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The mediating effects of organization-based self-esteem for the relationships between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviors

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The Mediating Effects of Organization-based Self-esteem for the Relationships between  
Workplace Ostracism and Workplace Behaviors

## **Introduction**

The workplace has become an important social context that cannot be ignored as today's nature of work requires employees to spend a great amount of time with other organizational members. Although there are numerous advantages of working in teams and with many organizational members, interpersonal relationships are not always positive within organizations. Recently, Robinson et al. (2013) mentioned that workplace ostracism has become an organizational concern because of frequency and its negative impact. Research has found workplace ostracism to be related to workplace behaviors such as job withdrawal, aggression, and interpersonal conflict (e.g., Chung, 2015; Ferris et al., 2008; O'Reilly and Robinson, 2009). Ostracism can significantly affect workplace behaviors such as performance due to the importance of satisfaction needs and the need for self-regulation (e.g., Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Kozlowski & Bell, 2006).

Although there are numerous studies that have investigated the direct effects of workplace ostracism, there are only a few studies that have examined the underlying mechanisms associating workplace ostracism and behavioral outcomes. Currently, there are less than 10 studies that have investigated mediating variables for the relationships. For example, coworker conflict was found to mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and in-role behavior and organizational citizenship behavior (Chung, 2015), envy was reported to associate workplace ostracism and organizational citizenship behavior (Scott et al., 2015), and person-organization fit was found to mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and deviant behavior and organizational citizenship behavior (Chung, in press).

Ostracism literature suggests that self-evaluations can be mediating mechanisms that can associate ostracism and behavioral outcomes (Williams, 1997, 2001, 2007). Williams suggested that the needs-threat model can explain how ostracism affects an individual's psychological needs such as self-esteem and belief that one's existence is meaningful. Self-esteem can link ostracism and workplace behaviors because individuals tend to engage in behaviors that are consistent with their self-perception (Heider, 1958). Recently, Ferris et al. (2015) found self-esteem to mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and job performance. In addition, ostracism can generate negative feelings about one's meaningful existence (e.g., Cooley, 1902; Solomon et al., 1992) and studies have consistently found ostracized individuals to report lower levels of meaningful existence (e.g., Sommer et al., 2001; Williams et al., 2002; Zadro et al., 2004).

Organization-based self-esteem can mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviors because organization-based self-esteem refers to self-evaluations of one's organizational worth. In this regard, Wu et al. (2011) found organization-based self-esteem to mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and job performance. However, research has suggested that job performance is multi-dimensional as it consists of other behaviors such as contextual performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and workplace deviance (e.g., Borman and Motowidlo, 1997; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002). Thus, this study contributes to extant literature by empirically testing the mediating effects of organization-based self-esteem for the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behavior, voicing behavior, in-role behavior, and deviant behavior.

### **Workplace Ostracism**

Ostracism is a part of human life as it is a common phenomenon that individuals can

experience (O'Reilly et al., 2015; Zimmerman et al., 2016). Ostracism tends to result in negative consequences as it causes a sense of “social pain” (Ferris et al., 2008). Being ostracized demonstrated similar brain structures to an individual who experienced physical pain as social rejection stimulated comparable brain activation (Eisenberger et al., 2003). Williams (1997; 2001; 2007) argued that ostracism can simultaneously threaten the four fundamental needs: the need for self-esteem, the need to belong, the need to control, and the need for a meaningful existence. Ostracism impacts self-esteem because ostracized individuals feel they have done something wrong or that they have certain unattractive characteristics (Williams, 2001). Ostracized individuals also perceive they are removed from a group that they want to be associated with, hence negatively affecting the need to belong (Williams, 2001). Further, an individual’s sense of control is undermined because ostracism leads one to feel that others are non-responsive to one’s actions. Ostracized individuals often perceive a loss of control and feel that they do not have a way to stop the ostracism (Williams, 1997). Consequently, ostracism influences an individual’s sense of meaningful existence because it represents a form of “social death” and shows how life would be if one did not exist (Sommer et al., 2001).

Ostracism can come in numerous forms such as exile and banishment and the silent treatment or avoiding eye contact (Ferris et al., 2008). Ostracism may not always be intentional or punitive, as individuals sometimes ignore others when they are too engaged with their own work which can lead to unintentionally ignoring people and their responses (Williams, 2001). In addition, ostracism can be non-purposeful and occur when individuals are unaware that they are engaging in behaviors that socially exclude others (Robinson et al., 2013). This form of ostracism is rather common since people are not always aware of their

own inactions (Sommer et al., 2001). For example, individuals can forget to add another person's email address when sending group email messages thinking that it has already been included.

