Abstract:
This study examined the relationship between workplace ostracism, psychological capital, job performance, job stress and turnover intention. With two waves survey (N= 229 paired responses) of full time employee working in different organizations of Pakistan, present research examined the relationship of workplace ostracism with job outcomes (job performance, job stress and turnover intention) by focusing the moderating effect of psychological capital. Results provided strong support for our proposed hypotheses. Results suggested that workplace ostracism shows significantly positive relationship with job stress and turnover intention and negative relationship with job performance. Moreover, the negative relationship between workplace ostracism and job performance was weaker when psychological capital was high. Similarly the relationship between workplace ostracism with job stress and turnover intention was weaker when psychological capital was high.

Keywords: workplace ostracism, psychological capital, job stress
1. INTRODUCTION

Workplace ostracism is a phenomenon in which individuals perceive that they are ignored by other employees at workplace (Ferris et al., 2008; Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang, 2012). A research of 262 employees indicated that, 66 percent respondents felt that they were ignored by co-workers, whereas 29 percent respondents reported that other co-workers deliberately left the room when they entered (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Workplace ostracism decreases the opportunity for social interaction, which is crucial for humans to fulfill their psychological needs. Indeed, workplace ostracism potentially influences employees’ mental and physical health (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). Today’s in workplace, teamwork has increased intensely, indicating the need for more social interface with colleagues (Sundstrom et al., 2000). Workplace ostracism is a very persuasive variable in explaining a disenchanted sense of belonging and reduced workplace contributions (O’Reilly & Robinson, 2009).

Despite the prevalence and importance of workplace ostracism, surprisingly little research has examined the impact of this phenomenon (Ferris et al., 2008). Thus, it is crucial to understand the effect of being ostracized on job related outcomes.

Lately, researchers of positive organizational behavior have stressed to focus on employee wellbeing in the workplace (Luthans & Youssaf, 2007). These positive psychological approaches have emerged with a focus on what is right with people rather than on the traditional approaches of what is wrong with people (Luthans, 2002). This line of thinking has resulted in the coinage of the term \textit{psychological capital} (Avey, Luthans, & Yousef, 2010).

Although PsyCap is composed of four components - hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience (Luthans, Yousef, & Avolio, 2007). (1) Efficacy is “the employee’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b: 66) (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success” (Luthans et al., 2007: 3).

Ostracism is an interpersonal stressor and a painful experience that can lead to stress related outcomes (Williams, 1997, 2001). Consequently, it is important to study the relationship between workplace ostracism and stress related outcomes. (Wu et al., 2012). Moreover, how to cope with ostracism is also important because coping strategies may weaken the relationships between ostracism and its negative effect on job related outcomes (Williams, 2007). According to Abbas, Raja, Darr, Bouckenooghe (2012) few research have attempted to investigate the moderating role of individuals difference variables between stressor and job outcomes and lacking individual psychological resource especially psychological capital, so based on conservation of resource theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 2011) present research argue that psychological capital will act as buffering agent and mitigate the harmful effect of workplace ostracism on job outcomes. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between workplace ostracism and employee job outcomes, by focusing psychological capital as moderator. We propose that psychological capital is an important variable to cope with workplace ostracism.

This study makes three major contributions to the literature related to workplace ostracism, psychological capital and job outcomes. First, we extend both the workplace ostracism and job outcomes literature by theoretically and empirically testing the ostracism model (Williams, 1997, 2001) to connect workplace ostracism and job outcomes in a field setting. Second, we examine the moderating roles of individual ability (i.e. psychological capital), providing boundary conditions for the relationship between workplace ostracism and job outcomes.

In addition, majority of research have been conducted in western culture, a large number of theories have been developed and tested in western settings (United States and Europe) and practitioners will have less confidence about their generalizability in non-western settings (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). By using sample from Pakistani culture, we believe this research fill the gap and examine the validity of concepts mostly developed in Western cultures. Lastly, we use two-wave design to data collection, we measured workplace ostracism and psychological capital at time 1 and we measured job outcome at time 2.
2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

As an interpersonal stressor, ostracism threatens the social resources of the target, which are assets that can be drawn upon when needed, to solve a problem or cope with a challenging event (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Based on the COR theory people protect, retain and generate resources, given that these resources are limited at workplace (Hobfoll, 2001). People find it threatening when they see substantial loss of these worthy resources, these resource losing event are potential cause of workplace stressors (Hobfoll, 1989).

