



**IUL School of Social Sciences**

**Garfield Syndrome: Correlation between Organizational Hypocrisy,  
Organizational Cynicism and Distrust in organizational context**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Organizational hypocrisy, *sensu* Brunsson, has emerged in literature separately from akin constructs, namely organizational cynicism and distrust. Likewise, these are almost invariably treated as negative for both people and organizations.

This study intends both to treat these constructs conjointly, as they may operate concomitantly, and question its unconditional negative nature, following a “brunssonian” perspective.

For this purpose, we departed from a sample of 289 workers to test: 1) the aggregability of these constructs into a single 2nd order one, i.e. a syndrome; 2) how they differentially relate with lack of reciprocity and psychological contract breach; and 3) the extent of its comparative explanative power on EVLN behavioral strategies.

Findings suggest that organizational hypocrisy, cynicism and distrust should be treated as a 2<sup>nd</sup> order construct, as they showed better fit indices in a confirmatory factor analysis. Likewise, when taken as a syndrome, they allow for more robust models both when treated as criterion variable and when treated as predictor of EVLN behavioral strategies, always explaining more variance.

**Key-words:** Organizational Hypocrisy; Organizational Cynicism; Distrust; Psychological Contract Breach; Lack of Reciprocity; Behavioral responses to dissatisfaction; EVLN model

## **RESUMO**

A hipocrisia organizacional, *sensu* Brunsson, tem surgido na literatura dissociada de conceitos afins, nomeadamente o cinismo organizacional e a falta de confiança. Do mesmo modo, estes são quase invariavelmente tidos como negativos para as pessoas e as organizações.

O presente estudo procura tratar estes constructos de forma conjunta, por se supor que operam em configuração, e em acréscimo, questionar o seu carácter negativo incondicional, aplicando a lógica brunssoniana.

Para o efeito, usamos uma amostra de 289 trabalhadores para testar: 1) a capacidade para agregar os três construtos num único de 2º nível, numa síndrome; 2) como se relaciona diferencialmente, com a “falta de reciprocidade” e a “quebra de contrato psicológico, tratados isoladamente ou como síndrome, e 3) qual o poder explicativo diferencial nas estratégias comportamentais EVLN.

Os resultados sugerem que a Hipocrisia, o cinismo e a falta de confiança organizacionais, devem ser tratados como um construto de 2º nível, já que mostraram melhores indicadores de ajustamento numa análise fatorial confirmatória. De forma convergente, quando tratados como síndrome, apresentam modelos mais robustos quer quando na posição de variável critério, quer na de preditor do modelo de respostas a contextos de crise EVLN, permitindo explicar sempre mais variância.

**Palavras-chave:** Hipocrisia organizacional; Cinismo organizacional; falta de confiança, falta de reciprocidade, quebra de contratos psicológicos, modelo de respostas EVLN

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## **List of acronyms**

**CFI** – Comparative Fit Index

**CLC** – Corporate Leadership Council

**D** – Distrust

**EVLN** – Exit, Voice, Loyalty & Neglect

**LMX** – Leader-member exchange Theory

**OCB** – Organizational citizenship behavior

**OC** – Organizational Cynicism

**OH** – Organizational Hypocrisy

**SLMX** - Social leader-member exchange

## INTRODUCTION

“Cynicism may result from several perceived injustices over time or the organization repeatedly failing to meet the employees' expectations. These events, in turn, may lead to dissatisfaction and distrust, which, eventually, may become more general cynicism regarding the organization” (*Thompson et al., 1999*)

The legendary cartoon character “*Garfield*”, notorious for its cynical behavior and sarcastic humor, is the archetype of an emerging paradigm in the employee-employer relationship in western world: the unprecedented negative stigma towards organizational control (Kosmala & Herrbach, 2006), uncomfortable feelings towards authority, questioning supervisor's competence (Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008), the decreasing importance of job stability (Dries, Pepermans, & De Kerpel, 2008) and the rise of entrepreneurship and self-employment (Stangler & Litan E, 2009). Together, many of the traditional assumptions about job motivation are no longer valid as both unquestioned authority and the will to obey (even if just to keep the job) are not taken-for-granted.

The dynamics of job markets worldwide, especially due to ensuing crisis, settled the idea that having different professional experiences adds value in the same manner that willing to take risks does. Long periods in the same company are no longer a reason to be proud of (Feldman, 2000) and can even be detrimental to employability. Alongside, entrepreneur activities are trending worldwide as waves of employees with high desire for instant recognition (Mencl & Lester, 2014) with higher career goals (Dries et al., 2008) and requiring more than authority to obey, are entering the organizations, questioning supervisors' competence (Gursoy et al., 2008). Furthermore, employees are very sensitive to injustice and tend to distrust their supervisors, assuming that every job is temporary and a step to their ultimate goal: autonomy (Tulgan, 2004).

Alongside with the lack of loyalty towards their companies, employees became very cynical, skeptical and self-focused at work (Adams & Bond, 2000; Leiter, Jackson, & Shaughnessy, 2009). Putting pressure on this, employers are demanding more from employees

while expecting to give little in return other than a job and pay (Naus, van Iterson, & Roe, 2007) at the same time, and with more and more graduates entering the job market and looking to start in large organizations for experience, good mentoring and formal training, the organizations cut back on these activities realizing that newcomers are likely to leave in a couple of years (Feldman, 2000)

In addition, employers showed more concern in highlighting they care for employees and their work-life balance, but according to Russell & Stone, (2002) this care is often superficial, and can generate more unfulfilled promises than actual change in the work environment.

Decreasing investment in staff and employees willingness to avoid organizational control and gain autonomy, unfulfilled promises and unmet expectations generated organizational distrust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995), organizational cynicism (Naus et al., 2007), and organizational hypocrisy (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015).

This scenario invites research as it is yet to be challenged if these three important psychological behavioral dimensions of Organizational Hypocrisy (OH), Organizational Cynicism (OC) and Distrust (D) are associated with each other and with employees' negative feelings towards their supervisors and organizations (Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998; Greenbaum et al., 2015; Mirvis & Kanter, 1989) but seldom been put together in the empirical research. Furthermore, we proposed to test that Organizational Hypocrisy, Organizational Cynicism, and Distrust, can act as a syndrome [OH + OC +D], assuming syndrome as a type of negative behaviour or mental state that is typical of a person in a particular situation.

A quick literature review of the three constructs support the common assumption that organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust (despite their differences), are deeply connected. Several researchers suggest that the establishment of a trusting relationship between management and employees is one the most important factors for organizational success (Gómez & Rosen, 2001; Mishra & Spreitzer, 1998). Indeed, distrust has been found to have negative effect on several organizational dimensions, such as leadership (Dirks, Kurt & Ferrin, 2002), job performance (Cook & Wall, 1980) or cooperative behavior among individuals and organizations (Duffy & Ochs, 2009).

On the other hand, hypocrisy, defined by (Brunsson, 1993) as a mismatch between what is said, what is decided and what actually happens, has received attention by scholars that focus in trust relationships between employee and employer, with findings suggesting hypocrisy is positively associated with distrust towards the supervisors (Mayer et al., 1995; Simons, Friedman, Liu, & McLean Parks, 2007)

Furthermore, cynicism is also based on the employee's beliefs that organizations lack honesty, meaning that were expectations of morality, justice, and honesty violated (Wilkerson, Evans, & Davis, 2008). Several studies have been suggesting that cynical employees have feelings of frustration and distrust towards their supervisors when they believe that are being treated unfairly (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Thompson, Bailey, Joseph, Worley, & Williams, 1999)

In addition, hypocrisy and cynicism are conceptually linked, for instance, Gurtman (1992) mentions hypocrisy in his definition of cynicism: "*Cynicism can be defined as doubt in the sincerity and selflessness of others, a belief that others are basically hypocritical and phony*". Also Mirvis & Kanter, (1991: 52) pointed out that "*cynical employees tend to doubt the integrity of their management and are much less loyal and committed to their organizations*", which goes in line with Naus et al., view on the importance of behavioral integrity in the employee-employer relationship. They stated that "*the key to organizational cynicism is the belief that the organization lacks integrity*" (2007: 689).

Indeed, Brunsson, (1993) described behavioral integrity as the opposite of hypocrisy, firstly conceptualized by Simons (1999, 2002) as the perception that a person acts in ways that are consistent with what he or she says". Perceived supervisor's behavioral integrity has been linked with different constructs, for instance, it is positively associated with trust in managers (Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012); negatively with absenteeism (Prottas, 2008), positively with organizational commitment (Simons et al., 2007) and positively related with organizational citizenship behavior (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006). Overall, it has positive protective effects on organizations. A recent meta-analysis by (Simons, Leroy, Collewaert, & Masschelein, 2015) found strong association of behavioral integrity with trust, task performance, citizenship behavior, and commitment. This variable (integrity) was found to have stronger association with these outcomes, generally, than psychological contract breach, thus suggesting its crucial role in organizational behavior.

In this sense, departing from a dysfunctional view supported by literature, we explored a possible configuration between Organizational Hypocrisy (OH), Organizational Cynicism (OC) and Distrust (D), named *Garfield Syndrome*, reasoning that a syndrome is a set of symptoms that are correlated between themselves.

1) In order to demonstrate a hypothetical interaction between the three components of the “*Garfield Syndrome*”, we expect that:

- *H1: the three components of the Garfield Syndrome will show significant, positive internal correlations [OH + OC +D];*

Furthermore, empirical studies relate psychological contract breach with the three components of the *Garfield Syndrome*. Considering the work of Morrison & Robinson, (1997), Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, (2003: 190) suggested that the breach of the psychological contract “*occurs when employees perceive a discrepancy between what were promised to them and what they actually receive*”, furthermore, psychological contract breaches are direct and specific violations of behavioral integrity (Simons, 2002), meaning that a violation of the implied contract will erode trust and cause perceived injustice and resentment, supporting the findings of Andersson (1996) that suggested contract violations as the primary antecedent to employee’s cynicism towards the organization.