Moreover, ostracism can be ambiguous because an individual may or may not know whether one is purposely being ostracized (Williams, 1997). In this case, motive may not be part of the definition, as this form of ostracism is not necessarily intended to cause harm (Robinson et al., 2013). On the other hand, ostracism can be purposeful when individuals are aware that their inactions to socially engage another individual would result in hurting the target or assist in the process of exclusion. A passive aggressive method such as the silent treatment may be used to intentionally punish, retaliate, or hurt the target person as well as to avoid conflict, social awkwardness, or unpleasant emotions (Robinson et al., 2013). Considering these aspects, ostracism generally tends to be detrimental regardless of the absence of malicious intention or even without any intent because it results in a painful experience (Williams, 1997).

### **Hypothesis Development**

Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) is the degree in which an individual believes oneself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member (Pierce et al., 1989). OBSE is specific to an organizational context and allows individuals to perceive their own value. OBSE also refers to whether the individual's need for self-esteem is met by performing one's role in the organization. For example, individuals with high levels of OBSE believe they are important, meaningful, and organizationally valuable organizational members (Pierce et al., 1989). Organizations are perceived to be relevant because they can significantly influence an individual's self-worth and identity. To elaborate, self-evaluations

can be affected by the messages transferred from one's social environment, especially when the social messages are from significant others (Baumeister, 1999; Brockner, 1988; Pierce and Gardner, 2004). Thus, when significant others believe that an individual is able, competent, and need-satisfying, these beliefs become communicated over time through words and behaviors that allow the individual to also hold similar thoughts and beliefs about oneself (Korman, 1970, 1976).

Baumeister and Leary (1995) argued that one of the fundamental human motives is the need to belong or to have strong positive interpersonal relationships. When an individual experiences rejection, one's identity is threatened or the actions of others negatively affect the individual's self-evaluation (Barlow et al., 2010; Buhs, 2005). Ostracized individuals believe they are excluded, part of the out-group, or different from other organizational members (Hogg and Abrams, 1988; Tajfel and Turner, 1986). In addition, fewer interactions allow ostracized individuals to have difficulty in maintaining positive interpersonal relationships which will result in them believing they are less valued by their organizations (Hitlan et al., 2006; Leung et al., 2011). In this regard, organizational experiences such as workplace ostracism can relay negative messages that can significantly influence OBSE. The messages become integrated into one's self-conceptualization and evaluation which negatively affects self-perception on how one is valued by the organization. Therefore, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Workplace ostracism will be negatively related to OBSE.

According to cognitive consistency theory, individuals are motivated to maintain attitudes and engage in behaviors that are consistent with their self-concept (Heider, 1958). Individuals with high levels of OBSE align their attitudes and behaviors to be consistent with

their feelings of competency, need satisfaction, and value from the organization which then allows them to perceive personal adequacy as an organizational member (Pierce et al., 1989). Individuals with high OBSE believe they are valuable and meaningful to the organization. In order to maintain cognitive consistency, they are likely to engage in prosocial behaviors such as helping behaviors and voicing behaviors. High OBSE individuals also believe they are effective within their organizations (Pierce et al., 1989) which further allows them to perceive that they are competent with more to contribute toward their organizations (Sekiguchi et al., 2008). Previous studies have found OBSE to generate positive attitudes toward one's performance (Carson et al., 1997), increase productivity (Pierce et al., 1989), and be positively associated to organizational citizenship behaviors (Van Dyne and Pierce, 2004). In contrast, individuals with low OBSE tend to perceive they are less important and valuable to the organization. Subsequently, they are likely to reduce their levels of effort and be less likely to engage in prosocial behaviors so that they can balance their contributions with their negative self-evaluations. Thus, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 2: OBSE will be positively related to helping behavior.

Hypothesis 3: OBSE will be positively related to voicing behavior.

High self-esteem tends to be related to high levels of self-efficacy which, in turn, can result in higher levels of performance (Gardner and Pierce, 1998). Similarly, high OBSE individuals will be motivated to perform better, be more productive, and be satisfied with their organizational goals, while individuals with low OBSE will be likely to withhold their effort in order to balance their contributions with their negative self-perceptions. Low OBSE individuals are likely to engage in self-protecting motivation or "damage control" to hold back effort and to rationalize their low performance (Korman, 2001). Subsequently, research



has found OBSE to be positively related to performance and performance-related behaviors (e.g., Aryee et al., 2003; Van Dyne and Pierce, 2004). In this regard, OBSE will be positively related to in-role behavior since in-role behavior includes organizational roles such as completing assigned duties on time, complying with organizational rules and regulations, and fulfilling one's responsibilities. Therefore, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 4: OBSE will be positively related to in-role behavior.

