Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

WORKPLACE OSTRACISM AND JOB OUTCOMES: MODERATING EFFECTS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

INAM UL HAQ
University of Central Punjab, Pakistan
inamulhaq@ucp.edu.pk

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

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

1. INTRODUCTION

Workplace ostracism is phenomenon, in which individuals perceive that they are ignored by other employees at workplace (Ferris et al., 2008; Wu, Yim, Kwanand & 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 fulfil their psychological needs. Indeed, workplace ostracism potentially influences employees' mental and physical health (Heaphy and 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 and 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 behaviour 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 coining of the term *psychological capital* (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010).

Although PsyCap is composed of four components - hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience (Luthans, Youssef, & 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.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make
learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

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 fulfil 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).

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

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

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make
learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

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 form variety of public and private organizations of Pakistan. Our sample includes employee of 4 privates school, 4 banks (two public and two private), 2 universities (1, public and 1 private) and employees one call centre. All organization include 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 ignord 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 ($\beta =.34$, *p* =.000) and turnover intention($\beta = 0.20$, *p= .000*). These results support Hypothesis 1.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia
make learn
Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

	Mean	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	29.46	5.79								
2. Gender	1.2	0.4	-.12							
3. Organization	5.62	2.95	-.04	0.12						
4. Ostracism	2.76	1.33	.10	0.11	-0.07	**.92**				
5. Psycap	4.24	0.88	-.00	0.12	.19**	-.29**	**.86**			
6 Job performance	3.49	0.65	.04	-.04	-.31**	-.16*	.08	**.72**		
7. Job stress	3.25	0.66	-.16*	.03	-.14*	.37**	.27**	-.01	**.85**	
8. Turnover intention	2.96	1.03	-.15*	-.03	.00	.37**	-.24**	.20**	.47**	**.84**

Note. N = 229; alpha reliabilities are presented in parentheses, psycap = psychological capital
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 2: Regression Analysis for Main Effects

Table 2				
Regression Analysis for Main Effects				
Variables	B	SE	t	p
Total effects				
Direct effect of ostracism with				
Job Performance	**-0.1**	**0.31**	**-2.86**	**0.005**
Job Stress	**0.34**	**0.03**	**5.62**	**.000m**
Turnover Intention	**0.2**	**0.05**	**5.9**	**.000m**

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 ; ΔR^2 = .02), job performance (β = -0.18, p = .026; ΔR^2 = .02), and turnover (β = 0.38, p < .002; ΔR^2 = .03).

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

Table 3: Results for Moderated Regression Analyses

Variable	Job Performance				Job Stress				Turnover Intention			
	B	*L. CL*	*U. CL*	P Value	*B*	*L. CL*	*U. CL*	P Value	*B*	*L. CL*	*U. CL*	P Value
Workplace Ostracism	.51	-.008	1.02	0.053	-.44	-.928	0.047	0.076	-.93	-1.698	-0.177	0.015
Psycap	.45	.033	0.86	0.034	-.63	-1.028	0.246	0.001	1.09	-1.705	-0.485	.000
Ostrcism X Psycap	-.18	-.354	-0.02	0.026	.19	.0363	0.348	0.016	.38	0.141	0.141	0.002
Total R^2	.04				.17				.18			
Total Δ R^2	.02				.02				.03			

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).

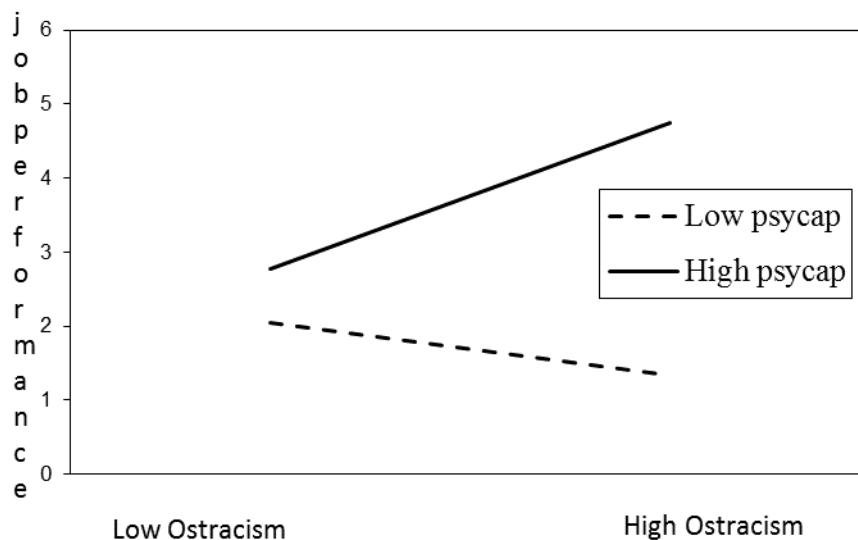**Figure 1:** Interactive Effects of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and workplace Ostracism on Job Performance