In addition, several studies emphasise the influence of employee unreciprocated efforts on the level of trust in supervisors and organizations (Kahan, 2002; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn M, 2003) as employees expect reciprocity when their efforts somehow benefit the organization (Piccoli & De Witte, 2015). This means employees are willing to work harder to their employers in exchange of extra rewards (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005), but also, that they will lower their contribution to the organization when feeling unbalanced exchange (Turnley et al., 2003). This very much goes in line with Moliner et al. (2014) findings that reciprocity is significantly and negatively related to cynicism in organizations.

2) To demonstrate a hypothetical interaction between the three components of the *Garfield Syndrome*, we will test to which extent Psychological Contract Breach and Lack of Reciprocity are able to predict the syndrome, both separately and as a single construct;

- *H2: Garfield Syndrome [OH + OC + D] will be better explained by Psychological Contract and Lack of Reciprocity, then would be, by Organizational Hypocrisy, Organizational Cynicism and Distrust as singular variables;*

Finally, when employees perceived unfulfilled promises and lack of integrity from their supervisors, they tend to change their attitudes into several kinds of responses (Farrell, 1983) Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect (EVLN) typology provides a specific model for understanding employee's responses to dissatisfaction. Originally with three components developed by Hirschman (1970) and later expanded to four components by several researchers (Farrell, 1983; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Iii, 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989) the EVLN model suggests that employees can respond to dissatisfaction situations by "Exit" (intention to leave or actually quitting the job), "Voice" (actively expressing dissatisfaction and taking initiative to improve conditions), "Loyalty" (passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve) and "Neglect" (decreased effort, increased absenteeism and sloppy job performance) (Rusbult et al., 1988; Withey & Cooper, 1989).

Dissatisfaction, low commitment and the belief that improvement is unlikely were found to be predictors of "Exit", "Voice", "Loyalty" and "Neglect" (Withey & Cooper, 1989). In addition, there is empirical support that psychological contract breach result in increased levels of "Exit", "Voice", and "Neglect" and decreased levels of loyalty towards the organization (Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

3) To demonstrate a hypothetical interaction between the three components, we will test if the *Garfield Syndrome* (as a single construct) has more explanative power in predicting Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction when compared with the three [OH + OC + D] components separately.

- *H3: Garfield Syndrome [OH + OC +D], will explain more variance of Exit, Loyalty, Voice and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction, then Organizational Hypocrisy, Organizational Cynicism and Distrust as singular variables.*

In sum, we intend to propose a structured model that takes psychological contract breach and lack of reciprocity as hypothetical concomitant predictors of the configuration between organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust. In this sense, we will describe the configuration as a syndrome, reasoning that a syndrome is a set of symptoms that are correlated between themselves. In addition, we will test Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction model as a possible consequence of the *Garfield Syndrome* and the last component of our theoretical model, judging on the basis of the eventual significant path valences if the Syndrome is indeed dysfunctional or has margin to be interpreted as functional.



## CHAPTER I – LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1.1 Organizational Hypocrisy

In organizational environment, conflicting relationships carry out depressive feelings and can generate hypocritical outputs that build potential risk to work environment (Nils Brunsson, 1993).

Broadly, Brunsson, (1989) defined hypocrisy as a mismatch between what is said, what is decided and what actually happens. In addition, Furia recently described hypocrisy as an *“incongruity between an individual's personal behaviours and her publicly expressed beliefs”* (2009: 115).

Nevertheless, different dimensions of hypocrisy have been studied, for instance, Batson, Thompson, Seufferling, Whitney, & Strongman (1999) suggested a definition of moral hypocrisy: *“an individual's ability to hold a belief while acting in discord with it”* (1999: 1336). On the other hand, corporate hypocrisy is other dimension studied and described as the belief that an organization claims to be and is not (Wagner, Lutz, & Weitz, 2009).

Furthermore, Huzzard & Östergren, (2002: 49) state that *“most, if not all, organizations have conflicts of interest and divergent identities”*, idea that goes in line with Edwards (1979) presumption that organizations are *‘contested terrains’* and are thus, likely to be hypocritical to some extent. In fact, the “brunssonian” conceptualization of organizational hypocrisy is based on the assumption that organizations or leaders are perceived as hypocritical when show inconsistency between talk, action and decisions but also identifies this inconsistency as having a particularly value, namely, he assumes that different people need different approaches as well as different talk, which can set the perception of inconsistency by employees in general but that to some extent, an inconsistent structure is needed since the organization contains people that have ideological differences (Brunsson, 1986).

Literature connects perceived organizational hypocrisy by consumers with social responsibility perceptions, meaning that corporate hypocrisy is a key psychological criterion that affects both consumers' overall social responsible beliefs and their attitudes toward the organization (Wagner, Lutz, & Weitz, 2009).

In organizational context, hypocrisy can be observed in relationships between employees and employers, Simons (2002) pointed out that the incongruity between leaders' values and their actual actions is perceived as hypocrisy, or as pointed out by Greenbaum et al. (2015: 930) "*Supervisors who behave in an unjust manner by undermining their subordinates, but simultaneously expect their subordinates to treat other people with dignity and respect (...) are likely to be construed as hypocrites because their behaviors do not align with expressed expectations as perceived by subordinates*".

Throughout the literature, there are several hypocrisy related constructs, for instance, behavioral integrity was described by Brunsson (1989) as the opposite of hypocrisy, is highlighted in innumerable studies, developed by Simons (1999, 2002) and conceptualized as the perception that a person acts and words are consistent. Behavioral integrity is related to the psychological contract (Rousseau & Parks, 1993), meaning that people react to expectations met by their leaders. Perceived behavioral integrity of managers has been associated with different constructs, namely, with trust in managers (Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012) negatively associated with absenteeism (Prottas, 2008) positively related with organizational commitment (Simons et al., 2015) and positively related with organizational citizen behavior (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006)

As pointed out before, leaders are perceived as hypocrites when they express certain values to their employees but fail to match their values with their actions. Employees who perceived organizational hypocrisy had higher intentions of leaving the organization (Greenbaum et al., 2015) as well as lower perceptions of interpersonal justice and job satisfaction (Simons et al., 2007).

## **1.2 Organizational Cynicism**

Organizations, as well as their members, can be classified as cynical. Organizational cynicism or employee cynicism is described in literature as a self-defensive attitude towards the employing organization (Abraham, 2000). In their findings, Mirvis & Kanter (1991: 61) describe cynical companies as: "*those that embody expedient, self-serving values, that support managers who engage in deceptive and exploitative practices, and that communicate in a one-sided, hyped-up, and disingenuous fashion to their employees.*"

Furthermore, Dean et al. (1998) defined organizational cynicism as a negative attitude toward one's employing organization, which is based in three dimensions: cognitive (believes

that the organization lacks integrity), affective (negative affect toward the organization) and behavioral (criticizes and disapproves the organization). Affective cynicism is based on emotional reactions such as irritation, aggravation, tension, and anxiety towards the organization and supervisors (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Dean et al., 1998). Cognitive Cynicism is built from employees' belief that their organization doesn't value their contributions or care about them, which can affect their will to put as much effort on behalf of their organization as before (Dean et al., 1998).

Behavioral cynicism can influence both job performance and organizational commitment and will manifest itself as negative behaviors such as criticism of the organization, sarcastic humor, negative non-verbal behavior, cynical expressions on organizational events, and pessimistic predictions about the organization's future (Kim, Bateman, Gilbreath, & Andersson, 2009).

Dean et al. (1998) didn't conceptualize cynicism as a personality trait but instead, as a state that can change over time and that is directed to a specific target. Reichers, Wanous, & Austin (1997) pointed out that cynicism in organizations is a self-defense behavior that covers negative thoughts or feelings about actions by their supervisors in the organization. In addition, Andersson & Bateman (1997: 451) defined employee cynicism as "*general and specific attitudes characterized by frustration, hopelessness, and disillusionment, as well as contempt and distrust of business organizations, executives, and/or other workplace objects*".

Andersson & Bateman (1997) also view cynicism as an attitude, explaining employee cynicism as result of violations of psychological contracts, and finding that employee cynicism towards an organization is related to higher levels of poor job performance.

Lately, newer definitions of organizational cynicism are suggested by Nair & Kamalanabhan (2010) and Ince & Turan (2011) stress the origin of cynicism in the employees' belief that the organization is dishonest and unfair. Many other authors converge on these causes of organizational cynicism. Naus et al. (2007) stresses the lack of integrity, failing to follow moral principles of truth, fairness, honesty or sincerity.

Cynical employees can influence other members in the organization and can hinder the organization from reaching their goals, also, cynical employees believe that their colleagues are selfish and self-centered (Barefoot, Dodge, Peterson, Dahlstrom, & Williams, 1989) and are less likely to perform extra-role behaviors on behalf of their organization (Andersson & Bateman, 1997). In addition, in terms of their relationship with supervisors, cynical employees distrust the motives of their leaders and believe that their employers will try to exploit their contribution in the organization (Abraham, 2000)

On the other hand, even though organizational cynicism accounts as a negative aspect for most scholars, Naus et, al (2007) stress that cynical employees actually care about the well-being and the future of the organization.

### **1.3 Distrust**

Although trust is taken generally as an important asset in organizations and society at large, it has been defined throughout the time in many ways. (Mayer et al., 1995: 712) proposed that 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 an action important to the trustor.”* In addition, Harrison McKnight & Chervany (2001: 34) suggest that trust is *“the willingness or intention to depend on the other person generally—not in a specific situation”* .

Some other definitions describe trust as an expression of confidence between two parties that share a connection of some kind (Blomqvist, 1997) or a confidence that none of the two parties of an interaction will take advantage of the other’s vulnerabilities (Sabel, 1993). Even though the innumerable definitions and different conceptualizations of trust, *“willingness to take risks”* is one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations as earlier noted by Johnson-George & Swap (1982).