Although OBSE has been found to be related to positive organizational behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior, research is surprisingly sparse on the relationship between OBSE and workplace deviant behavior. Currently, one study has found OBSE to be significantly related to deviant behavior. Ferris et al. (2009) argued that when OBSE decreases, it hinders an individual's need to belong and reduces positive self-perception. When an individual's identity is threatened, it influences one's sense of belonging and self-esteem which decreases one's self-regulatory ability (Baumeister et al., 2005; Heimpel et al., 2006). Self-regulation tends to direct individuals to engage in positive organizational behaviors. In contrast, when individuals lack self-regulation, they are likely to engage in detrimental behaviors. The negative cognitive state causes an individual to minimize self-awareness, focus more on the present state, and have less concern for long-term goals (Twenge et al., 2003), therefore decreasing one's ability to self-regulate or adapt to behaviors that comply with social norms. Naturally, when self-regulatory abilities become impaired, individuals will tend to engage in negative behaviors. Thus, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 5: OBSE will be negatively related to deviant behavior.

Individuals need to know how to regulate their behaviors so that they can maintain the persistence and effort to perform and accomplish their tasks. When individuals are

excluded, their cognitive state becomes negatively affected which results in reduced self-awareness and less concern for long-term goals (Twenge et al., 2003). Ostracism negatively affects the ability to self-regulate or adapt one's behaviors to comply with social norms, therefore leading to maladaptive decisions and behaviors (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Self-awareness and the ability to understand long-term consequences are important aspects of self-regulation (Baumeister et al., 2005).

Furthermore, according to social exchange theory (Gould, 1979) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), ostracized individuals are not motivated to reciprocate positive behaviors toward other organizational members. Research has found social rejection to be negatively associated with prosocial behavior (e.g., Twenge et al., 2007) while social acceptance was found to be positively related to prosocial behavior (Schonert-Reichl, 1999). Studies have found workplace ostracism to negatively affect workplace attitudes (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan et al., 2006) and as the relationships between workplace attitudes and behaviors are well established (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Judge et al., 2001), it can naturally be suggested that OBSE can mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and performance behaviors. Moreover, studies have found OBSE to mediate the organization-individual relationships. For instance, Phillips (2000) found OBSE to mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and job performance while Aryee et al. (2003) reported that OBSE mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange and contextual performance. Therefore, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 6: OBSE will mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and helping behavior.

Hypothesis 7: OBSE will mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and

voicing behavior.

Hypothesis 8: OBSE will mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and in-role behavior.

Hypothesis 9: OBSE will mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and deviant behavior.

Figure 1 displays the hypothesized model as OBSE mediates the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behavior, voicing behavior, in-role behavior, and deviant behavior.

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Insert Figure 1  
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## **Methodology**

### **Sample**

Data were collected using a three wave self-reported questionnaire in South Korea. The questionnaires were administered in a sealed envelope and were given in person to each respondent and later returned to a box to the person of contact for each organization. In order to reduce the biases relating to single sources and common methods (Podsakoff et al., 2003), a 7-week interval was given between each wave. For the first wave (T1), questionnaires were sent to 445 full-time employees in 12 organizations from the financial and insurance industries. 384 questionnaires were returned (86% response rate) and 357 were usable as cases with missing data were excluded. The T1 questionnaires provided demographic information and measured workplace ostracism. The second wave (T2) questionnaires were sent to 357 employees and 308 were returned (86% response rate). Out of the 308 questionnaires, 283 were usable due to missing data. The T2 questionnaires measured OBSE.

The third wave (T3) questionnaires were sent to 283 employees and 248 were returned (88% response rate). The T3 questionnaires measured helping behavior, voicing behavior, in-role behavior, and deviant behavior. Out of the 248 questionnaires, 225 were usable due to missing data. The average respondent was 35 years old (S.D. = 6.97), average tenure was 7 years (S.D. = 7.00), and the average team tenure was 2.7 years (S.D. = 2.66). 53% of the respondents were male and 73% had a college degree or higher. For organizational position, the three largest groups were the first three organizational positions: entry level (29.3%), deputy section chief (26.2%), and deputy department head (19.6%).

### **Measures**

The study was conducted in South Korea and the measures were first translated into Korean and later back translated into English by two fluent bilingual persons in order to validate the quality of the translations. All the measure items used a 7-point Likert scale from 1, “strongly disagree,” to 7, “strongly agree.”

Workplace ostracism was measured with Ferris et al.’s (2008) 10-item scale. Sample items included: “Others at work do not invite me or ask me when they go out for a break” and “My greetings go unanswered at work.” The reliability of this scale was .97.

