and outrage is considered normal for men but not for women. Interestingly, the expression of positive emotions such as forgiveness is more expected of women than men (Brody, 2000).

Furthermore, in line with the gendered beliefs related to emotion, women usually take up jobs in which more emotional labour is involved and management of emotions and display thereof is underpinned. Women are considered to be naturally nurturing and caring, and are more suitable

for jobs that need these skills (Cliff et al., 2005; Singhal, 2003). It is evident from previous studies that women are more predisposed to emotion-focused coping and avoidance, while men are more predisposed in problem-oriented coping (Matud, 2004). Similar to Western culture, in collectivistic culture like in India, the expression of emotions except anger is seen as a sign of weakness for men.

Lutz (1986) emphasized that an employee's emotions are affected by culture, because orientations of culture such as individualism or collectivism do not work identically in different organizational contexts. Female employees appear to have greater tendency to express emotions and forgive while working than male employees. This association is also consistent with the cultural norms of emotional expression. The findings of the present study showed that this pattern holds true for Indian workplace as well, and that gender significantly moderates the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. With the status of Indian women substantially improved over the years, at work and in general, the findings of the present study are quite relevant.

#### **5.2.8.2 Age as a Moderator**

Hypothesis 8(b) was about the moderating influence of age on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. The empirical evidence obtained in the present study showed that the relationship between forgiveness and happiness is stronger for old-age employees than it is for middle-aged and young employees working in the selected Indian organizations. The interaction term of forgiveness and age presented greater predictive validity of happiness ( $\beta = .357; p < .01$ ) due to various age differences in forgiveness such as having a high level of forgiveness in old age than in middle and young age.

The findings of the present study reflected that as employees grow old, they show a propensity to become more benign towards offenders and develop a tendency to forgive, which consequently diminishes their negative emotions, behaviors and thoughts. Old-age employees are more reflective, more responsible, wiser and more experienced than middle-aged and young employees, and they mostly work at a higher level in the organization. Also, they can use their coping resources more effectively (Gurtu et al., 2017; Hamarat et al., 2001; Henley et al., 2018). They are more conscientious, tend to be in control of their behavior, and are fully aware of their work role identity (Olson et al., 2012).

It is also seen that older Indian employees are more sensitive towards their younger counterparts and prioritize fostering relationships by forgiving transgressors at work (Dahiya & Rangnekar, 2018b). The same is also exhibited in the findings of the present study. Harmony-based orientation of older employees further enables them to give the offenders some chance to correct

their wrongdoing, which makes them happy. The findings of the present study have potential significance for other Asian countries such as Malaysia, Singapore and China, in that it emphasizes relationship building by way of respect for superiors as well as care, love and compassion for juniors. However, this is contrary to the individualistic culture of the Western countries, where individuals consider each other as equals and prefer 'independence' in their relationships (Sandage & Williamson, 2007). Sandage and Williamson (2007) highlighted that there is less emphasis on long-term psychological contract in an individualistic culture like in the USA. On the other hand, for Indian employees, the relationship between forgiveness at work and happiness is likely to benefit them because of the collectivistic culture.

According to socio-emotional selectivity theory, as they age, employees experience fewer problems in their work relationships and become less aggressive, which reflects their conciliatory nature. A major reason is the fact that when individuals are exposed to different social contexts, they are able to comprehend the problems in a better way (Birditt et al., 2005; Carstensen et al., 1999; Mazurek, 2015). Older employees tend to let go their hurtful thoughts and feelings and develop their ability in comprehending the situation in a better way as compared to their younger counterparts. This finding is consistent with previous studies, which state that old people are more forgiving than young people (Dahiya & Rangnekar 2019a; Schulte et al., 2013).

Erickson (1982) revealed that the disposition to forgive increases in the old age, and such a pattern has been observed in the present study also. Undoubtedly, the theoretical background of Erikson (1982) and Carstensen et al. (1999) provide sufficient grounds related to the interactive effect of age on forgiveness and happiness. Moreover, young age is of crucial importance in terms of adopting, adjusting to new roles and identity formation at work. As indicated by Erikson (1982), after successful establishment of one's identity, individuals pass from one stage to another, that is, from intimacy vs. isolation stage to generativity vs. stagnation stage, and then to integrity vs. despair stage. When people resolve the conflicts of each stage, they develop a firm sense of their own identity, which enables them to connect with others. Thereafter, they achieve a sense of intimacy and create strong emotional bonds; they accept the differences with other individuals and, in the process, forgo their own needs (Hamachek, 1990), which help them to progressively move in their career by building a fruitful social network at work.