In the organizational context, trust does not begin with the development of intense emotional connection, instead, there is a process that evolves in time, meaning that trust is perceived as a dynamic phenomenon and changes as the work relationships matures (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Shapiro, Sheppard & Cheraskin (1992) proposed three types of trust developed in organizational context: deterrence-based trust (based on consistency of behavior that people will do what they say they are going to do), knowledge-based trust (based on behavioral predictability, a judgment of the probability of others likely choice of behaviors), and identification-based trust (based on a complete empathy with the other party’s desires and intentions).

Trust has been considered by several researchers as the basis of organizational success due to its central role on interpersonal relationships between co-workers and between employee and employer (Gómez & Rosen, 2001; Schneider, 1987). In fact, trust is one of the components of the psychological contract between employee and employer (Robinson, 1996). When employees experience psychological contract breach, they will recognize that something expected was not received, which decreases their trust in the organization (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany,

1998). In other words, unmet expectations and unfulfilled promises generate distrust (Fulk, Brief, & Barr, 1985) meaning that trust in organizational context may not be reciprocal (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000).

Trust may have different objects, such as e.g. a supervisor, a colleague, or generally the organization. Tan & Tan (2000) pointed out that trust in supervisor and trust in organization are strongly correlated, specifically, trust in supervisor is based on ability, benevolence and integrity of the leader, supporting the findings of Whitener et al. (2012) that suggested an association between the ability of the supervisors and the level of trust perceived.

Trust is also frequently associated with perceived fairness of leadership actions, namely, employees' trust in their leaders is influenced by the level of perceived fairness or justice in their organizational practices or decisions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In addition, trust can have a good impact when organization faces crises, research has shown that individuals are more likely to accept even unfavourable outcomes, if they trust their authority's motives and intentions (Tyler, 1994).

Concerning the importance of trust in organizations, there appears to be a consensus among researchers that trust is important and useful in several organizational activities, such as, team work (Costa, 2003), leadership (Whitener et al., 2012), development of labor relations (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996) and job performance (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Furthermore, trust can lead to cooperative behavior among individuals and organizations (Blomqvist, 1997), reduce uncertainty (Kollock, 1994) increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust has also been linked to organizational change, in the sense that employee's trust on supervisors is the key to organizational change acceptance (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998).

Schoorman, Mayer & Davis (2007) concluded that trust can be related to the culture of the organization where higher transparency leads to lower perceived risk. Within organizational context, trust is perceived as a form of social capital and has three important impacts; 1) it reduces transaction costs, 2) increases spontaneous sociability inside organization, and 3) facilitates adaptive deference to hierarchy (Kramer, 1999).

If trust is taken as an asset, the absence of trust, i.e. "distrust" or "mistrust" as often named, (Harrison McKnight & Chervany, 2001), is a liability. Distrust is usually taken as the antonym of trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Mcknight & Chervany, 2001) but it has also been proposed to be not only its opposite but "*also a functional equivalent for trust*" (Luhmann, 2000: 71). The most common definition is that of a "*lack of confidence in the other, a concern that the other may act to harm one, that he does not care about one's welfare or intends to act harmfully, or is hostile*"

(Govier, 1994: 240). Furthermore, Schoorman et al. (2007) define distrust as the lowest level of trust meaning that one would take no risks at all in the relationship.

Several empirical studies have identified a variety of factors that increase distrust towards the supervisors and the organization, for instance, perceptions of being under evaluative scrutiny in organizations (Fenigstein & Vanable, 1992; Kramer, 1999), and situations where there is a perception of insincere or untrustworthy behavior in which their expectations have been violated (Robinson, 1996).

When measuring distrust, the use of reversed scoring scales of trust is very common as when Mayer & Davis (1999) used a reversed scored of the “scale of willingness to be vulnerable” to represent their measure of distrust.

#### **1.4 Psychological Contract**

The Psychological Contract concept was first introduced in the early 1960s by Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, & Solley (1962) and by Schein (1965) defined as expectations about the reciprocal obligations that compose an employee-organization exchange relationship, more specifically, they described a psychological contract as the beliefs about what each party is entitled for, and morally obligate to give, in exchange for contributions of some kind (Levinson et al., 1962). Throughout time, innumerable studies and definitions have been suggested, and ever since, psychological contracts have become increasingly important in helping to understand the employment relationship (Turnley & Feldman, 2000).

In the last few decades, psychological contract has been defined as the perceived mutual obligations between two parties, the employee and the employer (e.g. Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994) or as an individual’s expectations regarding the obligations that exist between an employee and an organization (Rousseau, 1998). The psychological contract, therefore, *“reflects the employees’ notion of reciprocity, and serves as a baseline to evaluate own investments and benefits in return”* (Lucero & Allen, 1994: 430).

Morrison & Robinson (1997) emphasized that psychological contracts involve not only generalized expectations, but also, perceived promises. However, several studies suggested that the promises involved in psychological contracts are not always explicitly stated, rather, they may be implied from the employer’s actions (Rousseau, 2001). McLean Parks & Schmedemann, (1994) went farther by stating that if an employee does not perceive that a promise has been made, a psychological contract does not exist.

The psychological contract involves only the employee's beliefs and expectations, meaning that the other party in the exchange relationship may not share these expectations (Lucero & Allen, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). One important misunderstanding is that psychological contracts can involve two specific members in an organization, instead, it is important to clarify that psychological contracts are only between those held by employees and organizations, based on the obligations and promises rather than any specific agent of the organization (Rousseau, 1989)

Obligations and promises are traded through cycles of reciprocity, with individuals being most comfortable under conditions of balanced exchange, employees who perceived 'mutual high obligations' are likely to express increased organizational commitment, perceived greater organizational support, nurture positive beliefs regarding their career future, and lower turnover intentions (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In addition, if the organization provides more than they originally agreed, employee contributions to the firm rise as psychological contract fulfillment is positively related to employee performance (Turnley et al., 2003).

The idea of balance is crucial as a perceived imbalance between efforts and rewards results in the perception of a breach of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Psychological contract breach refers to employees' perceptions regarding the extent to which the organization has failed to fulfill its promises or obligations as unmet expectations relating to reciprocity (Turnley & Feldman, 2000). Morrison & Robinson (1997) did point out that psychological contract breach is concomitant with a discrepancy between what was promised and what was received. Such breach perception stems from incongruence in the expectations of the employer (organization) and the employee, for instance when the employer has a different understanding of the promised outcome (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

The violation of the psychological contract decreases employee's organizational trust, satisfaction with their jobs, perceived obligations to their organizations, and intentions to remain (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Furthermore, psychological contract breach has also been related with employee's cynical beliefs regarding the integrity of the organization (Andersson, 1996). In addition, several studies have proposed that psychological contract violations can generate innumerable negative outcomes, including reduced citizen behavior (Robinson & Morrison, 1995), distrust towards the organization, increased cynicism about organizational life (Robinson, 1996), increased turnover intentions (Turnley & Feldman, 1999) and lower job performance (Rousseau, 1998).

Turnley & Feldman (1999) suggested that psychological contract violations has a negative effect on employee's exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect intentions, especially with exit and loyalty behaviors.

## **1.5 Lack of Reciprocity**

According to Hobhouse (1956: 12) reciprocity is “*the key intervening variable through which shared social rules are enabled to yield social stability*”, in fact, the fundamental principles of reciprocity lie in the imbedded obligations created by exchanges of benefits or favours among individuals (de Waal & Luttrell, 1988).

To better understand how lack of reciprocity may occur in organizational context, it is important to take into account Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. Social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations from both parties. These interactions are usually seen as interdependent and part of the actions of another person (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As the employee-employer relationship can be described in terms of an exchange of resources (rewards and outcomes), reciprocity is defined through a dynamic relationship context, where the benefits from an exchange fits both parties perception of justice (Buunk & Schaufeli, 1999). Approached as a multi-dimensional concept, reciprocity has an interpersonal and intrapersonal dimension within an organization which may have a significant contribution to an individual's level of emotional health and to a person's behavior in organizational context (Thomas & Rose, 2009).

Lack of reciprocity effects raised some questions about the investments in the relationship, namely by questioning individuals on how much they feel they put into a relationship and how much they received in return (Robbins, Ford, & Tetrick, 2012). In this sense, employees that lack job role clarity, are likely to compare their exchange dynamics with their employer organization, appraising the quality and nature of their relationship with the organization (Festinger, 1954). Empirical studies support the assumption that threat of job loss, could be a factor leading to perceptions of a lack of reciprocity in the employment relationship (Robinson, 1996).

Psychological contract breach has been related with lack of reciprocity in organizational context. Robinson & Rousseau's (1994) definition itself states a “mismatch”. Robinson et al. (1994) even proposes that the breach of the psychological contract is a form of lack of reciprocity in the exchange relationship with the organization.

Lately, Robbins et al. (2012: 249) highlight its negative effects on health, in this sense, burnout is been suggested as one of these consequences, described by Embriaco, Papazian, Kentish-Barnes, Pochard, & Azoulay, (2007: 482) “*as a psychological term (concept) for the experience of long-term exhaustion and diminished interest (depersonalization or cynicism*”, burnout had already been connected with cynicism by Maslach & Jackson (1981) that described



burnout as a cynicism symptom among the individuals who work face-to-face with people. At the organizational level, unfair social exchange between employee and employer may constitute a psychological explanation for the development of emotional exhaustion (Taris, Horn, Schaufeli & Schreurs, 2004). In addition, based on the norm of reciprocity, several researchers proposed that there is a link between high levels of perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior (Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004).