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make
learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

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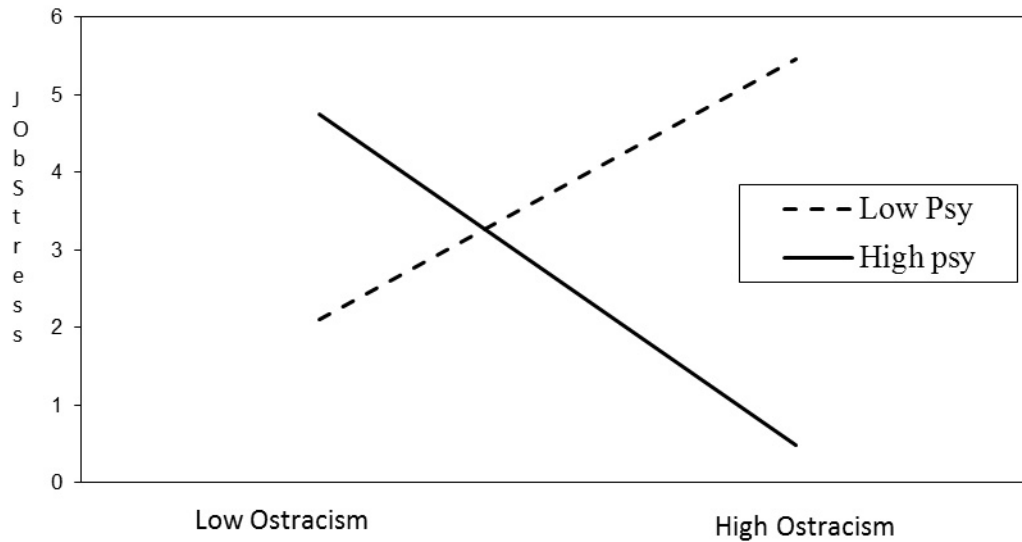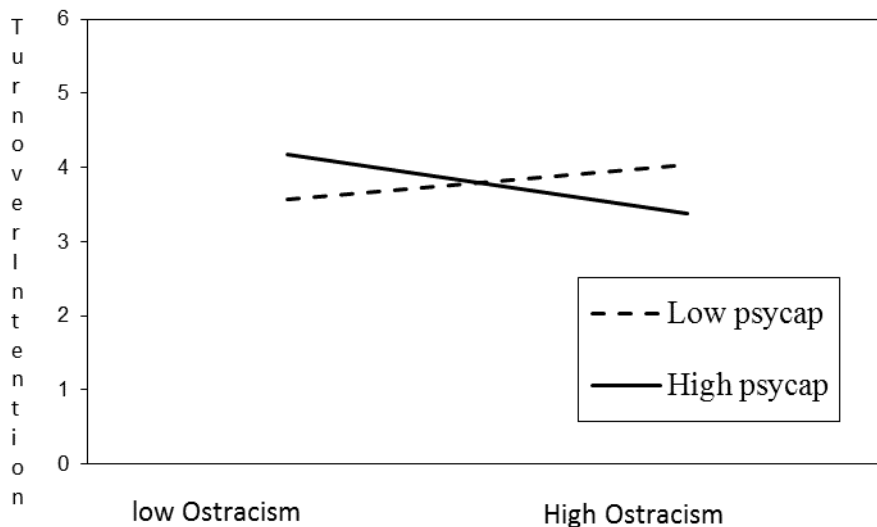

Figure 3: Interactive Effects of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and workplace Ostracism on turnover intention

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.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

Ostracism doesn't seem to have positive relationship with job stress and turnover intention when psycap was high. Similary 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

1. Agho, A. O., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. 1992. Discriminant validity of measures of job Psychology, 65: 185-196.satisfaction, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity. Journal of Occupational.