Thus, the ability and willingness to forgive the offenders, with special reference to abandoning resentments, are indispensable to establish and maintain cooperative relationships and to achieve satisfaction and happiness. A successful resolution of conflict of generativity vs. stagnation is likely to comprise not only the negative but also the positive aspect of forgiveness. It is because

generativity of an individual promotes the welfare of others and results in a caring and benevolent attitude for young people, it further develops prosocial behavior (Mazurek, 2018; Mondal et al., 2018; Slater, 2003), self-disclosure, and establishing emotional support (Erikson, 1982; Hamachek, 1990). Lastly, in the final stage, i.e., integrity vs. despair, an individual looks at the past life and accepts the consequences (Krause & Ellison, 2003; Watts, 2012). Additionally, the increased ability and capacity to cope with resentments over one's lifespan with more focus on positive rather than negative information helps old people to stay calm and peaceful. Thus, forgiveness endorses happiness (Charles & Carstensen, 2010) and achieving integrity is predominantly attributed to self-appreciation and appraisal of others (Hamachek, 1990).

### **5.2.8.3 Organization Type as a Moderator**

Hypothesis 8(c) was about the moderating influence of organization type on the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. The empirical evidence obtained in the present study supported that forgiveness–happiness relationship is stronger for employees working in public sector organizations than for employees working in private sector organizations in India. From the results, it is apparent that there is a significant moderating influence of organization type. The interaction term of forgiveness and organization type presented greater predictive validity of happiness ( $\beta = .342$ ;  $p < .01$ ) due to differences in organization type for forgiveness, such that for public sector employees, a high level of forgiveness affected their happiness more than employees working in private sector organizations.

The findings for this hypothesis can be attributed to the fact that when an individual's tendency to forgive interacts with the traits and values of the organization in which he/she works, it affects their happiness. Posner and Schmidt (2012) revealed that aspirants for public sector jobs perceive higher forgiveness at work than private sector aspirants. Moreover, consistent with the study conducted by Robinson and Rousseau (2008), public sector employees (sample of 128 employees from the USA, working in different companies) place greater importance to the values of helpfulness, cheerfulness, empathy-sensitivity and forgiveness than private sector employees. Also, Baldwin (1990) argued that public sector employees work with the perspective of social service that might contribute to more forgivingness and upward spirals of positive emotions such as happiness.

Interestingly, Akeel and Indra (2013) reported similar findings in a sample of 128 employees working in banks operating in Libya. It was found that private sector banks driven by the motive of profit give lower consideration to forgiveness at work than public sector banks. In contrast, as suggested by Schulte et al. (2013), employees working in public organizations are generally

concerned about serving public interests and community and also give more priority to intrinsic rewards (granting forgiveness) than extrinsic rewards. Researchers have highlighted that individuals see granting and seeking forgiveness as intrinsically rewarding, which contributes to emotional well-being and satisfaction (Dahiya & Rangnekar 2018a; Kim & Won, 2007; Rego & Cunha, 2012). However, private sector employees, due to repercussions of making mistakes/offense at work, find it difficult to forgive. On the other hand, owing to better job security and the perspective for social service, employees working in public sector organizations easily forgo mistakes/offences. Moreover, because private sector employees encounter more negative behavioral outcomes such as opportunistic and ego-centric behavior of colleagues because of the prevalence of cut-throat competition within the organization, they become risk averse for future and show less tendency to forgive others. On the other hand, the high tendency to forgive others contribute in greater happiness among public sector employees.

### **5.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter is a discussion of the results of the present study. It started with an introduction, which comprehensively summarised how the researcher selected the three variables for the study with the strategic relevance of the research problem. All research objectives were then stated with their hypotheses and findings and were further supported with relevant literature.

**CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE SCOPE**

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**6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study. It also discusses the implications of the study for human resource practitioners. The limitations of the study are also noted along with suggestions and directions for future research in the field.

**6.2 CONCLUSION**

The aim of the study was to explore the domain of employee well-being. Broadly, happiness research is the area selected for further screening. In the process of reviewing the literature, the researcher observed that the perspective of the employee has been relatively overlooked by happiness researchers. The observation was further supported when the researcher attempted to list all studies focused on happiness in the Indian context. Surprisingly, it was found that a majority of happiness literature is dominated by the research related to job satisfaction, employee engagement, job stress, burnout, employee performance and health.

After selecting happiness as the main variable for the present study, relevant literature was searched for the potential antecedents of the construct of happiness. As a result, two variables, organizational trust and forgiveness, were identified as the potential predictors of happiness. These variables were selected considering the strategic relevance of the variable of happiness in Indian context. Thus, this study focused upon the relationships among organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness.

Also, the study aimed to continue research in the field of employee demographics by studying age, gender and organizational type differences in the perceptions of organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness. The study further sought to extend the research areas by proposing and testing a model that integrated a variable forgiveness that may emerge as the core value of organizations and may explain the relationship between trust and happiness. Further, the relationship was sought to be understood with the moderating influence of age, gender and organization type.

The first objective of the study was to assess employees' propensity for organizational trust in the selected Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables gender, age and the type of organization. For this, all three dimensions that constitute the construct of organizational trust were assessed using these demographic variables.

From the results for hypotheses 1(a), 1(b) and 1(c), following conclusions can be drawn.

- Gender does not influence on competence-based trust while there were significant differences based on gender in the propensity for benevolence- and reliability-based trust. While female employees reported higher benevolence-based trust, male employees reported higher reliability-based trust.
- Employees' propensity to trust the competence and benevolence of the people in the organization decreases with age. However, the level of reliability-based trust increases with age.
- Also, organization type does not influence competence-based trust. However, private sector employees reported lesser benevolence-based trust and public sector employees reported higher reliability-based trust.