### **1.6 EVLN - Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction**

The first three categories of responses to dissatisfaction were proposed by Hirschman (1970), that initially defined “Exit” as a set of cognitive activities that precede leaving intentions or job movement both within and across organizational boundaries, “Voice” that included active expression to improve and bring positive change, and “Loyalty”, described as a passive reaction wherein employees stand by the organization, waiting passively for improvement or direction. In addition to the three categories of reaction to dissatisfaction identified by Hirschman, (1970) a fourth category suggested by Farrell (1983) and later on by Farrell & Rusbult, (1992) was described as “Neglect”, that included sloppy and disregardful behavior, exemplified by lateness, absenteeism and using work time for personal activities. This completed the conceptual model of Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction. In summary, we can conclude that people who are unhappy at work can react in several ways, they can opt to exit, by searching and finding a different job, they can voice to improve their job situation, they can be loyal by staying in the organization and waiting for a positive outcome, or they can neglect their duties by becoming sloppy and disregardful towards their job performance (Withey & Cooper, 1989).

Sustaining on Farrell (1983) and Rusbult & Simon (1983), Farrell & Rusbult, (1992: 203) suggested that reactions to dissatisfaction “*differ along two primary dimensions: constructiveness versus destructiveness, and activity versus passivity*”, as “Voice” and “Loyalty” are constructive reactions meaning that are individual attempts to maintain or recover satisfactory working conditions, on the other hand, “Exit” and “Neglect” are relatively more destructive intentions regarding the organization relationship. Furthermore, “Exit” and “Voice” were described as active reactions, involving direct attempts to deal with dissatisfying conditions at work, whereas “Loyalty” and “Neglect” are described as passive regarding the problem at hand in the organization.

“Exit” and “Voice” are conceptually different responses to dissatisfaction in settings where individuals are not happy with the way things are going.

Furthermore, there are two sequences of responses to dissatisfaction suggested by Withey & Cooper (1989) that aggregate the EVLN responses, the first sequence starts with expressing dissatisfaction to the leader (Voice). When “Voice” doesn't work in the particular situation, the employee may take increase their dissatisfaction, and if there are no changes in his work situation, they will start to continuously putt less effort on their work, or will plan to leave the organization. The second sequence begins with loyalty, if nothing changes in the organization, the next response is voice, if expressing dissatisfaction fails to generate positive changes, the employee will then opt to exit or neglect.

In terms of predictors, job satisfaction is been taken as an antecedent of the EVLN model, in other words, greater job satisfaction is associated with higher intentions to react constructively with “Voice” or “Loyalty” and lower intentions to react destructively with “Exit” or “Neglect” (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). In addition, the most consistently predicted response was found to be “exit” (Withey & Cooper, 1989) which is associated with how low exit costs and voice costs are.

EVLN model is negatively affected by psychological contract violations perceptions, especially with exit and loyalty behaviors (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Active intentions (Exit, Voice) were found to be associated with higher job alternatives while positive reactions originate from greater employee investment (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). Berntson & Näswall (2010) suggested that employees who experience high employability showed increasing intentions to “Exit”, fewer use of “Voice”, and lower levels of “Loyalty”. Such findings suggest that insecure, employable individuals are predisposed to focus on their own career instead of to be involved with their organization (Berntson & Näswall, 2010). In contrast, employees who report low employability and job insecurity show greater loyalty to the organization (Vangel, 2011).

### **1.7 Hypocrisy vs Cynicism vs Distrust**

As mentioned, despite the scarcity of work putting together Hypocrisy, Cynicism, and Distrust, there is enough empirical support to propose a deep association between all three constructs, although they are conceptually different. Indeed, these differences are the base for their possible coexistence. Dean et al., (1998) added some understanding on this matter by stating that distrust may be based on a lack of experience, thus, when a person does not have enough experience with the other party involved, he or she might not be able to trust. In contrast, cynicism is almost certainly based on previous experience. In other words, we can easily imagine distrust from one person toward another party based on a lack of experience to justify such level of trust, however, it is unlikely that someone in similar circumstances would be cynical about the other

party. Furthermore, contrary to cynicism and integrity, trust requires vulnerability to another party to allow a particular action that considers the well-being of the truster (Simons, 2002).

Additionally, trust (or distrust) differs from integrity or hypocrisy, in that trust accounts for affective responses and judgments regarding benevolence (Simons, Friedman, Liu, & Parks, 2007). Hence, hypocrisy is described as a perception of inconsistency and dishonesty (Greenbaum et al., 2015) which means that hypocrisy is based on personal assumptions and is thus susceptible to perceptual bias (Simons, 1997). Finally, it is important to stress that hypocrisy looks at the past while trust and cynicism considers the future.

Despite their conceptual differences, Hypocrisy, Cynicism and Distrust are indeed, deeply related. Several studies analyzing the interpersonal relationships in organizational context suggested trust and distrust as the base of all interpersonal relationships and an important factor for sustaining individual and organizational effectiveness (McAllister, 1995). Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis (2007) defined organizational trust as the willingness of an employee to be vulnerable to the actions of the employer or organization, based on the expectation that others will perform an action important to the trustor. In this sense, “Trust” and “Distrust” are receiving increased attention by scholars studying leader-member exchange theory (LMX), which considers different sub-dimensions of trust such as “trustworthiness” to explain the connection between trust and integrity.

Trustworthiness is defined by Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine (2007: 999) as “*the ability, benevolence, and integrity of a trustee*”, emphasizing the importance of integrity on perceived leader trust (Whitener et al., 2012). This is motivated by Butler & Skipper's (1981) findings that integrity is the condition most similar and important to trust. Indeed, concepts related to integrity have been receiving the attention by researchers working on employees' negative beliefs towards supervisors, for instance, behavioral integrity, a concept developed by Simons (1999) and considered an antonym of hypocrisy (Brunsson, 1993), is defined as “*the perceived degree of congruence between the values expressed by words and those expressed through action*” (3), which has been described as an antecedent of trust (Mayer et al., 1995) and been positively related with trust in supervisors (Simons et al., 2007).

In addition, whereas scholars have varied somewhat in their specific definitions of trust, there is an overall assumption that matching word with deeds is critically important for the development of trust (Kramer, 1999) corroborating the findings of Golembiewski & McConkie (1975) that proposed hypocrisy as one of the several causes of distrust in organizations.

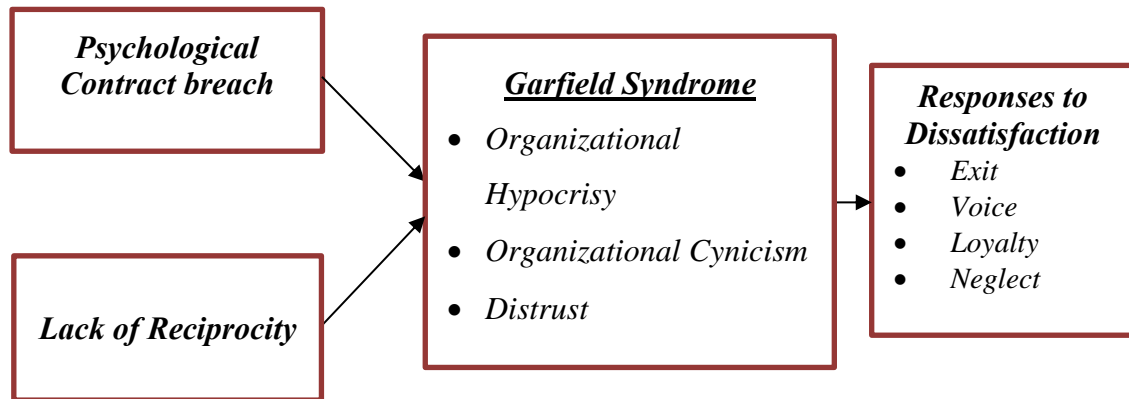
Regarding the importance of supervisors' hypocrisy in interpersonal relationships, Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence (2012) suggested that when employees perceive poor

behavioral integrity (hypocrisy) from their supervisors, they believe their supervisors lack alignment with the organization, which fosters employee organizational cynicism. Indeed, Naus et al. (2007: 689) pointed out that the “*key to organizational cynicism is the belief that the organization lacks integrity*” (hypocrisy). When leaders are perceived as hypocrite, employees feel betrayed, changing their behavior towards the supervisors and using cynicism as a form of self-defense (Reichers et al., 1997). Organizational cynicism was previously described by Stern, Stone, Hopkins, & Mcmillion, (1990) as the specific feelings and attitudes of employees that perceive their work as oppressive, unrewarding, and unworthy of effort. Moreover, cynicism is also related with distrust, Bateman, Sakano, & Fujita, (1992) supported this, emphasizing the link between cynicism and distrust in their definition of organizational cynicism which regards distrustful attitudes towards hierarchy as the key factor of cynicism. Andersson & Bateman, (1997) converge with conceiving cynicism as an attitude involving distrust towards leaders, which was later supported by Thompson's et al. (1999) empirical findings. In other words, cynical employees show distrust in management when the principles of honesty, fairness and sincerity are sacrificed to further self-interest of the organization (Andersson & Bateman, 1997).

Albrecht (2002) is one of the scarce studies combining trust, cynicism and integrity, findings that integrity and trust in senior management are two key determinants of cynicism towards change. A decade after Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence (2012) research is another of the few studies that put together organizational cynicism, behavioral integrity and trust, their findings suggested that organizational cynicism is a mediator of supervisory behavioral integrity on employee commitment, and that trust mediates the relationship between behavioral integrity and organizational cynicism, in other words, when organizational leaders do not live up to their promises, employees are less likely to trust them.

## 1.8. Research model and hypotheses

*Figure 1.1 Research Model*



**Hypothesis 1:** [Organizational Hypocrisy (OH) + Organizational Cynicism (OC) + Distrust (D)] – Correlated

Reasoning that a syndrome is a set of symptoms that correlate between themselves, we expect as a first condition to sustain the construct of “*Garfield syndrome*” that its components show significant, positive internal correlations (H1a: Organizational Hypocrisy, Organizational Cynicism and Distrust, have significant shared variance in a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor structure).