2. Aiken, L. S. & West, S. G. 1991. Multiple Regressions: Testing and Interpreting Interactions. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make
learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

3. Allen, D. G., & Griffeth, R. W. 1999. Job performance and turnover: A review and integrative Multi route model. Human Resource Management Review, 9: 525-548
4. Allen, R. W., & Porter, L. W. 1983. Organizational influence process. Greenview: Scott, Foresman & Company.
5. Arnold, H.J. & Feldman, D. C. 1982. A multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67: 350-360.
6. Aryee, S., Wyatt, T. and Stone, R. (1996). 'Early career outcomes of graduate employees: the Effect of mentoring and ingratiation'. Journal of Management Studies, 33, 95–118.
7. Avey, J. B., Patera, J. L., & West, B. J. 2006. The implications of positive psychological capital on employee absenteeism. Journal of Leadership and Organization Studies, 13: 42–60.
8. Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Luthans. F. 2008. Can positive employees help positive organizational change? Impact of psychological capital and emotions on relevant attitudes and behaviors. The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 44: 48-70.
9. Avey, J.B., Luthans, F. & Youssef, C. M. 2010. The additive value of psychological capital in predicting workplace attitudes and behaviors. Journal of Management, 36: 430-452.
10. Bandura, A. 1992. Exercise of personal agency through the self-efficacy mechanism. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), Self-efficacy: Thought Control of Action (pp. 3–38). Washington, DC:Hemisphere Publishing.
11. Bandura, A. 1997. Self-self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: Freeman.

12. Bandura, A., & Locke, E. A. 2003. Negative self-self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88: 87-99.
13. Bandura, A., Cioffi. D. C., Taylor, B. & Brouillard M. E. 1988. Perceived self-efficacy in coping with cognitive stressors and opioid activation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 55: 479-488.
14. Bentler, P. M. 1990. Comparative fit indexes in structural models. Psychological Bulletin, 107, 238–46.
15. Bolino, M. C. and Turnley, W. H. 1999. Measuring impression management in organizations: a scale development based on the Jones and Pittman taxonomy. Organizational Research Methods, 2, 187–206.
16. Bonanno, G. A., Papa, A., & O'Neill, K. 2001. Loss and human resilience. Applied and Preventive Psychology, 10: 193-206
17. Brislin, R. W. (1980). 'Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials'. In Triandis, H. C & Berry, J. W. (Eds), Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology: Methodology. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon, Vol. 2, 389–444.
18. Cacioppo, J.T. & Gardner, W.L. 1999. Emotion. Annual Review of Psychology, 50: 191-214
19. Cameron, K. S., & Caza, A. 2004. Contributions to the discipline of positive organizational scholarship. American Behavioral Scientist, 47: 731-73.
20. Cameron, K. S., Dutton, J. E., & Quinn, R. (Eds.). 2003. Positive organizational scholarship. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
21. Carver, C. S., and Scheier, M. F. 1999. Optimism. In C.R. Snyder (Ed.), Coping: The Psychology of What Works (pp. 182-204). New York: Oxford University Press.
22. Chisholm, R. F., Kasl, S. V.& Eskenazi, B. 1983. The nature and predictors of job related tension in a crisis situation: reactions of nuclear workers to the Three Mile Island accident'. Academy of Management Journal, 26, 385–405.
23. Chow, R. M., Tiedens, L. Z. & Govan, C. L. 2008. 'Excluded emotions: the role of anger in antisocial responses to ostracism'. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 44, 896–903.
24. Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G. and Aiken, L. S. 2003. Applied Multiple Regression/ Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
25. Cohen, S. and Wills, T. A. 1985. Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. Psychological Bulletin, 98, 310–57.
26. Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E. and Byrne, Z. S. 2003. 'The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 160–9.
27. Curry, L. A., Snyder, C. R., Cook, D. I., Ruby, B. C., & Rehm, M. 1997. The role of hope in student-athlete academic and sport achievement. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73: 1257-1267.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

28. Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., Berry, J. W. & Lian, H. 2008. The development and validation of the workplace ostracism scale. Journal of Applied Psychology, 93, 1348–66.
29. Fineman, S. 2006. On being positive: Concerns and counterpoints. Academy of Management Review, 31: 270-291.
30. Fox, S. and Stallworth, L. E. (2005). 'Racial/ethnic bullying: exploring links between bullying and racism in the US workplace'. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66, 438–56.
31. Fredrickson, B. L. 2001. The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and build theory of positive emotions. American Psychologist, 56: 218-226.
32. Fry, P. S. 1995. Perfectionism, humor, and optimism as moderators of health outcomes and determinants of coping styles of women executives. Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs, 12: 211-245.
33. Gonsalkorale, K. and Williams, K. D. (2007). 'The KKK won't let me play: ostracism even by a despised out group hurts'. European Journal of Social Psychology, 37, 1176–86.
34. Grandey, A. A. and Cropanzano, R. (1999). 'The conservation of resources model applied to work–family conflict and strain'. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54, 350–70.
35. Gruter, M. and Masters, R. D. 1986. 'Ostracism as a social and biological phenomenon: an introduction'. Ethology and Sociobiology, 7, 149–58.
36. Hackman, J. R. 2009. The perils of positivity. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30: 309-319.
37. Heaphy, E. D. and Dutton, J. E. (2008). 'Positive social interactions and the human body at work: linking organizations and physiology'. Academy of Management Review, 33, 137–62.
38. Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). 'Conservation of resources: a new attempt at conceptualizing stress'. American Psychologist, 44, 513–24.
39. Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). 'The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: advancing conservation of resources theory'. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50, 337–69.
40. Hobfoll, S. E. 2001. The influence of culture, community and nested self in stress process: Advancing Conservation of resource theory. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50, 337-369.
41. Hobfoll, S. E. 2002. Social and psychological resources and adaptation. Review of General Psychology, 6: 307–324.
42. Hobfoll, S. E., & Shirom, A. 2000. Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace. In R. T. Golembiewski (Ed.), Handbook of Organization Behavior (pp. 57–81). New York: Dekker.
43. House, R. J. and Rizzo, J. R. 1972. Toward the measurement of organizational practices: scale development and validation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 56, 388–96.
44. Howard, A. 1986. College experiences and managerial performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71: 530-552
45. Hui, C., Lee, C. and Rousseau, D. M. 2004. Psychological contract and organizational citizenship behavior in China: investigating generalizability and instrumentality'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89, 311–21.
46. Jackofsky, E. F. 1984. Turnover and Job Performance: An Integrated Process Model. The Academy of Management Review, 9: 74-83.
47. Jackson, S. E. and Leiter, M. P. (Eds), Maslach Burnout Inventory Manual, 3rd edition. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, 19–26.
48. Johns, G. 2006. The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. Academy of Management Review, 31: 386-408.
49. Judge, T. A. and Bretz, R. D., Jr (1994). 'Political influence behavior and career success'. Journal of Management, 20, 43–65.
50. Judge, T. A., Jackson, C. L., Shaw, C. V., Scott, B. A., & Rich, B. L. 2007. Self-efficacy and work-related performance: the integral role of individual differences. Journal of Applied Psychology.
51. Kedia, B. L., & Bhagat, R. S. 1988. Cultural constraints on transfer of technology across nations: Implications for research in international and comparative management. Academy of Management Review, 13: 559-571.
52. Khatri, N. and Tsang, E. W. K. 2003. Antecedents and consequences of cronyism in organizations. Journal of Business Ethics, 43: 289–301.
53. Lam, W., Huang, X. and Snape, E. 2007. Feedback-seeking behavior and leader-member

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make
learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

exchange: do supervisor-attributed motives matter'. Academy of Management Journal, 50, 348–63.

54. Larson, M., & Luthans, F. 2006. Potential added value of psychological capital in predicting work attitudes. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 13: 44–61.

55. Leary, M. R. (1990). Responses to social exclusion: social anxiety, jealousy, loneliness, depression, and low self-esteem'. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 9, 221–9.

56. Lee, C., Pillutla, M., & Law, K. 2000. Power-distance, gender, and organizational justice. Journal of Management, 26: 685-708.

57. Lee, F. and Tiedens, L. Z. 2001. 'Is it lonely at the top? The independence and interdependence of power holders'. Research in Organizational Behavior, 23, 43–91.

58. Lee, K. and Allen, N. J. (2002). 'Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: the role of affect and cognitions'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 131–42.

59. Lee, R. & Wilbur, E. R. 1985. Age, education, job tenure, salary, job characteristics, and job satisfaction: A multivariate analysis. Human Relations, 38: 781-791.

60. Lee, R. T. and Ashforth, B. E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81, 123–33.

61. LePine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., LePine, M. A. 2005. A meta-analytic test of the challenge stressor hindrance-stressor framework: An explanation for inconsistent relationships among stressors and performance. Academy of Management Journal, 48: 764–775.

62. Lerner, J. S. and Tiedens, L. Z. (2006). 'Portrait of the angry decision maker: how appraisal tendencies shape anger's influence on cognition'. Journal of Behavioral Decision Making, 19, 115–37.