The second objective of the study was to examine employees' tendency to forgive in the selected Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables gender, age and the type of the organization.

The results for hypotheses 2(a), 2(b) and 2(c) revealed these key points.

- Male employees scored high on the dimension of self-forgiveness whereas female employees scored high on the dimension of forgiveness of others and situations.
- The findings further indicated that young employees tend to forgive self more than middle-aged and old employees. Also, old employees are more likely to forgive others and situations as compared to middle-aged and young employees.
- The employees' tendency to forgive (self and others) differ according to the organization type, with public sector employees being more forgiving than private sector employees. However, forgiveness of situations did not differ according to the type of the organization.

The third objective of the study was to assess the employees' perceptions of happiness in the selected Indian organizations with respect to demographic variables gender, age and the type of organization. For this, all three dimensions that constitute the construct of happiness were assessed using these demographic variables.

From the findings for hypotheses 3(a), 3(b) and 3(c), following conclusions can be drawn.

- Perceptions of happiness differs according to the gender. Male employees reported higher negative affect, lower positive affect and higher life satisfaction than female employees did.
- Old employees reported higher positive affect, lower negative affect and higher life

satisfaction in comparison to middle-aged and young employees.

- Employees working in public sector organizations scored higher for positive affect and life satisfaction while private sector employees reported higher score for negative affect.

The fourth objective of the study was to examine the relationship between organizational trust and happiness in the selected Indian organizations. For this all three dimensions, which constitute the organizational trust (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust), and happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction) were considered for analysis. The findings suggested that there are positive significant relationships between organizational trust dimensions (competence-, benevolence- and reliability-based trust) and positive affect and life satisfaction, whereas negative relationship with negative affect. Also, all dimensions of organizational trust significantly predict the dimensions of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction). These findings suggest that organizational trust facilitates an upward spiral of positive emotions resulting in the happiness of employees.

From the results for hypotheses 4(a), 4(b) and 4(c), following conclusions can be drawn.

- Among the dimensions of organizational trust, benevolence-based trust was found to be the strongest predictor of positive affect.
- The reliability-based trust is the strongest predictor in reducing negative affect of employees.
- Reliability-based trust was also the strongest predictor of satisfaction with life.

The fifth objective of the study was to examine the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in the selected Indian organizations. For this, all three dimensions, which constitute forgiveness (self, others and situations) and happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction) were considered for investigation. A positive significant relationship between forgiveness dimensions (self, others and situations) and positive affect and life satisfaction was found, whereas a negative relationship was found with negative affect. Further, the results of multiple hierarchical regression analysis indicated that all dimensions of forgiveness at work (self, others and situations) significantly predicted the dimensions of happiness (positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction). This reflected that forgiveness at work has a spill-over effect on the overall happiness of Indian employees.

From the results of hypothesis 5(a), 5(b) and 5(c), following conclusions can be drawn.

- Among the forgiveness dimensions, self-forgiveness was the strongest predictor of positive affect.



- Self- forgiveness is strongest predictor in reducing negative affect of employees.
- Interpersonal forgiveness was found to be the strongest predictor of satisfaction with life.

The sixth objective was to test the mediating role of forgiveness in the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. As hypothesized, Indian employees with more positive perceptions about organizational trust experience greater happiness. Also, organizational trust is linked with forgiveness and forgiveness partially mediates the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. These findings suggest that employees who feel grateful and witness positive social exchanges at workplace may experience high positive emotions. It means that ‘high-quality connections’ aroused by trust and strengthened by forgiveness at work result in greater happiness.

The seventh objective was to test the mediating role of organizational trust in the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. As hypothesized, Indian employees with greater tendency to forgive experience greater happiness. Also, organizational trust was found to be associated with happiness; however, the path from forgiveness to organizational trust was non-significant. This indicated that to forgive an offender or wrongdoer at work, it is necessary to have trust in that person. Also, for forgiveness in the work domain, it is necessary to have sound and effective interpersonal dynamics in which trust is a fundamental factor. Trust is a precursor for forgiveness and not forgiveness precursor of trust in the organization. The past studies have supported that forgiveness granted without trust on wrongdoer can backfire at work because it may encourage the wrongdoers to commit the mistakes frequently (Yao et al., 2017; Zheng, 2018). In alignment with this, bidirectional relationship could not be supported in the present study also.

The eighth objective was to examine the relationship between forgiveness and happiness in the selected Indian organizations with respect to the moderating influence of gender, age and the type of the organization. The findings indicated that forgiveness–happiness relationship is stronger for female employees than for male employees working in the selected Indian organizations. Gender differences in forgiveness may be due to several reasons such as differences in measures, methodologies, dispositional qualities in the responses, affective traits, coping ability, attachment style and situational differences to response. Also, men are more inclined to transgressions and more resorts to fighting, vengeance or justice whereas women are more drawn to virtues.