Workplace ostracism presents challenges which can decrease ostracism as significant challenges that can decrease the resources that individual hold. This is because, on the one hand, individuals need to mobilize resources to counter ostracism, and on the other hand, they are less likely to refill their resources from other people, leading to a situation in which resources are drained away. As resources can support individuals in handling their daily work, people who run out of resources are likely to become stressed and exhausted (Hobfoll, 1989).

Williams (1997, 2001) developed the most popular model to predict ostracism outcomes. This model is premised on the belief that ostracism can threaten social resources, and consequently can be viewed as a stressor (Williams, 2001). Recent studies have demonstrated that social ostracism leads to a series of psychologically aversive reactions, including anger (Chow et al., 2008). In particular, organizational research has revealed that workplace ostracism is related to higher levels of anxiety, depression, job search behaviour, and turnover intentions, as well as lower levels of satisfaction and psychological health (Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan et al., 2006). Interestingly, experimental studies provide evidence that the source of ostracism does not significantly moderate the negative effects of ostracism on the target of being ostracized. One study demonstrated that people who are ostracized by in-group and out-group members manipulated by two groups of computer users (PC and Macintosh users) suffer similar levels of loss of belonging (Williams et al., 2000).

A further study revealed that being ostracized by a despised out-group member is no less detrimental than being ostracized by rival out-group and in-group members (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007). Although all of the previously described consequences are undesirable, this study focuses on employees' psychological distress. Such distress includes job tension, emotional exhaustion, and depressed mood at work, all of which have been linked to important job, family, and health outcomes such as job satisfaction, work–family conflict (Grandey et al., 2005), organizational citizenship behaviour, workplace deviance (Lee and Allen, 2002), job performance (Cropanzano et al., 2003), intention to leave (Harvey et al., 2007).

Job tension has long been defined as ‘the psychological reaction of workers to disturbances in the objective or perceived work environment’ (Chisholm et al., 1983, p. 387). Scholars have also applied this definition in recent research (Harvey et al., 2007). Job tension, referring to the effect of stressful conditions in the workplace (Pool, 2000), is an important mediator between job stressor and job performance (Hochwarter et al., 2007) and is included in many studies to reflect the stress effect (Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990). Job tension is distinguishable from job stress in that the latter stems from environmental situations or events potentially capable of providing a state of stress (e.g. work overload) (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1986), whereas the former is a psychological reaction to job stress, and occurs within the body in response to job stress (Macan, 1994). As the present study focuses on psychological distress, job tension rather than job stress is identified as an outcome.

In extending Williams’ (1997) model that links ostracism and threatened needs, we argue that ostracism leads to the depletion of employees’ capacity to maintain resources to meet demand and fulfill expectations, which in turn tends to create job tension between one’s self and the workplace environment (i.e. job demands and performance expectations).

This suggests a positive relationship between workplace ostracism and job tension. Moreover, the most widely reported component of burnout is emotional exhaustion, defined as ‘a chronic state of emotional and physical depletion’ (Cropanzano et al., 2003, p. 160). This involves feelings of being overextended and depleted of one’s emotional and physical resources (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2005). Emotional exhaustion occurs when emotional demands exceed what individuals can afford during interpersonal interactions (Maslach et al., 2001).
Ostracism constitutes a form of resource loss in terms of work support from colleagues. According to research, when individuals feel that they do not have enough resources to handle the daily work that confronts them, they experience emotional exhaustion (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). When employees are ostracized, their emotional connections with others are cut. Humans need social interaction as a means of sharing their emotional feelings, in order to enhance their emotional resources and maintain their psychological and physical health (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). When the needs of emotional sharing cannot be fulfilled, emotional resources are lost, thereby leading to emotional exhaustion. This suggests a noteworthy relationship between workplace ostracism and emotional exhaustion.

Ostracism causes a painful and negative experience (Gruter & Masters, 1986). Research has revealed that negative experiences cause intense emotional reactions, stress at workplace (Taylor, 1991). Facing a stressful work environment alone can decrease job performance (Vigoda, 2000). Studies using experiments and surveys have provided evidence that the target of ostracism displays (Ferris et al., 2008; Leary, 1990; Williams et al., 2002). Employees opt for alternative jobs with less level of stress at work due to reduction of their significant resources as a consequence of facing social stressors at present jobs (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Ostracism is such an aversive and painful experience that it generally leads to depression, stress and high turnover intention. (Ferris et al., 2007; Williams et al., 2000). Overall, workplace ostracism is regarded as a workplace stressor that threatens employees’ resources that enable them to cope with their work and daily life. Following the theory of COR (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) and the model of ostracism (Williams, 1997, 2001), we propose:

**Hypothesis 1:** Workplace ostracism is negatively related with job performance and positively related with job stress and turnover intention.