63. Lewin, K. 1936. Principles of topological psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill.

64. Liden, R. C. and Mitchell, T. R. (1988). 'Ingratiatory behaviors in organizational settings'. Academy of Management Review, 13, 572–87.

65. Liu, D., Liu, J., Kwan, H. K. and Mao, Y. (2009). 'What can I gain as a mentor? The effect of mentoring on the job performance and social status of mentors in China'. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 82, 871–95.

66. Luthans, F. 2002. The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23: 695-706.

67. Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. 2004. Human, social, and now positive psychological capital management. Organizational Dynamics, 33: 143-160.

68. Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. 2007. Emerging positive organizational behavior. Journal of Management, 33: 321–349

69. Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., & Patera, J. L. 2008. Experimental analysis of a web-based intervention to develop positive psychological capital. Academy of Management Learning and Education, 7: 209-221

70. Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Norman, S., & Combs, G. 2006. Psychological capital development: Toward a micro-intervention. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27: 387–393.

71. Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Clapp-Smith, R., & Li, W. 2008. More evidence on the value of Chinese workers' psychological capital: A potentially unlimited competitive resource? The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19: 818-827.

72. Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. 2007. Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. Personnel Psychology,60: 541-572.

73. Luthans, F., Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Avey, J. B. 2008. The mediating role of psychological capital in the supportive organizational climate—employee performance relationship. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29: 219-238.

74. Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., Avolio, B. J. 2007. Psychological capital. New York: Oxford University Press.

75. Macan, T. H. (1994). 'Time management: test of a process model'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 381– 91.

76. Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B. and Leiter, M. P. (2001). 'Job burnout'. Annual Review of Psychology, 52, 397–422.

77. Maslyn, J. M., & Fedor, D. B. 1998. Perceptions of politics: Does measuring different focimatter? Journal of Applied Psychology, 84: 645-653.

78. Masten, A. S. 2001. Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. American Psychologist, 56: 227-239.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

79. Masten, A. S., & Reed, M. G. J. 2002. Resilience in development. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), Handbook of positive psychology (pp. 74-88). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

80. Mintzberg, H. (1983). Power In and Around Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

81. Nauta, A., Vianen, A. V., Heijden, B. V., Dam, K. V., & Willemsen, M. 2009. Understanding the factors that promote employability orientation: The impact of employability culture, career satisfaction, and role breadth self-efficacy. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 82, 233–251.

82. Nelson, D., & Cooper, C. L. (Eds.). 2007. Positive organizational behavior: Accentuating the positive at work. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Peterson, C. 2000. The future of optimism. American Psychologist, 55: 44-55.

83. O'Reilly, J. and Robinson, S. L. (2009). The Negative Impact of Ostracism on Thwarted Belongingness and Workplace Contributions. Chicago, IL: Academy of Management Meeting.

84. Peng, M. W. (2006). 'Making M&A fly in China'. Harvard Business Review, 84, 26–7.

85. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y. & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). 'Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 879–903.

86. Pool, S. W. (2000). 'Organizational culture and its relationship between job tension in measuring
outcomes among business executives'. Journal of Management Development, 19, 32–48.

87. Prati, L. M., Liu, Y., Perrewé, P. L. and Ferris, G. R. (2009). 'Emotional intelligence as moderator of the surface acting–strain relationship'. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 15, 368–80.

88. Quinn, R. P. and Shepard, L. J. (1974). The 1972–73 Quality of Employment Survey: Descriptive Statistics, with Comparison Data from the 1969–70 Survey of Working Conditions. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research Survey Research Center.

89. Schaubroeck, J. and Merritt, D. E. (1997). 'Divergent effects of job control on coping with work stressors: the key role of self-efficacy'. Academy of Management Journal, 40, 738–54.

90. Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P., Maslach, C. and Jackson, S. E. (1996). 'MBI-general survey'. In Maslach, C.

91. Seligman, M. E. P. 1998. Learned optimism. New York: Pocket Books.

92. Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. 2000. Positive psychology: An introduction.American Psychologist, 55: 5-14.

93. Snyder, C. R. 2000. Handbook of hope. San Diego: Academic Press

94. Snyder, C. R., Irving, L., & Anderson, J. 1991. Hope and health: Measuring the will and the ways. In C. R. Snyder& D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), Handbook of social and clinical psychology (pp. 285–305). Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.

95. Spector, P. E. (2006). 'Method variance in organizational research: truth or urban legend'. Organizational Research Methods, 9, 221–32.