Forgiveness–happiness relationship is stronger for old employees than for middle-aged and young employees working in the selected Indian organizations. They are more conscientious and tend to be in control of their behavior. They are also fully aware of their work role identity. It is

also seen that older Indian employees are more sensitive towards their younger counterparts and give a higher place to fostering relationships by forgiving transgressors at work. The harmony-based orientation of older employees further guides them to give the offenders some chance to correct the wrongdoing, which gives them happiness. Forgiveness–happiness relationship is stronger for employees working in public sector organizations than for employees working in private sector organizations in India. The findings suggest that due to differences in the type of organization, because of the perspective of social service, better job security and moral values in public sector employees, they have a high level of forgiveness than employees working in private sector organizations.

### **6.3 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION OF THE PRESENT STUDY**

The major contribution of the study is the focus on the happiness of employees working in selected Indian public and private sector organizations, in trying to provide insight on the relationship between organizational trust and happiness with forgiveness as a mediating variable. Also, it was found that organizational trust did not mediate forgiveness- happiness link. Further, the study also empirically supports the moderating influence of age, gender and the type of the organization on the association between forgiveness and happiness. The present study adds to the existing literature in different ways.

Positive organizational behavior researchers (Fisher, 2010; Salas-Vallina et al., 2018) emphasize that regardless of all organization related outcomes of happiness, little is known about the predictors/antecedents that affect or may enhance the happiness of employees. After conducting a thorough review of the relevant literature, we identified two potential predictors of happiness, namely, organizational trust and forgiveness, and empirically examined its association with happiness. Additionally, by providing support to the association between forgiveness and happiness at work, the present study addressed the scarcity of literature regarding the missing link between forgiveness and happiness in organizational context. This study thus fills the gap between psychology and the existing organizational literature. Also, the study researches the most comprehensive yet underexplored concept of forgiveness at work with three dimensions of self, others and situations and organizational trust with the dimensions of competence, benevolence and reliability in relation to the happiness of Indian employees. By examining the impact of relatively underexplored forgiveness and organizational trust dimensions on happiness, this study fills the gap in the literature.

Though several studies has observed the favourable interplay of forgiveness at work under employee well-being and conflict resolution literature, it still has remained empirically

understudied and is one of the most neglected areas of Indian organizational research. Our study contributes to the happiness literature (organizational behaviour in India) by exploring how in the relationship domain; two factors, namely, trust in co-workers and management, and forgiveness tendency of employees can lead to their happiness. The present study has endeavoured to shift the focus of organizational researchers from the negative to the positive facets of human behavior. In the light of this, HR professionals and practitioners cannot merely work on curbing the negative feelings, thoughts and activities anymore; they also have to work on finding and implementing new strategies to release positivity in employees.

Importantly, the study has added to the literature on happiness at work by empirically testing and analyzing a unique and so far unexplored combination of variables as potential antecedents of the happiness of employees in collectivistic cultural settings. Literature indicated that trust, forgiveness and happiness are culture-specific; hence, what is appreciated in one culture may not be in other culture (Aldrin & Gayatri, 2013). Prior to this, individualistic culture of the West has largely dominated the happiness arena in comparison to collectivistic culture. This study can be said to have provided further support for the model for happiness by examining the impact of organizational trust and forgiveness on happiness, which is relatively a less explored model in the domain of relationship satisfaction of happiness literature in India and validating the model on an Indian sample in addition to its proven validity in the West and other parts of the world.

More importantly, all variables under study are measured via instruments which were developed for Western settings. Researchers have highlighted that psychological variables such as trust, forgiveness and happiness are likely to be influenced by the culture of a nation (e.g., individualism and collectivism) and argued that the scale should be checked for its psychometric properties when applied to a different sample, taking into account differences in the characteristics and the culture of the sample (Boonyarit et al., 2013; Durak et al., 2010). India is characteristically different and has a collectivistic culture where societal background and cultural diversity affect the lives of individuals (Biswas-Diener et al., 2012). Currently, Indian culture is an amalgamation of two cultures: one that is emotional and based on the conventional ideology and the other is cognitively rooted in technology. Both affect the lives of working population (Aggarwal et al., 2013; Chhabra, 2018; Gosh, 2007).

Therefore, scales previously validated on Western populations should not be employed without evaluating their validity on a non-Western sample. Our study fills this theoretical gap in the literature by validating the scales for organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness in Indian organizational settings, examining their psychometric properties using an Indian sample, which

is a new contribution in the field. Also, the availability of such ready to use validated instruments would help the scarce happiness literature to grow faster in Indian and comparative studies across cultures.

Amidst the new realities of the modern world, a happy and satisfied workforce has become a necessary requirement for organizations to maintain their competitive edge. Most of the available literature revolves around positive organizational behavior and there is a dearth of research on the influence of organizational trust on happiness via forgiveness in employees. Keeping this in mind, the present study developed and tested a mediation model to examine the relationship between organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness.