Organization-based self-esteem was measured with Pierce et al.’s (1989) 10-item scale. Sample items included: “I count around my organization” and “I am valuable around my organization.” The reliability of this scale was .97.

Helping behavior was measured with Van Dyne and LePine’s (1998) 6-item scale. Sample items included: “I volunteer to do things for my work group” and “I assist others in the group with their work for the benefit of the work group.” The reliability of this scale was .94.

Voicing behavior was measured with Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) 6-item scale.

Sample items included: "I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the work group" and "I speak up and encourage others in the group to get involved in issues that affect the group." The reliability of this scale was .94.

In-role behavior was measured with Williams and Anderson's (1991) 7-item measure.

Sample items included: "I perform tasks that are expected" and "I meet formal performance requirements of the job." The reliability of this scale was .96.

Deviant behavior was measured with Bennett and Robinson's (2000) 19-item

measure. Sample items included: "Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked" and "Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at work." The reliability of this scale was .91.

## Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliability estimates for the study variables.

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 Insert Table 1  
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Before testing the hypotheses, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS 18 to assess the empirical distinction between the study variables. To assess the fit of the models, the normed fit index (NFI, Bentler and Bonett, 1980), the incremental fit index (IFI, Bollen, 1989), the comparative fit index (CFI, Bentler, 1990), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA, Browne and Cudeck, 1993) were estimated. Several models were compared starting from a one-factor model to the hypothesized six-factor model. As shown in Table 2, the six-factor model showed a strong degree of fit ( $\chi^2(750) = 1,142.12$ ,

NFI = .90, IFI = .96, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .05) as all of the fit standards were at acceptable levels.

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To test the hypotheses, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted. Gender, age, level of education, position, tenure, and team tenure were controlled for and entered for all of the analyses. The hypothesized model posited that OBSE will mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behavior, voicing behavior, in-role behavior, and deviant behavior. After comparing different structural models, Table 3 shows that Model 2 slightly displayed a better fit ( $X^2(996) = 1,526.71$ , NFI = .88, IFI = .96, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .05) compared to the hypothesized model (Model 1). Figure 2 displays the path coefficients for Model 2. Hypothesis 1 proposed that workplace ostracism was negatively associated to OBSE. As Figure 2 displays, workplace ostracism was found to be negatively related to OBSE ( $\beta = -.18$ ,  $p < .05$ ), therefore supporting Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 predicted that OBSE was positively related to helping behavior. The results show that OBSE was positively related to helping behavior ( $\beta = .44$ ,  $p < .001$ ), therefore supporting Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 posited that OBSE will be positively related to voicing behavior. As seen in Figure 2, OBSE was positively related to voicing behavior ( $\beta = .55$ ,  $p < .001$ ), therefore supporting Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 proposed that OBSE will be positively related to in-role behavior. The results show that OBSE was positively related to in-role behavior ( $\beta = .47$ ,  $p < .001$ ), thus supporting Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 5 proposed that OBSE will be negatively related to deviant behavior. As seen in Figure 2, OBSE was negatively related to deviant behavior ( $\beta = -.19$ ,  $p < .01$ ), therefore supporting Hypothesis 5.

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Insert Table 3  
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Figure 2 displays OBSE fully mediated the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behavior, voicing behavior, and in-role behavior. In addition, Figure 2 shows that workplace ostracism had a direct effect to deviant behavior, suggesting that OBSE partially mediates the relationship between workplace ostracism and deviant behavior. As a result, Hypotheses 6 through 9 were all supported.

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Insert Figure 2  
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To further validate mediation, Preacher and Hayes' (2004) recommendations for testing the indirect effects were conducted to analyze the mediation hypotheses. The bootstrapping tests of the estimated indirect effects were conducted and Tables 4 through 7 show the results for the indirect effects. Table 4 indicates that workplace ostracism has an indirect effect on helping behavior (-.10) and the bootstrap results with a bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect did not contain zero for helping behavior (-.17, -.05). As seen in Table 5, the indirect effect of workplace ostracism was significant on voicing behavior (-.12). The resulting 95% CI for the indirect effect did not contain zero as it ranged from -.22 to -.07. Table 6 shows workplace ostracism to have an indirect effect on in-role behavior (-.12) and the bootstrap results with a bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect did not include zero for in-role behavior (-.19, -.06). Last, Table 7 depicts that the indirect effect of workplace ostracism was found on deviant behavior (.06). The bootstrap results with a bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect did not contain zero as it ranged from .02 to .13 for deviant behavior. Thus, the results of the bootstrapping tests of the indirect effects

further support the mediation hypotheses.