The CFA for the 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor structure comprehending cynicism, hypocrisy and distrust did show acceptable fit indices

• **Hypothesis 1a:** Interaction between [OH+OC+D] - Statistically significant

**Hypothesis 2:** Psychological Contract Breach and Lack of Reciprocity are both antecedents and predictors of [Organizational Hypocrisy + Organizational Cynicism + Distrust]

• **Hypothesis 2a:** The configuration between [OH+OC+D] is better explained by Psychological Contract and Lack of Reciprocity than Organizational Hypocrisy, Organizational Cynicism and Distrust as singular variables.

**Hypothesis 3:** EVLN model is an outcome of the configuration between [OH+OC+D]

• **Hypothesis 3a:** EVLN model is better explained by the configuration between [OH+OC+D] than Organizational Hypocrisy, Organizational Cynicism and Distrust as singular variables



## CHAPTER II - METHOD

### 2.1. Data analysis strategy

Data analysis will start by testing psychometric properties of all constructs although, in the case of the three presumed components of *Garfield Syndrome*, psychometric quality testing will follow a comparative analysis on the basis of three possible models: independent components model, correlated components model, and 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor model (the one that better represents the concept of Syndrome). We will test psychometric quality of measures with confirmatory factor analyses judging on each model's fit indices. We will use Hair et al. (2010) criteria to evaluate the model fit, namely: chi-square, comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). As our sample is composed of 289 individuals, we will adopt cutoff values as shown in table 2.1.

*Table 2.1 – Hair et al. (2010) fit indices for samples over 250*

No. observed variables (m)	m ≤ 12	12 < m < 30	m ≥ 30
$\chi^2$	Insignificant p-values even with good fit	Significant p-values expected	Significant p-values expected
CFI or TLI	.95 or better	Above .92	Above .90
SRMR	Biased upward; use other indices	.08 or less (with CFI above .92)	.08 or less (with CFI above .92)
RMSEA	Values < .07 with CFI of .97 or higher	Values < .07 with CFI of .92 or higher	Values < .07 with CFI of .90 or higher

Whenever fit indices rejected the model we used Lagrange Multipliers to adjust it. All changes are reported. As an additional requisite, we used Cronbach's alpha (set at .70 or above) to judge on scale reliability. Any measure preserved in ensuing analyses is both valid and reliable on the basis of mentioned criteria.

To test for both the differential predictive models for *Garfield Syndrome* (involving lack of reciprocity and psychological contract breach) as well as its explanative power as a predictor of EVLN, we conducted SEM analysis. These were judged on the basis of the exact same criteria as for CFA. We use these fit criteria as well as explained variance to judge on the differential quality of the competing models.

We trust this option offer more parsimony and robustness as it simultaneously controls for relations among variables and possible covariance between errors (Iacobucci, Saldanha, & Deng, 2007). Hypotheses testing is thus conducted by means of Structural Equations Modelling using IBM SPSS AMOS 23.

## **2.2. Sample**

The approach used in this study was hypothetic-deductive. A total of 289 individuals answered to an on-line survey. The sampling was made following snowball procedure by using social network LinkedIn. An email was sent to invite individuals currently working in services sector and targeting different groups in the network so to avoid biases. The convenience nature of the sample advises caution in interpreting findings as externally valid. The final sample comprises 289 individuals, and is largely feminine (81.6%) with ages ranging from 18 up to 70, averaging 40.3 years-old but with slightly more presence of younger participants aging 22-23. The majority (54.1%) of the sample is married and qualified (70.6% with a degree or master degree).

The sample is comprised by individuals that reported mostly to earn (gross income) between 601€ to 1500€ as depicted in table 2.2.

*Table 2.2 – Gross income*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	From 0€ to 600€	45	15.6	18.4	18.4
	601 € to 1000€	68	23.5	27.9	46.3
	1001 € to 1500€	68	23.5	27.9	74.2
	1501€ to 2500€	50	17.3	20.5	94.7
	Over 2500€	13	4.5	5.3	100.0
	Total	244	84.4	100.0	
Missing	System	45	15.6		
Total		289	100.0		



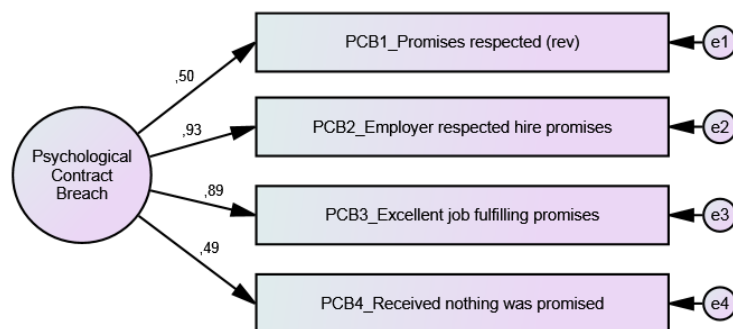
### 2.3. Measures

The measures used, were originally available in English. Since the survey was conducted with a Portuguese sample, we translated and back-translated following Brislin's (1986) procedure. The six constructs previewed in the research model are the following (with respective measures).

**Psychological Contract Breach** was measured with 5 items from Robinson & Morrison's, (2000) perceived breach and feelings of violation scale (e.g. “PCB2\_ I feel that my employer has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired (reversed)”, “PCB4\_ I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.”). Participants were asked to reply using a 5-point Likert scale (1 – “totally disagree” to 5 – “totally agree”).

The CFA for this scale showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=24.367  $p < .001$ , CFI=.892, TLI=.783, RMSEA=.285, SRMR=.09). By using Lagrange multipliers, we removed one item (“PCB5\_ My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal”) leading to a valid model (CMIN/DF=1.611  $p = .20$ , CFI=.997, TLI=.992, RMSEA=.046, SRMR=.0233). This factor had good reliability ( $\alpha = 0.783$ ).

Figure 2.1 CFA Psychological Contract Breach

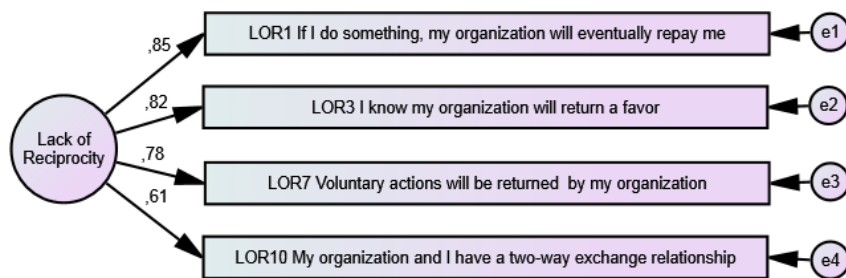


**Lack of Reciprocity** was measured with social leader-member exchange (SLMX) by Bernerth et al. (2007). This scale is based on reciprocity perceptions which we focused on individual-organization relation, i.e. the perceived level of reciprocity participants has about their relationship with their organization. Although other scales are available (e.g. the global measure of reciprocity by Hatfield, Carroll, & Aupperle, (1985) we found SLMX to be the (Aupperle,

Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985) most comprehensive despite requiring adjustment. We hence adjusted Bernerth et al. (2007) 8-item SLMX scale, providing a perception of the organization as a whole and opting to rename it as SOMX. For clarity sake we will show the full list of adjusted items, as follows: 1) “My organization and I have a two-way exchange relationship”, 2) “I do not have to specify the exact conditions to know my organization will return a favor”, 3) “If I do something for my organization, my organization will eventually repay me”, 4) “I have a balance of inputs and outputs with my organization”, 5) “My efforts are reciprocated by my organization”, 6) “My relationship with my organization, is composed of comparable exchanges of giving and taking”, 7) “When I give efforts at work, my organization will return it”, and 8) “Voluntary actions on my part will be returned somehow by my organization”.

The CFA of the single factor comprehending the 8 items showed unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=3.120  $p < .001$ ; CFI=.965; TLI=.947; RMSEA=.086; SRMR=.0454). Lagrange multiplier tests led us to preserve four items leading to a valid model (CMIN/DF=1.995  $p = .136$ , CFI=.996, TLI=.988, RMSEA=.059; SRMR=.0154). This factor showed good reliability (Lack of reciprocity, 4 items,  $\alpha = 0.849$ ).

*Figure 2.2 CFA Lack of Reciprocity*

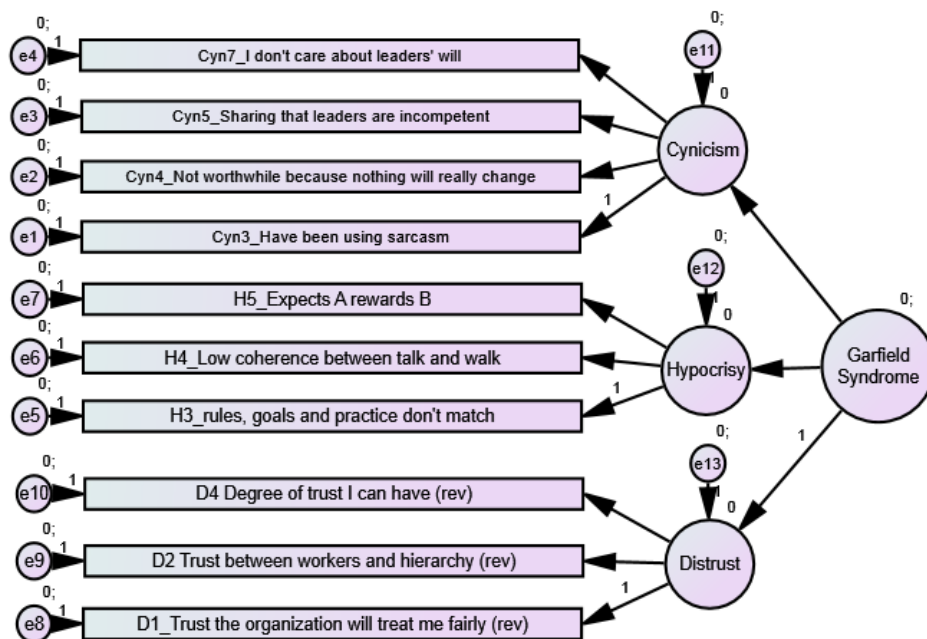


**Garfield syndrome (Hypocrisy-Cynicism-Distrust)** was measured on the basis of literature review that puts together in a composite scale hypocrisy, cynicism and distrust. For this purpose, we have joined Naus, Iterson & Roe (2007) six-item Cynicism scale (e.g. “Talk to your colleagues about your management’s incompetence”), complemented by Dharwadkar’s (1999, cit in Johnson & O’Leary-Kelly, 2003) cognitive cynicism scale (unpublished), which has, to our knowledge, items that fit the definition of hypocrisy as conceived by Brunsson (1993: 501) which defined hypocrisy as “*produced ideas that are inconsistent with actions*”. For clarity sake, we will show the full list with the original items which were further translated and adjusted, as follows: 1) “I believe that [the organization] always does what it says it will do”; 2) “When [the organization] says it’s going to do some- thing, I know that it will really happen”; 3) “[The

organization’s] policies, goals, and practices seem to have little in common”; 4) “I see little similarity between what [the organization] says it will do and what it actually does”; and 5) “[The organization] expects one thing of its employees, but rewards another”. As we can see, all the items are in line with the integrity dimension and are based on matching words and deeds.