The study fills the gap between psychology and the existing organizational literature by investigating the relationship between variables (organizational trust, forgiveness and happiness). Importantly, the study provides valuable insights in the complex relationships among the study variables. The study has attempted to examine the mediating mechanism of forgiveness through which organizational trust is related with the happiness of employees using the theoretical bases of broaden and build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) and affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001).

The study asserts that employees who feel grateful and witness positive social exchanges at workplace may experience high positive emotions. The link between organizational trust and happiness has been explained with the help of forgiveness, as is indicated that negative emotions of revenge or blaming for someone else could be renounced or changed from negative to positive after an attitudinal transformation of an individual towards an offence or transgression by forgiving the offender or the transgressor. Additionally 'high-quality connections' aroused by trust and strengthened by forgiveness at work result in greater happiness. The uniqueness of the study is examining the role of forgiveness as a mediator in the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. This study contributes to the literature by providing empirical evidences for the same. Further, this study attempts to rationalize the impact of forgiveness on happiness through the lenses of age, gender and organization type. Also a robust theoretical base was developed using socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1998) in order to understand these relationships, which increases the applicability of the findings and opens vistas for future research in this direction.

#### **6.4 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

The present study has re-illuminated both the industry and academia by providing greater insights into how organizational trust and forgiveness can affect the happiness of employees. At a time

when the foundational blocks of contemporary organizations are based on mounting competition, changing relationship patterns, customer-oriented bureaucracy, increased focus on productivity and performance and continuous demographical changes affect the lives of Indian employees. In line with this, the present study provides unconventional findings claiming that trust and forgiveness at work can enhance the happiness of employees. An overall assessment of one's happiness depends on various interpersonal sources, among which work relationships are pertinent. Moreover, researchers have emphasized that trust at work is fundamental to relationships and forgiveness helps to develop harmonious relationships at work and has a spill-over effect on the happiness of employees.

Further, this expands the formal roles of organizational members to look into the employees' life holistically and cultivating happiness by organizational trust, and forgiveness is important for organizations. Moreover, balanced affect (promoting positive emotions) might serve to build a new pathway for improving employees' well-being, wherein they not only utilize their mental resources to encounter new challenges at work but also find novel ways to manage the demanding situations and also find new solutions to problems. Moreover, the BHEL organization has utilized our data to create the campus of Happiness.

In addition, the findings of the present study may provide valuable guidance in developing positive psychological interventions and practices intended to enhance happiness in employees. Fostering forgiveness might also work as a preventive therapy to regulate conflicts and contribute to the satisfaction of people. The present study emphasizes the role that forgiveness plays in organizations and urges that managers and leaders must recognize its emerging significance and transform their practices to foster forgiveness at work for instance to enhance the tolerance level for mistakes in the organization.

Forgiveness or *kshama* as a dharma (righteousness/duty) has been recognized as a strong pillar of Indian philosophy. The findings suggest that Indian employees will be more happy and successful if they combine their achievements with the traditional core values such as forgiveness, helpfulness and trust. However, forgiveness is more understood at a subjective level rather than as workplace ethics. Therefore, there is a need to design and implement organizational ethics and development systems to inculcate the values of forgiveness among employees. The findings emphasize the role of forgiveness at work in augmenting happiness of employees and highlight that amidst the complexities of today's competitive work environment, it is very important to practice forgiveness in order to enhance the quality of life. Fostering forgiveness at work will cultivate balanced affect and improve happiness, which will help in stress management.

The study has strong implications for organizations to improve their practices by building a trustworthy, happy and satisfied workforce.

Moreover, the present study has validated instruments in the selected Indian organizations and it is clear that the importance of measuring the variables under study cannot be denied. Therefore, HR managers, professionals, practitioners and behavior scientists should realize the importance of trust, forgiveness and happiness at work in increasing the performance and satisfaction of the employees in an organization and should initiate an assessment of these variables. For this, HR managers should work in association with industrial/organizational psychologists for a structured and standardized procedure of interpretation of the results of assessment at work and substantiate the same with a formal counselling procedure. The results so obtained would help in encouraging the top management and HR managers to review their work policies, task structures and job designs in enhancing the levels of employee's happiness and well-being at work. Practically, the effective use of the validated instruments would help in facilitating the effectiveness of employees at work, thereby contributing towards the overall organizational effectiveness.

Moreover, it would be useful for employers to easily identify the employees who are unhappy and are likely to quit their jobs in future and also those who are less likely to do so. They can also propose a number of motivational interventions and training programmes to improve the level of positive emotions or to reduce the negative emotions at work. Also, HR managers may work through an assessment of the employees' affect at work to find those employees who can do well in challenging situations. It should be borne in mind that the abovementioned suggestions/implications are subject to an effective use of the obtained results from the instruments as a tool to measure these variables. Additionally, it is essential to mention that, given the changing business environment, it has become indispensable for HR managers and practitioners to understand the importance of these variables at work and behavioral outcomes.