96. Sundstrom, E., McIntyre, M., Halfhill, T. and Richards, H. (2000). 'Work groups: from the Hawthorne studies to work teams of the 1990s and beyond'. Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4, 44–67.

97. Taylor, S. E. (1991). 'Asymmetrical effects of positive and negative events: the mobilization-minimization hypothesis'. Psychological Bulletin, 110, 67–85.

98. Tepper, B. J. (2000). 'Consequences of abusive supervision'. Academy of Management Journal, 43, 178–90.

99. Treadway, D. C., Ferris, G. R., Duke, A. B., Adams, G. L. & Thatcher, J. B. (2007). 'The moderating role of subordinate political skill on supervisors' impressions of subordinate ingratiation and ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92, 848–55.

100. Tucker, L. R. and Lewis, C. (1973). 'A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis'.Psychometrika, 38, 1–10.

101. Turnley, W. H. and Bolino, M. C. (2001). 'Achieving desired images while avoiding undesired images: exploring the role of self-monitoring in impression management'. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 351–60.

102. Watson, D., Clark, L. A. and Tellegen, A. (1988). 'Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales'. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54, 1063–70.

Human Capital without Borders:
Knowledge and Learning for Quality of Life
25–27 June 2014 · Portorož, Slovenia

make learn

Management,
Knowledge and Learning
International Conference 2014

103.   Williams, K. D. (1997). 'Social ostracism'. In Kowalski, R. M. (Ed.), Aversive Interpersonal
Behaviors. New York: Plenum Press, 133–70.
104.   Williams, K. D. (2001). Ostracism: The Power of Silence. New York: Guilford Press.
105.   Williams, K. D. (2007). 'Ostracism'. Annual Review of Psychology, 58, 425–52.
106.   Williams, K. D. and Zadro, L. (2005). 'Ostracism: the indiscriminate early detection
system'. In Williams, K. D., Forgas, J. and von Hippel, W. (Eds), The Social Outcast:
Ostracism, Social Exclusion, Rejection, and Bullying. New York: Psychology Press, 19–34.
107.   Williams, K. D., Cheung, C. K. T. and Choi, W. (2000). 'Cyberostracism: effects of
being ignored over the internet'. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79, 748–62.
108.   Williams, K. D., Govan, C. L., Croker, V., Tynan, D., Cruickshank, M. and Lam, A.
(2002). 'Investigations into differences between social- and cyberostracism'. Group Dynamics:
Theory, Research, and Practice, 6,65–77.
109.   Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. 1991. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as
predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management,17: 60-
617.
110.   Williams, L. J., Cote, J. A. and Buckley, M. R. (1989). 'Lack of method variance in
self-reported affect and perceptions of work: reality or artifact'. Journal of Applied Psychology,
74, 462–8.
111.   Wright, T. A. 2003. Positive organizational behavior: An idea whose time has truly
come.Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24: 437-442.
112.   Wright, T. A. 2005. The role of "happiness" in organizational research: Past, present
and future directions. In P. L. Perrewe & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), Research in occupational
stress and well-being: 221-264(4). Amsterdam: JAI.
113.   Wright, T. A., & Bonett, D. G. 2007. Job satisfaction and psychological well-being as
non additive predictors of workplace turnover. Journal of Management, 33: 141-160.
114.   Wu, T.-Y. and Hu, C. (2009). 'Abusive supervision and employee emotional
exhaustion: dispositional antecedents and boundaries'. Group and Organization
Management, 34, 143–69.
115.   Wu, L.Z. , Yim F.H, Kwan H. K and Zhang, X (2012). Coping with workplace
ostracism: The roles of ingratiation and political skill in employee psychological distress.
Journal of Management Studies, 1. 178-199.
116.   Xie, J. L., Schaubroeck, J. and Lam, S. S. K. (2008). Theories of job stress and the
role of
traditional values: a longitudinal study in China. Journal of Applied Psychology, 93, 831–48.
117.   Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. 2007. Positive organizational behavior in the
workplace: The
impact of hope, optimism, and resiliency. Journal of Management, 33: 774–80
118.   Yukl, G., Falbe, C. M. and Youn, J. Y. (1993). 'Patterns of influence behavior for
managers'.
Group and Organization Management, 18, 5–28.
119.   Zellars, K. L., Liu, Y., Bratton, V., Brymer, R. and Perrewè, P. L. (2004). 'An
examination of
the dysfunctional consequences of organizational injustice and escapist coping'. Journal of
Management Issues, 16, 528–44.