Lastly, we included 4 items from organizational trust inventory (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996) that were reversed to measure distrust (e.g. “The level of trust between supervisors and workers in this organization is...”). For the Syndrome to be valid, it is required that Cynicism, Hypocrisy and Distrust integrate into a 2nd order factor. The psychometric test is shown under the results section as it is a specific objective of this study to test whether the second order factor comprehending cynicism, hypocrisy and distrust survives fit indices.

*Figure 2.3 CFA Garfield Syndrome*

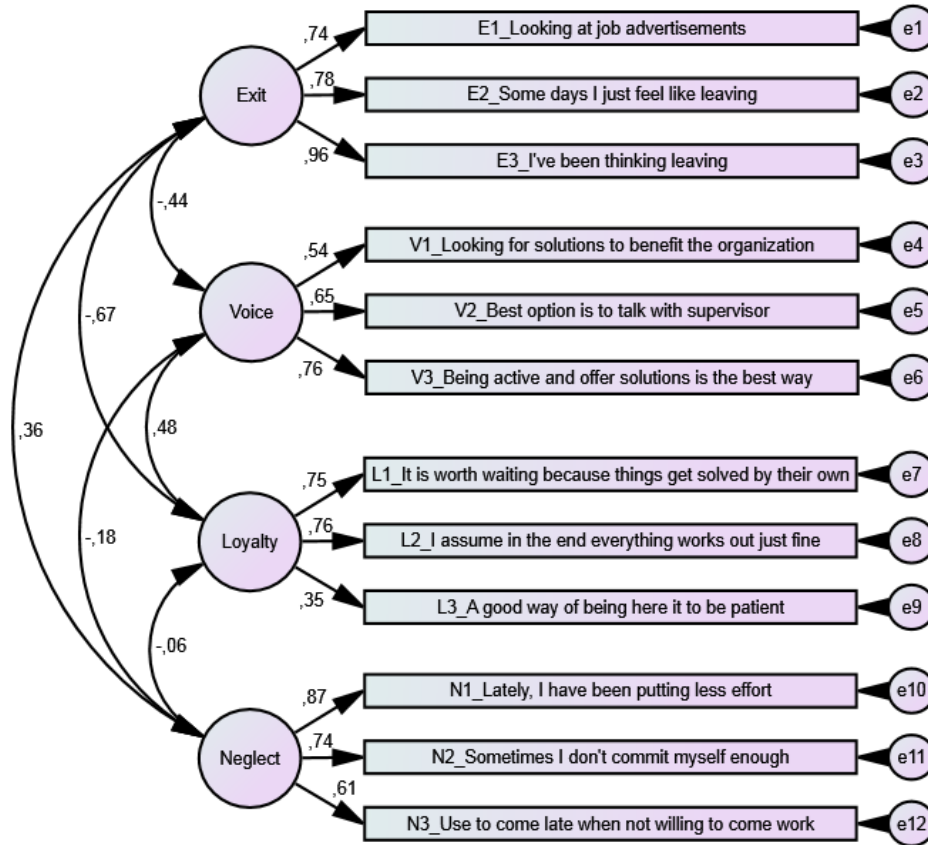


**Responses to Dissatisfaction (EVLN)** was measured with a 12-item adapted scale from Withey and Cooper (1989) on the basis of Farrell’s (1983) model on responses to dissatisfaction. This comprehends four 3-item behavioral outcomes: Exit (e.g. “deciding to quit the company”), Voice (e.g. “Talking to supervisor to try and make things better”), Loyalty (e.g. “Waiting patiently and hoping any problems will solve themselves”), and Neglect (e.g. “Becoming less interested and making more errors”).

The CFA of the four factor model showed valid fit indices (CMIN/DF=1.944,  $p < .001$ ; CFI=.958; TLI=.932; RMSEA=.057; SRMR=.049). Exit and Neglect factors had acceptable

reliabilities ( $\alpha = .854$ , and  $\alpha = .781$ , respectively) while Voice and Loyalty showed suboptimal ( $\alpha = .687$ , and  $\alpha = .660$ , respectively).

Figure 2.4 CFA EVLN responses to dissatisfaction



## CHAPTER III - RESULTS

Results will be presented in two phases, firstly we will show the descriptive and explore bivariate relations, and then we test the full research model.

### 3.1 Descriptive and bivariate statistics

The sample reports having moderate levels of all psychological-based variables included in the model. The components of *Garfield Syndrome* fell all within the vicinity of one standard deviation from the median point in the scale. Although the level of distrust could be interpreted as indicative of high distrust it is important to keep in mind that the scale has 7 points, instead of the 5 (which we kept to be faithful to the original scale). Within behavioral responses it is Voice that emerges as the most present although not reaching the second highest possible point in the scale. Neglect received the lowest average achieving a 2.1 value in the 5 point scale. Within potential predictors of *Garfield Syndrome* none stands out as regards averages.

As regards bivariate analysis, the first exceptional result is the set of correlations between Garfield's components ranging from .455 to .561, all significant for  $p < .01$ . This is encouraging of a possible empirical basis for the existence of such syndrome that only Confirmatory Factor Analyses will allow testing adequately.

Within socio-demographics, all significant correlations very much match expectations, hence suggesting the sample replied on a purposeful way. The number and magnitude of correlations between socio-demographics and all psychological-based variables is quite low and do not compel for using them as control variables, although we opted to do so.

Psychological contract breach and lack of reciprocity have both significant correlations with Garfield's components and behavioral responses that run as expected to the exception of voice.

Lastly, bivariate associations between Garfield components and behavioral responses show mostly significant cases with values as high as .620 (distrust \* exit) to the exception of "neglect" that is only associated with "cynicism".

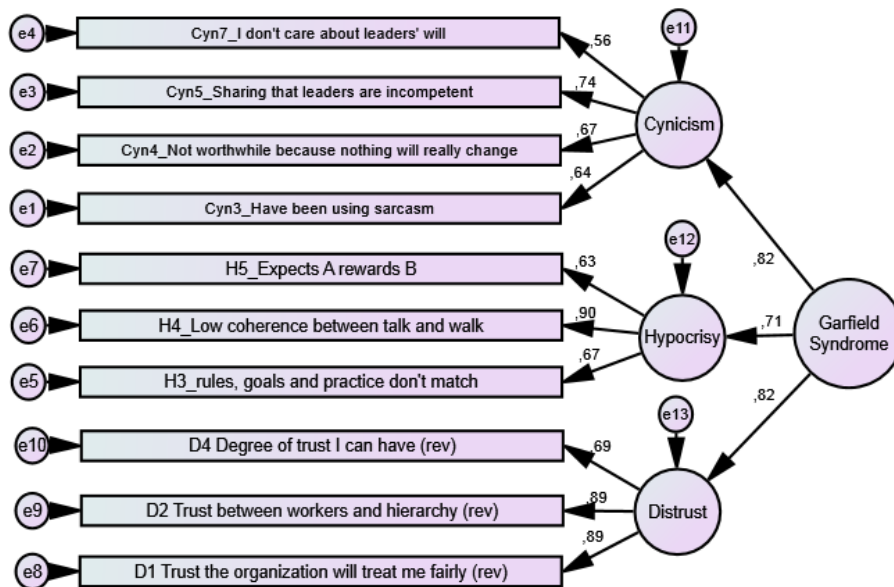
*Table 3.1 – Descriptive and bivariate*

	min_max	med	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Gender	1(F)	-	-	1													
2. Age	18-70	40.3	11.8	.110	1												
3. Civil status	1-5	-	-	.193	.550**	1											
4. Education	1-7	4.04	.991	.060	-.058	.080	1										
5. Income (gross)	1-5	2.66	1.15	.056	.501**	.274**	.263**	1									
6. Organizational tenure	1-5	3.45	1.50	-.156*	.755**	.512**	-.042	.449**	1								
7. PCBreach	1-5	2.89	.86	.123	-.164*	.211**	-.019	-.089	-.235**	1							
8. Lack of Reciprocity	1-5	2.73	.99	.089	-.113	.107	-.024	-.151*	-.212**	.576**	1						
9. Cynicism	1-5	2.58	.87	-.008	-.016	.051	.059	-.062	.067	-.506**	-.418**	1					
10. Hypocrisy	1-5	3.15	.91	-.129*	.055	.106	.001	-.055	.125	-.486**	-.447**	.455**	1				
11. Distrust	1-7	4.20	1.23	-.100	.121	.111	.001	.015	.236**	-.618**	-.622**	.561**	.543**	1			
12. Exit	1-5	3.15	1.16	-.022	-.213**	.008	.108	-.078	-.080	-.537**	-.483**	.598**	.503**	.620**	1		
13. Voice	1.33-5	3.64	.68	.060	-.005	.046	.029	.076	-.079	.245**	.396**	-.411**	-.244**	-.393**	-.347**	1	
14. Loyalty	1-5	3.16	.78	-.002	-.061	.117	.009	-.154*	-.126*	.478**	.500**	-.330**	-.361**	-.547**	-.493**	.291**	1
15. Neglect	1-5	2.10	.95	-.046	-.146*	.003	.102	-.146*	-.071	-.044	-.009	.347**	.115	.005	.323**	-.128*	-.008

### 3.2 Hypotheses testing

The first hypothesis proposed that a second order factor could be found for the ensemble of cynicism, hypocrisy and distrust, taken together as a syndrome. CFA for such factor structure with the original scales used, did show unacceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=5.356,  $p < .001$ ; CFI=.800; TLI=.758; RMSEA=.123; SRMR=.0846). Lagrange multipliers advised the removal of two items from cynicism, two more from hypocrisy and another one from Distrust. The revised model comprising 10 items (Cynicism, 4 items; Hypocrisy, 3 items, and Distrust, 3 items) showed valid fit indices (CMIN/DF=2.401,  $p < .01$ ; CFI=.962; TLI=.946; RMSEA=.070) and good reliabilities (Alpha=.747; .764; and .861 respectively).