It is emphasized in the present study that organizations should arrange for training sessions to promote workplace forgiveness with particular attention to young and male employees in order to guide them about the critical strengths of a trustful and forgiving culture and unwelcome consequences of negative affect at work. In management circles, forgiveness is rarely discussed and seldom included in training programmes. The present study posit that training programmes that also include positive affect would be helpful to employees in understanding and learning the critical strengths of forgiveness in enhancing their positivity. Also, due consideration should be given to age diversity in the organization in transforming human resource planning. Furthermore, organizations should make efforts to develop and implement holistic interventions for both young

and old age employees to foster sensitivity for their tendency to forgive others.

Moreover, organizational psychologists and HR counsellors may also develop psychological tests and use theme-based interventions to foster trust, intrapersonal and interpersonal development of forgiveness at work. In turn, this could help individuals to utilize the forgiveness process in efforts to improve their overall well-being. In addition, by introducing the study of forgiveness among Indians, clinicians will be better able to understand and utilize the process of forgiveness when working with Indian clients. Forgiveness research has been focused on the Western notions of forgiveness. However, in the last few years, cultural research in forgiveness at workplace has increased but continues to lag behind. Indians are one of the least likely people to seek treatment because of their preference to keep private matters private and a lack of culturally trained professionals. They are the least likely people to seek outside help (e.g., counsellors) for distress but by demonstrating competency in understanding forgiveness from this perspectives, clinicians can begin to educate and advocate forgiveness not only in therapy, but also in early intervention programmes.

However, it is emphasized that, although not a noticeable trend yet, fostering forgiveness at work helps in curbing negative affect in the employees. Implementing forgiveness dimensions may be a good substitute for stress management at work. Substantial implications are offered in this study to help organizations for building a happy and satisfied workforce. In addition, human resource professionals and organizational development practitioners should bear in mind that an employee's negative emotions may have adverse outcomes such as absenteeism, increased turnover and workplace deviance. Forgiveness (self, others, situations) predicts lower negative affect and encourages a positive work environment, which may also result in extra-role performance behavior that ultimately contributes to organizational success.

Conversely, modern employees believe in evaluating the efforts made by organizations to ensure their well-being, which has become a determining factor for happiness. Past studies have also revealed the growing importance of happiness of employees. However, organizations cannot attract the pool of talented people any more through their goodwill only or by examples of impressive legendary persons who advanced their careers in the same organization. Happiness has thus become a quintessential factor for organizations and a desirable parameter for job seekers and people working in the organizations.

## **6.4 LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

This section of the chapter presents the limitations of the study and also proposes directions for future research.

1. The results obtained and inferences drawn are based on cross-sectional research design. Although cross-sectional research designs are helpful in collecting data from large sample sizes, they are not suited to establish the relationships of causality. For instance, one might expect that employees who display high levels of happiness are more likely to look forward to forgive their co-workers and trust their organizations and vice-versa. The present study could not test of such causal linkages. Scholars and academicians are invited to examine such linkages through longitudinal research designs and data collected at different time intervals would give more clarity about the relationships under study. In this regard, studies might be conducted to analyse comparisons between the levels of happy versus unhappy employees and their tendency to forgive and trust. It is possible also that happy people are more trusting and willing to forgive.
2. The data collected for the current research was heterogeneous as no industry-specific employees were surveyed. This meant that the findings of the study are not generalizable to the industries not covered in the study. Future studies may also focus on sector-wise analysis to test for similar kind of relationships. For example, one may anticipate that the happiness of employees varies across different sectors (such as software industries). Moreover, cross-cultural comparison can also be done.
3. A small representation of female respondents in the study made it difficult to draw inferences based on gender differentiation in terms of their perceptions with respect to organizational trust. For instance no significant differences were observed between males and females in their perception of some variables (e.g., competence-based trust) of the study. This might be because of the small representation of female participants. So, the generalization of such findings is not possible to whole population. One must be cautious while considering the applicability of the results to the female employees. However, a similar study may be attempted separately for females when sufficient data is available.
4. The present study has focused on only one mediating variable to explain the relationship between organizational trust and happiness. There could be some other mediating variables also related to organizational settings that might better explain the relationships between



organizational trust and happiness. For instance, in the current research the happiness of employees might not have been due to the only effect of strong propensity for organizational trust and forgiveness tendency of people working in the organization. It can also be because of other factors that have not been studied in the current research. For example, one can argue that employees' happiness might be a result of good quality of work life, intelligence and emotional quotient.

Other organizational factors such as work-role fit and flexible working hours, interpersonal level factors such as support from a co-worker and individual level factors such as good health of employee, personality, self-esteem, personal effectiveness or emotional attachment with the workplace may also have certain influence on their tendency to forgive and trust and for their happiness. Further, the present study does not include the intensity and frequency of transgressions at work as a part of the research. Therefore, future research may include these variables along with the intensity, exposure and reaction to the transgression, as they relate to forgiveness and would provide a more in-depth understanding of the relationship between forgiveness and happiness. Moreover, in the present study, relationship between organizational trust and happiness with mediating role of forgiveness has been tested compositely (not on dimension), therefore, future researchers may study the relationship between dimensions (e.g., mediating role of forgiveness of self/others/situations).