Based on COR, a recent research has shown the importance and conceptualization of individual’s psychological resource to cope up with the detrimental effects of workplace ostracism (Wu et al., 2012). Social stressors reduce motivation to work, which ultimately thwarts personal goals, individual performance and career growth (Lepine, Podsakoff, & Lepine, 2005). Here COR helps in demarcating the way by which resource like psychological capital support individuals in coping with social stressors. Individuals having crucial resources (psychological capital) might be able of choosing, altering and implementing their other resources to encounter stressful issues (Hobfoll, 2002).

When individuals faced Social stressor (workplace ostracism), in order to maintain a balance they put efforts to successful cope up (hobfoll, 2011). The ratio for success depends on psychological resource an individual’s (Treadway et al., 2005). Thus, individuals psychological resources play a persuasive role in attribution of resource loss. This resource loss may refers to perceived loss due to workplace ostracism.

We proposed that individual with high psychological capital shows higher level of confidence for accomplishment of difficult tasks, their ability to do their best and facing hurdles are likely to perceived ostracized activities as less harmful and threatening and less likely to experience negative job related outcomes.(Bandura, 1997).

Grau, Salanova and Peiro, (2011) explore the combine effects on job routine and cynicism (burnout component), their finding suggest that self-efficacy work as moderator and weaker the effect of difficult job routine and cynicism. Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, and Cervone (2004) examine self-efficacy belief among high school students and found that’s self-efficacy beliefs decrease aggression and depressions and achieve high grades. Moreover, in difficulties, uncertainties and setbacks, high self-efficacious individuals show high confidence.

We argue that high PsyCap individuals, because of their high levels of optimism toward the future (Seligman, 1998), confidence in pursuing challenging tasks (Bandura, 1997), ability to persevere in the face of obstacles (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), capacity to derive multiple pathways to be successful (Snyder, 1994), and their power to bounce back in the face of obstacles and setbacks (Masten & Reed, 2002), are less likely to perceived stress as negative or threatening to resource loss. Consequently, they are less likely to experience the typical negative outcomes (e.g., lowered job satisfaction and performance) associated with workplace ostracism. Preliminary research, for example, has found that optimism significantly moderates the relationship between daily hassles, emotional exhaustion, and physical illness (Fry, 1995). Optimism has inherent cognitive, emotional, and motivational components (Carver & Scheier, 1999; Peterson, 2000) which are controlled by the
individual and exercised when required (Seligman, 1998). Optimistic individuals externalize negative events and thus distance themselves from failure (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) posit that hope and optimism play the role of buffering agent against psychological distress, addiction, and dysfunctional behaviour. Research has demonstrated a strong relationship between hope and academic and athletic performance, mental and physical health, and the ability to cope with adversity (Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby, & Rehm, 1997; Snyder, 2000; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991). Similarly, high efficacious individuals are less likely to expect failures or to lose confidence when faced with negative feedback, setbacks, uncertainty, and difficulties (Bandura & Locke, 2003). In a similar vein, resilient individuals exhibit high emotional stability when faced with adversity (Bonanno, 2004; Bonanno, Papa, & O’Neill, 2001), and are open to new experiences (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Resilience allows individuals to cope with uncertain and unjust environments helping them to adapt and adjust during risk, setbacks, and adversity (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002). These beliefs provide “the necessary staying power in the face of repeated failures, setbacks, and skeptical or even critical social reactions that are inherently discouraging” (Bandura & Locke, 2003: 92).

When combined, these psychological resource capacities work together, providing support to each other by fulfilling the deficiencies of one resource or another (Hobfoll, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2007; Wright, 2005; Fredrickson, 2001, 2003; Avey et al., 2010), and helping the individuals to successfully adapt in the face of threat. These psychological resources are thought to form the emotional, cognitive and motivational bases (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Peterson, 2000; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Bandura, 1997) by which individuals mitigate the harmful effects of negativity (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Based on these arguments, we believe that when individuals ostracized at workplace, their psychological capital may help them to effectively minimize the salience of resource loss associated with these activities, allowing them to better cope with the stressors and challenges associated with workplace ostracism, thereby reducing the influence of ostracism on outcomes. Therefore, we hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: Psychological capital will moderate the relationship between workplace ostracism and outcomes (job performance, job stress and turnover intention) such that the relationship will be weaker when psychological capital is high.

3. METHODS

3.1. Data Collection Procedures

Ostracism could vary across workplaces. In order to capture maximum variance of ostracism, we collected data from various public and private organizations in Pakistan. Our sample includes employees from 4 private schools, 4 banks (2 public and 2 private), 2 universities (1 public and 1 private) and employees from one call centre. All organizations included were located in Lahore which is the second largest and metropolitan city of Pakistan.