Figure 3.1 SEM Garfield Syndrome configuration



It is especially critical that the factor loadings for the syndrome are all positive and significant which supports H1, we described the path significance for all loadings in Table 3.2.

*Table 3.2 – Standardized and non-standardized Regression Weights*

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized estimate
Cynicism	<---	Syndrome	,625	,087	7,157	***	,815
Hypocrisy	<---	Syndrome	,469	,067	7,035	***	,713
Distrust	<---	Syndrome	1,000				,823
Cynicism_3	<---	Cynicism	1,000				,639
Cynicism_4	<---	Cynicism	1,053	,120	8,789	***	,671
Cynicism_5	<---	Cynicism	1,171	,126	9,316	***	,740
Cynicism_7	<---	Cynicism	,643	,084	7,651	***	,558
Hypocrisy_3	<---	Hypocrisy	1,000				,669
Hypocrisy_4	<---	Hypocrisy	1,544	,144	10,693	***	,895
Hypocrisy_5	<---	Hypocrisy	1,068	,115	9,326	***	,634
Distrust1	<---	Distrust	1,000				,886
Distrust 2	<---	Distrust	,924	,050	18,390	***	,891
Distrust 4	<---	Distrust	,738	,055	13,312	***	,693

As all the paths between *Garfield Syndrome* and its components are significant, hence H1 is supported by these findings. A subsequent test for the plausibility of *Garfield Syndrome* involves its differential capacity to be both explained by antecedents (such as Lack of Reciprocity and Psychological Contract Breach) and explain a linked outcome such as behavioral intentions towards organizational crisis (Exit, Voice, Loyalty, Neglect).

As a sequential test, we show results found for *Garfield syndrome* predictors judging on SEM fit indices and explained variance (Table 3.3; 3.4; 3.5). After this, we shall repeat the procedure but judging on *Garfield Syndrome* capacity to explain variance and show better fit indices as a predictor (Table 3.6).



*Table 3.3 – Differential results for independent vs 2<sup>nd</sup> order SEM model LoR-Garfield Syndrome*

Model	CMIN/DF, p-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	explained R <sup>2</sup> Cynicism	explained R <sup>2</sup> Hypocrisy	explained R <sup>2</sup> Distrust	Average explained R <sup>2</sup>
Independent syndrome components	3.202, p<.001	.912	.891	.087	*35%	*33%	*52%	*40%
2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor syndrome components	2.200, p<.001	.952	.941	.065	**58% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	**49% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	**78% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	**52% (by predictor)

Results show that the SEM model with the three components as independent variables doesn't have acceptable fit indices. We show explained variances for clarity sake, but without acceptable fit indices, they are not trustable. Conversely, the SEM model that aggregates the three components as a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor (syndrome) did show acceptable fit indices as well as better explanative power of Lack of Reciprocity in all of the three components in a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor with the average R<sup>2</sup> of 52%.

Comparatively, the syndrome model is preferable to the independent model which supports H2, in other words, organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust modelled as a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor syndrome are better explained by Lack of Reciprocity than the three components treated separately.

*Table 3.4 – Differential results for independent vs 2<sup>nd</sup> order SEM model PCB-Garfield Syndrome*

Model	CMIN/DF, p-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA A	explained R <sup>2</sup> Cynicism	explained R <sup>2</sup> Hypocrisy	explained R <sup>2</sup> Distrust	Average explained R <sup>2</sup>
Independent syndrome components	3.238, p<.001	.910	.889	.088	35%	32%	55%	40.7%
2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor syndrome components	2.318, p<.001	.948	.935	.068	56% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	46% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	81% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	57% (by predictor)

Results show that the SEM model with the three components as independent variables associated with Psychological Contract Breach also, have unacceptable fit indices. On the other hand, the SEM model that aggregates the three components as a 2nd order factor did show acceptable fit indices as well as better explanative power of Psychological Contract Breach in all of the three components in a 2nd order factor. Indeed, distrust was the higher explained construct (81%), hence, the average R2 of Psychological contract breach in the 2nd order factor is (57%) which supports H2. This means that organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust as a 2nd order factor syndrome are better explained by Psychological Contract than the three components treated separately.

*Table 3.5 – Differential results for independent vs 2<sup>nd</sup> order SEM model LoR+PCB-GS*

Model	CMIN/DF, p-value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	explained R <sup>2</sup> Cynicism	explained R <sup>2</sup> Hypocrisy	explained R <sup>2</sup> Distrust	Average explained R <sup>2</sup>
Independent syndrome components	2.555, p<.001	.921	.906	.073	38%	36%	62%	45.3%
2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor syndrome components	2.174, p<.001	.940	.929	.064	55% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	47% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	82% (by 2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor)	69% (by predictor)

Considering eventual covariance's between lack of reciprocity and psychological contract breach, we analysed the predictive model taking simultaneously these variables. Results remained as favouring the model that takes GS as a second order factor. It not only has better fit indices as average explained variance is manifestly higher.

Table 3.6 shows similar results for a model that takes the three components as separate predictors of EVLN, as correlated predictors and as aggregated predictors into a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor.

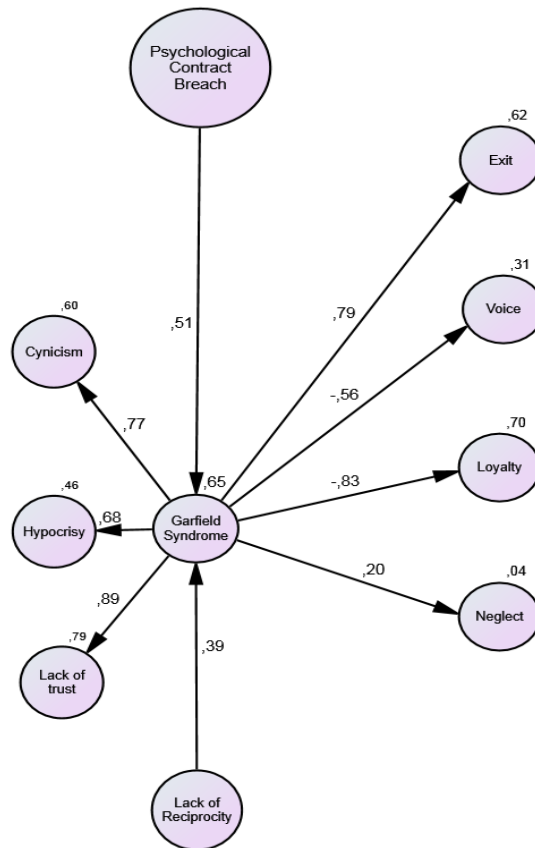
*Table 3.6 – Differential results for independent, correlated vs 2<sup>nd</sup> order SEM model GS-EVLN*

Model	CMIN/D F, p- value	CF I	TL I	RMSE A	explain ed R <sup>2</sup> Exit	explain ed R <sup>2</sup> Voice	explain ed R <sup>2</sup> Loyalty	explain ed R <sup>2</sup> Neglect	Averag e explain ed R <sup>2</sup>
Independe nt syndrome componen ts	2.928, p<.001	.85 4	.81 3	.082	49%	29%	54%	44%	44%
Correlated syndrome componen ts	1.905, p<.001	.93 3	.91 2	.056	63%	37%	60%	39%	49.8%
2 <sup>nd</sup> order factor syndrome componen ts	2.093, p<.001	.91 5	.89 4	.062	68%	34%	64%	07%	43.3%

Results show clearly that the three components should not be treated as independent as fit indices are unacceptable. Comparatively, the second order factor seems to match roughly those fit indices of the correlated solution. The correlated solution is able to explain more variance than the second order solution (49.8% vs 43.3%). Judging on the magnitude of the correlations between distrust and the other factors (cynicism and hypocrisy) we think that, to the exception of a lessened capacity to explain neglect behaviour and a higher capacity to explain both exit and loyalty, not much difference is found between both models. Taking this into consideration, we opted to highlight the criticality of exit and loyalty intentions when compared with that of neglect. Besides, the magnitude of correlations between components may play a role in inflating variance due to multicollinearity, which is bypassed in the 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor.

Finally, we considered the full model that incorporates both the predictors of *Garfield syndrome* (Lack of reciprocity and Psychological Contract Breach) and its outcomes (EVLN). Overall the SEM full model, show barely acceptable fit indices (CMIN/DF=1.941, p<.01; CFI=.907; TLI=.891; RMSEA=.057) and a logical path coefficients between constructs suggests an interpretable model as all coefficients were found to be both significant and with the expectable valence.