5. Another potential avenue for future research is that the present study has considered only three dimensions of the variables organizational trust (competence, benevolence and reliability) forgiveness (self, others and situations) and happiness (presence of positive affect, absence of negative affect and life satisfaction). Therefore, future studies may investigate the relationship between the variables taking other dimensions in consideration as well. For instance, organizational trust can be studied with other dimensions such as integrity (Gabarro, 1978), consistency of behaviour (Bulter, 1991) and negotiating honestly (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996). Additionally, concept of Vanhala et al. (2016) taken in the present study do not differentiate between trust in co-workers and management, so in future research, this divergence should be kept in mind. Also, forgiveness can be studied with other dimensions such as revenge versus forgiveness (Mullet et al., 1988) and may use the forgiving personality scale developed by Kamat et al. (2006). Moreover, happiness can be studied with the dimensions given by Shepherd et al. (2015) namely, pleasant life, engaged life, and meaningful life.

6. In the present study, we have included several control variables to reduce the possibility of their confounding effects on the dependent variable (happiness). However, the list of the controls (age, gender, organization type) is not comprehensive. One may expect income marital status, caste, religion, and ethnicity to have significant influence on the happiness. Besides this, previous studies offer an array of several other individual, situational and economic factors that influence an individual's happiness. More studies (on different samples) should be conducted to make the results of present study applicable in general.

## **6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter highlighted the key findings of the study, its contribution to the literature and discussed the limitations and future research directions. Cross-sectional research design and data collected through self-reporting survey are the major limitations of the study. Future researchers are encouraged to use longitudinal research designs to establish the relationships of causality and to generalize the findings. Additionally, other variables such as job performance, job satisfaction, personality, intensity, frequency, exposure and reaction to transgressions. Other similar variables should also be considered while investigating employee happiness. Also, the study emphasizes its insightful practical implications for organizations and academia.



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**Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee****Department of Management Studies**

Dear Participants,

Greetings!

Happiness has emerged as an area of concern for employees and employers both. In today's competitive work environment in a country like India, happiness at work domain play a very important role in organizational success and excellence. This study will provide empirical evidence that how your propensity to organizational trust and forgiveness tendency impacts the happiness at work in exchange of your 5-10 minutes. In this direction the attached research instrument is a tool that helps us to understand the same. Your response will add value to our research as well as to the literature. We therefore, request your response to the survey. Your response will enhance the reliability of the findings of this research. In return for your participation, we undertake to respect strictly your anonymity by using your responses only as statistical data for the research. After analyzing the results we would like to share a copy of results with you. Completed questionnaire may be sent through email at following email ids:

[rinkidahiya36@gmail.com](mailto:rinkidahiya36@gmail.com); [srangnekar1@gmail.com](mailto:srangnekar1@gmail.com)

Thank you in anticipation, for your helpful response.

Yours sincerely,

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**PART A- DEMOGRAPHIC SECTION**

1. Name (optional): \_\_\_\_\_
2. Gender: (1) Male  (2) Female
3. Age (in yrs): \_\_\_\_\_ or (1) 21-35 years  (2) 36-50 years  (3) 51-65 years
4. Educational Level: (1) Diploma holder  (2) Graduate  (3) Postgraduate and above
5. Current Job Hierarchy: (1) Junior Level  (2) Middle Level  (3) Senior Level
6. Work Experience (in years): (1) Less than 10  (2) 10-20 years  (3) More than 20 years
7. Organization Type: (1) Public  (2) Private

## ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST SCALE

### Part-B- Instrument to Measure Organizational Trust (Vanhala et al., 2016)

Kindly read each item carefully and mention the label from the table below next to each item.

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

S. no.	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	The employees in my organization have much knowledge about the work that needs to be done.							
2	The employees have faith in the expertise of the management of my organization.							
3	I feel very confident about the skills of my colleagues as well as the work being organized in my organization.							
4	Most employees in my organization are good at their job and have a clear vision about the future of the organization.							
5	A large majority of the employees of my organization are competent in their area of work.							
6	The employees in my organization are concerned about my welfare.							
7	My needs and desires are important to my organization.							
8	The employees in my organization would help me to overcome from the difficulties at work.							
9	A typical employee in my unit is sincerely concerned with the problems of others.							
10	Most of the times, the employees in my organization are supportive rather than just look out for themselves.							
11	The employees in my organization have a strong sense of justice.							
12	The management has made it clear that ethical actions and behaviors should be promoted in the organization.							
13	The actions and behaviour of the employees in my organization are always consistent.							
14	Integrity is a key value in the operations of my organization.							
15	My organization has kept the promises they made with regard to my job and personal development.							
16	The employees in my organization get information that is important to them.							

Add scores and mention in below blank space:

Total Score on Competence (Item 1 to 5): \_\_\_\_\_

Total Score on Benevolence (Item 6 to 10): \_\_\_\_\_

Total Score on Reliability (Item 11 to 16): \_\_\_\_\_

Total Score: \_\_\_\_\_

## FORGIVENESS SCALE

### (Part-C- Instrument to Measure Forgiveness (Thompson et al., 2005))

In the course of our work life, negative things/episodes may occur because of our own actions, the actions of others, or circumstances beyond our control. Think about how you typically respond to such negative events. Kindly read each item carefully and mention the label from the table below next to each item.