In order to reduce common method bias, we collected data in two waves. In first wave (T1), we measured workplace ostracism and psycap. In second wave we measured job outcomes (turnover intention, job stress and supervisory job performance). A cover letter explained the objective of research, voluntary participation and assured the confidentiality of responses. Each respondent reported their name and demographic in first and second wave survey. The supervisor for all respondent measured employee performance. We did not share employee performance (by supervisor) to any respondent. Each supervisor should know him/her for at least one year. We dropped respondents having less than 1 year tenure with current organization.

In total, we distributed 380 questionnaires. 271 returned back, after sorting out incomplete and missing supervisory report, finally we analysis the usable paired data of 229 respondents with response rate of 60%. We distributed 150 questionnaire to school, 120 to banks, 80 to universities and 30 to call centre. The response rate for schools, banks, universities and call centre were 69%, 61%, 50 %, 44% respectively.
3.2. Measures

Job performance was measured by supervisor rated, whereas all other measures were gained from self-reported questionnaire. We did not translate the questionnaire to native language, because in Pakistan English is used as official language and was toughed as compulsory language form early school to university level. Previous researcher also conducted their research in English (Raja et al., 2004; Abbas et al., 2012).

3.3. Workplace ostracism

A 10 item scale was used to measure workplace ostracism; this scale was developed by Ferris et al., (2008). Responses were taken on seven point scale ranging from “1 for Never to 7 for Always” Sample questions are “Others at work shut you out of the conversation.”, “Others left the area when I entered” and “other ignored me at work”. Alpha reliability for this scale was .92

3.4. Psychological capital

A 24-item Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ: Luthans et al., 2007) was used to measure psychological capital. Responses were taken on 6 point likert scale. Examples of items include “I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution” and “If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.” The internal consistency reliability of PsyCap in the present examination was .86.

3.5. Job stress

13 items was used to measure job stress. The scale was developed by (Parker & DeCotiis, 1983). The example items are “I felt nervous as a result of my job”, Working here leaves little time for other activities” and “I sometimes dread the telephone ringing because the call might be job related”. Responses were taken on five-point scale which ranges from “1=strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”. alpha reliability for this scale was .85.

3.6. Job performance

Supervisor rated job performance was measured by 7 questions developed by William and Anderson, (1991). The responses were taken on 5 point likert scale. The sample questions are “This person performs task that are expected to him/her”, “Adequately completes assigned duties”. Reliability for this scale was .72

3.7. Turnover Intention

3 items measure by Vigoda (2000) was used to access turnover intention. Responses were taken on 5 point likert scale. The sample question includes “I often think about quitting this job”. Alpha reliability for this scale was 84.

3.8. Results

Table 1 shows mean standard deviation, correlations and reliability. Correlation results were in expected directions and support our direct hypotheses. Table 2 show regression analyses, regression were used to test all hypotheses. Hypothesis 1, predicts direct relationship of workplace ostracism with job outcomes (job performance, job stress and turnover). Results suggested that workplace ostracism was negatively related with job performance ($\beta = 0.10, p=.005$) and negatively related to job stress ($\beta = 0.34 , p = .000$) and turnover intention($\beta = 0.20, p = .000$). These results support Hypothesis 1.
Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Age</td>
<td>29.46</td>
<td>5.79</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Gender</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Organization</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.12</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Ostracism</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Psycap</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>-0.29**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Job performance</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>-0.31**</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Job stress</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>-0.16*</td>
<td>-0.14*</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Turnover intention</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>-0.15*</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>-0.24**</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Note. N = 229; alpha reliabilities are presented in parentheses, psycap = psychological capital
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 2: Regression Analysis for Main Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
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<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Direct effect of ostracism with</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Performance</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.005</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job Stress</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>.000m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intention</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>.000m</td>
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Note. N= 229. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported

Moderation Results presented in Table 2, Hypothesis 2 predicts that psycap moderates the relationship between workplace and outcomes (job performance, job stress and turnover intention). Results of moderation analysis revealed that psycap moderator between ostracism and three outcomes and weaken the ostracism-outcome relationship. The interaction term of ostracism × PsyCap was significant for job stress (β = 0.19, p = .016; ΔR² = .02), job performance (β = -0.18, p = .026; ΔR² = .02), and turnover (β = 0.38, p < .002; ΔR² = .03).
Table 3: Results for Moderated Regression Analyses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Job Performance</th>
<th></th>
<th>Job Stress</th>
<th></th>
<th>Turnover Intention</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>L. CL</td>
<td>U. CL</td>
<td>P Value</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>L. CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace Ostracism</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.44</td>
<td>.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycap</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.63</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ostracism X Psycap</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total R²</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n = 212. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. LL = lower. UL = upper limit.