*Figure 3.2 SEM overall model*



Psychological Contract Breach was correlated with Garfield Syndrome, namely as a predictor, with a positive correlation ( $r = .51, p < .01$ ) while “Lack of Reciprocity” showed also significant path to Garfield Syndrome ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ), as expected.

In the overall model, Garfield Syndrome explains 60% of the construct “Cynicism”, 46% of the construct “Hypocrisy” and 79% of the construct “distrust”. The results show that when Psychological Contract Breach or Lack of reciprocity is stronger, Garfield Syndrome increases.

Responses to Dissatisfaction (EVLN) as a response variable, is predicted by Garfield Syndrome. Considering the 4 specific responses to dissatisfaction separately, we found contrasting association magnitudes. Namely, “Exit” and “Loyalty” responses show equally strong correlations (Exit,  $r = .79, p < .01$ ) albeit of inverse valence (Loyalty,  $r = -.83, p < .01$ ). The explained variance is respectively 62% and 70% which may be considered very high. Also, significant but of a more modest magnitude, “Voice” response has a negative moderate correlation ( $r = -.56, p < .01$ ) and “Neglect” a positive correlation of a lesser magnitude ( $r = .20, p < .01$ ). Explained variance is correspondingly lower i.e. 31% in “Voice” and negligible in “Neglect” (4%).

## CHAPTER IV – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The absence of a single reference to hypocrisy or to cynicism in Simons et al. (2015) meta-analysis on behavioural integrity is quite informative on how disconnected these constructs are in extant empirical research. This is somewhat surprising due to its interwoven conceptual nature. The main purpose of this study was to understand the interplay between organizational hypocrisy (OH), organizational cynicism (OC), and distrust (D), specifically, the extent to which the three components can act as a syndrome. To achieve it, we tested three hypotheses that would support our empirical premise, namely, the aggregability of these three constructs into a single 2nd order one, i.e. *Garfield Syndrome*, in addition, we tested to which extent Psychological Contract Breach and Lack of Reciprocity can better predict the syndrome as a single construct than the three [OH + OC + D] components treated as singular variables. Finally, we tested if the *Garfield Syndrome* as a single construct, has more explanative power in predicting Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect responses to dissatisfaction when compared with the three [OH + OC + D] components separately (even when correlated among themselves).

Our results, as expected, suggested that organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust may act as a syndrome in the proposed structural model as the results of this study supported the three empirical hypothesis tested. Indeed, the three components [OH + OC + D] showed significant and positive internal correlation, which corroborated H1 and are consistent with literature that relates hypocrisy, cynicism and distrust (Albrecht, 2002; Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012).

In addition, the results of our study suggest that Psychological Contract Breach is related in a predictable manner with organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust as singular variables, in other words, perceived unmet expectations and broken promises can decrease employees level of trust in their supervisors, increase cynical beliefs towards the organization and the perception of incongruence between words and deeds. These results add empirical support to previous studies of (Robinson, 1996) that suggested Psychological Contract Breach as a predictor of distrust as well as Robinson & Rousseau (1994) findings that proposed cynical attitudes, distrust towards the supervisions and leaders lack of integrity as a consequence of violated psychological contracts. Moreover, our results supported H2, as psychological

contract breach had more predictive power on *Garfield Syndrome* in comparison with the three components [OH + OC + D] as single variables.

Additionally, lack of reciprocity was also a predictor of the *Garfield syndrome*, meaning that unreciprocated efforts might affect the level of trust in supervisors. This is very much in line with Kahan's (2002) who stated that trust and reciprocity are deeply connected. It also means that lack of reciprocity can generate cynical beliefs and attitudes towards the organization which corroborates Moliner et al. (2014) findings. Furthermore, the predictive effect of lack of reciprocity on *Garfield Syndrome* was also tested, with results supporting H2, since a significant correlation between the two constructs was found. This might be interpreted as *Garfield Syndrome* being a consequence of lack of reciprocity. When comparing the effects on the three components (as singular variables) and *Garfield Syndrome* (the 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor), lack of reciprocity has slightly more predictive power on *Garfield Syndrome*. In other words, the three components treated together as a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor can be better explained by both psychological contract breach and lack of reciprocity, considered individually or as a whole. This corroborated H2 and adds empirical value to our initial premise: organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust can act as symptoms of a singular syndrome.

Finally, the results on the differential explanative power of the three components [OH + OC + OD] in comparison with the syndrome on EVLN model responses to dissatisfaction, corroborated H3. Additionally, the three components should not be treated as independent in our structural model, based on the average variance and the fit indices. Only the 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor model showed acceptable fit indices, as well as better average explained variance of the four responses to dissatisfaction (Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect), noticeably in Exit and Loyalty responses.

#### **4.1. *Garfield Syndrome***

We believe these findings add value to extant research on hypocrisy, cynicism and distrust in organizational context. The results of our study are in line with Bateman et al. (1992) conception of cynicism as distrustful attitudes towards the organization, tacitly acknowledging the role of distrust on cynical beliefs and attitudes, or Thompson's et al. (1999) view of distrust as a ground to organizational cynicism. Also, integrity or lack of it (hypocrisy) has been related with cynicism, for instance, Mirvis & Kanter, (1991) pointed out that cynical employees are more apt to doubt the integrity of their supervisors, or Dean's et al. (1998) conviction that organizational cynicism stems from a perception that the organization lacks moral integrity. Such findings go

in line with Albrecht (2002) and Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence (2012) research on the connection between hypocrisy, cynicism, and distrust.

Although Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence (2012) suggested a causal nexus between behavioral integrity, trust, and organizational cynicism we contend that the dynamics between these variables may be more complex, of a circular nature. This means that they may be better conceived as interacting in such a similar way of a syndrome. In this sense, organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust even though conceptually separated, might be able to coexist as symptoms of the *Garfield Syndrome* since our results show they are significantly correlated with each other.

The *Syndrome* proposal is also supported by our results that show a stronger predictive ability of psychological contract and lack of reciprocity on the three components configured in a 2<sup>nd</sup> order factor (Syndrome) in comparison with their predictive power on organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism, and distrust as separated variables.

Finally, *Garfield Syndrome* was able to moderately explain the EVLN model of responses to dissatisfaction. Indeed, the syndrome generally accounts for more EVLN variance than organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust separately.

In sum, all the tested hypotheses are supported by our findings, which suggests organizational hypocrisy, organizational cynicism and distrust might be better treated has a singular composite construct when related with psychological contract breach, lack of reciprocity, and behavioral responses to dissatisfaction.

Considering Simons (2002) assumptions on organizational hypocrisy, the work of Dean et al. (1998) on organizational cynicism, and Gouvier's (1994) definition of distrust, we can describe employees with *Garfield Syndrome* as individuals with cynical beliefs and attitudes towards their supervisors and organization, that use sarcastic humour as self-defensive mechanism, while having a perception of incongruence between their leaders' values and their actual actions as well as low level of confidence in their employer and high concern about the lack of care demonstrated. These three components have a mutual reinforcing action as suggested by the strong internal correlations.

According to our results, the causes of these negative feelings towards the organization might be unmet expectations, broken promises or unreciprocated efforts by the supervisors or the organization. Finally, the symptoms of the *Garfield Syndrome* [OH + OC + D] can generate different behavioural responses. Results suggest that EVLN model can be an outcome of the *Garfield Syndrome*, specifically "Exit" and "Loyalty", which are the most probable responses from *Garfield's*, in other words, employees with *Garfield Syndrome* in crisis situations, will

likely search and plan to leave the organization versus will stay on board but losing a sense of loyalty, i.e. waive passively waiting for what to do.

Overall, we can conclude that *Garfield Syndrome* can be an emerging construct in dealing with these dynamics, and Brunsson logics do not apply specifically to this syndrome judging on findings from this study.

## **4.2 Limitations and future research**

In order to match the requirements of the empirical design with our research purposes, this study did face some limitations. In fact, we must stress that none of the original scales was kept integrally due to psychometric issues. Nevertheless, the adjustments made in CFA are backed up by good fit indices and they were made taking into consideration the content validity and theoretical background of the constructs.

The sampling procedure as well as sample size might also be a matter of inquiring. We acknowledge the convenience nature of our sample rules out claims of external validity especially as we collect data using social and professional networks to snow-ball the sample.

Furthermore, we believe that the internal validity of this study is good enough to support our results and offer a reasonable answer to the research questions.

The cross-sectional design of our research comprehends subjective variables measured simultaneously, which makes it susceptible to common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), in this sense we tested for Harman's single factor and found no indication of such possibility.

These limitations can be addressed by changing methodological options in future studies. For example, by increasing of the sample size, it would be interesting to aggregate the sample by generations (Baby boomers, X & Millennials) while testing moderation effects. Hence it might add value to understand which of the generations is more affected by the different stigma in the employer-employee relationship stressed on this study, due to the different experiences, influences and realities throughout their development, some generations of employees could be more prone to show symptoms of the *Garfield Syndrome*.

Furthermore, testing different variables to predict *Garfield Syndrome* and compare their predictive power both to the syndrome and their components [OH + OC + D] as separate constructs will add empirical support to this configuration. We believe there are strong motives to treat organizational justice as a predictor of the *Garfield Syndrome*, according with previous work connecting justice with level of trust in supervisors and organizations (Bernerth,



Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Saunders & Thornhill, 2004), justice with organizational cynicism (Bernerth et al., 2007) and with hypocrisy (Fortin & Fellenz, 2004).

Finally, we suggest one hypothetical outcome variable of *Garfield Syndrome* to offer further support to our empirical premise in this study. On the basis of literature relating Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) with negative beliefs and attitudes towards the organization, such as trust (Deluga, 1995), cynicism (Wilkerson et al., 2008) and hypocrisy (Cha & Edmondson, 2006) we suggest testing if *Garfield Syndrome* is able to explain more of the construct OCB than the separated variables.

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