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

<b>S. no.</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
1	Although I feel badly at first when I mess up at work, over time I can give myself some slack.							
2	I do not hold grudges against myself for negative things I've done at work.							
3	Learning from bad things that I've done at work helps me get over them.							
4	It is easy for me to accept myself once I've messed up at work.							
5	With time, I am understanding of myself for mistakes I've made at work.							
6	I stop criticizing myself for negative things I've felt, thought, said, or done at work.							
7	I forgive a colleague who has done something that I think is wrong.							
8	With time, I am understanding of others for the mistakes they've made at work.							
9	I forgive my colleagues who have hurt me.							
10	Although others (colleagues) have hurt me in the past, I have eventually been able to see them as good people.							
11	If my colleagues mistreat me, I continue to think positively about them.							
12	When my colleagues disappoint me, I can eventually move past it.							
13	When things go wrong at work for reasons that can't be controlled, I do not get stuck in negative thoughts about it.							
14	With time, I can develop understanding of bad circumstances at work.							
15	If I am disappointed by uncontrollable circumstances at work, I do continue to think positively about them.							
16	I eventually make peace with bad situations at work.							
17	It is easy for me to accept negative situations at work for which no body is at fault.							
18	Eventually, I let go of negative thoughts about bad circumstances that are beyond anyone's control at work.							

#### **To score the HFS:**

You can write your score of subscales by adding them and total scale scores in the boxes below-Score

Forgiveness of Self (Items 1 to 6): \_\_\_\_\_

Total Forgiveness (Items 1 to 18): \_\_\_\_\_

Forgiveness of Others (Items 7 to 12): \_\_\_\_\_

Forgiveness of Situations (Items 13 to 18): \_\_\_\_\_

## HAPPINESS SCALE

### Part-D- Instrument to Measure Happiness

#### Part- D1-PANAS (Positive affect and Negative affect Schedule, Watson et al., 1988)

This scale consists of a number of statements that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then list the number from the scale below next to each word.

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

S. no.	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I feel interested (showing curiosity or concern) at work.							
2	I feel distressed (suffering from extreme anxiety, sorrow, or pain) at work.							
3	I feel excited (in an energy state higher than the normal or ground state) at work.							
4	I feel upset disappointed, or worried) at work.							
5	I feel strong (able to withstand force or mental pressure) at work.							
6	I feel guilty (a feeling of responsibility or remorse for some offense, wrong, etc., whether real or imagined and justly chargeable with a particular fault or error) at work.							
7	I feel scared (fearful or frightened, refers to the past) at work.							
8	I feel hostile (showing or feeling opposition or dislike) at work.							
9	I feel enthusiastic (having or showing intense and eager enjoyment) at work.							
10	I feel proud (having or showing a high or excessively high opinion of importance) at work.							
11	I feel irritable having or showing a tendency to get someone easily annoyed) at work.							
12	I feel alert (quick to notice any unusual and potentially difficult circumstances) at work.							
13	I feel ashamed (painful feeling arising from the consciousness of something dishonourable, improper, ridiculous, etc.) at work.							
14	I feel inspired (fill with the urge or ability to do or feel something, especially to do something great) at work.							
15	I feel afraid (feeling worry about the possible results of a particular situation- refers to the future) at work.							
16	I feel determined (wanting to do something very much and not allowing anyone or any difficulties to stop you) at work.							
17	I feel attentive (paying close attention to something) at work.							
18	I feel jittery (unable to relax) at work.							

S. no.	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I feel active (participating or engaged in a particular sphere or activity) at work.							
20	I feel nervous (worried or anxious) at work.							

**Scoring Instructions:**

**Positive Affect Score:** Add the scores on items 1, 3, 5, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 17, and 19.

**Negative Affect Score:** Add the scores on items 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 11, 13, 15, 18, and 20.

**Your scores** on the PANAS:

Positive: \_\_\_\_\_

Negative: \_\_\_\_\_

**Part- D2- Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS, Diener et al., 1985)**

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) is a five-item measure that assesses an individual's global judgement of life satisfaction as a whole. The SWLS measures the cognitive component, and provides an integrated judgement of how a person's life as a whole is going. Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

S. no.	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.							
2	The conditions of my life are excellent.							
3	I am satisfied with my life.							
4	So far, I have gotten the most important things I want in life.							
5	If I could live my life over, I would change nothing.							

Please add scores of all items (item 1 to 5) and mention in the blank below:

**Total:** \_\_\_\_\_

*Thank you for participating in this questionnaire!*

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**Research Papers Published/Accepted in Journals:**

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1. Dahiya, R., & Rangnekar, S. (2018a). Employee Happiness a Valuable Tool to Drive Organizations. In Yadav, M., Tridevi, S. K., Kumar, A, and Rangnekar, S. (Eds.), *Harnessing Human Capital Analytics for Competitive Advantage* (pp. 24–54). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.

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