To fully support this part of our Hypothesis 2, the form of the interaction should conform to the hypothesized pattern. Therefore, we applied conventional procedures of high low (M± SD) for plotting slopes. We plotted the significant interactions for high and low (M ± SD) values of the moderator (see Figure 1 to 3).

Figure 1: Interactive Effects of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and workplace Ostracism on Job Performance
Figure 2: Interactive Effects of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and workplace Ostracism on Job Stress

Figure 3: Interactive Effects of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and workplace Ostracism on turnover intention

4. DISCUSSION

Our findings support for all proposed hypotheses regarding the relationships between workplace ostracism, psychological capital and job outcomes such as job stress, turnover intention and job performance. First, workplace ostracism was found to significantly relate with job outcomes. Second, the relationship between workplace ostracism and job outcome were weaker when psycap was high. Similar to previous research finding of significant relationship between ostracism and job outcomes (Wu et al, 2012), our findings support that when employees ostracized at workplace, it increase their job stress and turnover intention and decrease job performance, these finding support that ostracism at workplace is a painful experience and detrimental to stress and job related outcomes. Our research findings also support the moderating influence of psycap in ostracism outcome relationship. In case of job stress and turnover intention the positive relationship was stronger with psycap was low. These findings indicate that workplace ostracism is a serious concern for those individual having low psycap.
Ostracism doesn't seem to have positive relationship with job stress and turnover intention when psycap was high. Similarly in case of job performance, the negative relationship was stronger when psycap was low. Ostracism doesn't seem to have negative relationship on performance when psycap was high.

Our finding of psycap as moderate and reducing negative effect of workplace ostracism support the finding of Wu et al., (2012), according to them; political skills reduce ostracism- distress relationship. Our finding reveals that individual positive psychological resources (self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism) help them to take up ostracism as challenge instead of showing negatively. Yousaf & Luthans, (2007) argues that individual positive psychological resource should be studied collectively, these collective sharing mechanisms of resource helps individual and force them to act effectively against work stressors (Hobfoll, 2002). Our finding support that positive psychological resource such as psycap help individual to reduce the detrimental effect of workplace ostracism job related outcomes.

Our findings confirmed results from past research in the Western context generalize well to the Pakistani context. Ostracism, perhaps, is much more personal in nature and less susceptible to contextual influences. This examination is consistent with the call to examine theories, mostly developed and tested in Western settings, in a non-Western context. Our research examination of cultural context is consistent with Johns’s (2006) directions for future researchers in the field of organizational behaviour. While this study provides some evidence for the external validity or generalizability of the examined relationships, it also points to the need for more direct examinations of context by incorporating discrete contextual features in future examinations of workplace ostracism.

Our research finding gives some important managerial implications. Job stress and low performance are costly for manager as well as for organizations. Our findings suggest that managers can take action to reduce workplace ostracism, as for as individual conflict, employees those experienced ostracism in the past, mangers need to decrease ostracism by increase employee psychological resource. A training to enhance psycap for both managers and employee could be a helpful tool of decrease workplace ostracism. In training, manager can give employee an advice to their employee regarding harmful effect of workplace ostracism.

Future researcher should examine contextual and individual moderators in the relationship between workplace ostracism outcome relationships. For example, it might be good to use personality traits as moderator between workplace ostracism with different attitude and behaviours. Future studies should also focus on providing a more detailed analysis of the other dimension of workplace ostracism and its relative influence on job outcomes. Future researcher can also use psycap as moderator with other mistreatment (sexual harassment and conflict) and outcome relationship.

Our study has several limitations. First, One limitation has to do with common method bias. A our study is an attempt to overcome the possibility by two wave research design, the interval of T1 to T2 were two weeks, our study were focused on short term , result could be different long interval's. Second, our study is an attempt to minimize common method bias by supervisory rated job performance; this was not the case with other outcomes.

Despite these limitations, this study addressed an important issues regarding workplace ostracism, psychological capital and job outcomes in non-western culture. Our research test the concept and theories develop in western setting, research in Asian context would have little confidence in about generalizability. Our study provides coping mechanism of ostracism outcomes in Pakistani context, however, more research are required to test western concepts and theories in different cultures. We hope that this research offers new springboard for future research.

REFERENCE LIST