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Insert Tables 4 ~ 7  
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Although the study was conducted gathering data at three different data collection points, all of the questionnaires were self-rated and common method variance can be a concern. However, the study results can be justified as Harman's single-factor test was conducted. The results explained 36.74% in variance which shows that common method variance was not a significant issue.

## **Discussion**

Workplace ostracism negatively affects workplace attitudes and behaviors. Consistent with previous studies that have found workplace ostracism to negatively affect workplace attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008; Hitlan et al., 2006), this study found workplace ostracism to be negatively associated with OBSE. When individuals are ostracized by other organizational members, an individual's self-perceived value as an organizational member is negatively affected. Positive interpersonal relationships with other organizational members are important and meaningful because they can positively affect workplace attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Farmer et al., 2015; Liden et al., 2000; Waismel-Manor et al., 2010). However, since ostracized individuals tend to lack constructive interpersonal relationships, social messages from other organizational members are likely to be negative which can then adversely impact one's self-evaluation. As a result, this study confirms Wu et al.'s (2011) study as workplace ostracism was found to negatively influence an individual's self-perception on how important, meaningful, and worthwhile one feels within an organization.



Fundamental needs greatly affect an individual's motivation for performance behaviors. This explains that an individual's evaluation about one's organizational self-worth can influence one's motivation to perform and to also engage in other positive organizational behaviors (Korman, 2001). High OBSE individuals tend to focus on performance behaviors and the study findings are consistent with previous studies that have found OBSE to be positively associated with positive organizational behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior and job performance (e.g., Gardner et al., 2004). Individuals with high levels of OBSE believe they are capable members that are valuable for the organization. Feeling valued by the organization generates competent feelings that allow individuals to believe they are able to significantly contribute toward the organization (Sekiguchi et al., 2008). High OBSE individuals are likely to engage in prosocial behaviors because they believe they can help the organization. Prosocial feelings allow individuals to believe they are more responsible as the feelings increase the need to be more involved toward organizational improvement (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). In this regard, prosocial motivation was found to increase organizational citizenship behavior (Lazauskaite-Zabielske et al., 2015). Moreover, high OBSE individuals are likely to help other organizational members by voluntarily working for the work group. They will become more involved in the work group and also encourage others to be more involved and recommend ideas that can help the work group.

In addition, OBSE was found to be positively related to in-role behavior. When individuals believe they are valued by their organizations, they are motivated to increase performance and fulfill their tasks, duties, and responsibilities. Therefore, the study findings are consistent with Bowling et al.'s (2010) and Pierce and Gardner's (2004) reviews of the positive relationships between OBSE and positive organizational behaviors such as extra-role

behavior, citizenship behavior, and in-role behavior.

OBSE was found to be negatively related to deviant behavior. Individuals who believe they are positively valued by their organization tend to reciprocate and engage in organizational behaviors that are beneficial to the organization rather than engage in behaviors that are harmful toward the organization and its members. This finding is consistent with Ferris et al.'s (2009) study and strengthens the causal relationship between OBSE and deviant behavior. Furthermore, as the study found workplace ostracism to have a direct effect on deviant behavior, the study suggests that the cognitive states of ostracized individuals are negatively affected and their ability to self-regulate and conform to social norms is likely to be compromised. Ostracism increases the tendency to break organizational norms and further allow individuals to engage in deviant behavior.

The study also found OBSE to mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behavior, voicing behavior, in-role behavior, and deviant behavior. Workplace ostracism reduces an individual's perception of one's organizational value which then can positively or negatively affect workplace behaviors. These findings support Williams' (2007) need-threat/need-fortification framework as it helps explain how workplace ostracism influences an individual's sense of belonging with one's organization and affects behaviors toward the organization. Therefore, the study suggests that workplace ostracism decreases an individual's beliefs on how important and valuable one is within the organization which then can further reduce the likelihood of engaging in positive organizational behaviors such as helping behavior, voicing behavior, and in-role behavior while increasing the tendency to engage in unfavorable organizational behaviors such as workplace deviant behavior.

## Implications

OBSE was found to fully mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and helping behavior, voicing behavior, and in-role behavior while partially mediating the relationship between workplace ostracism and deviant behavior. Theories on ostracism have argued that ostracized individuals tend to fortify their threatened needs by thinking, feeling, and engaging in either prosocial or antisocial behaviors (Williams, 2007). As workplace ostracism was also found to have a direct effect on deviant behavior, this further suggests that ostracized individuals tend to focus more on antisocial behaviors rather than prosocial behaviors in order to better achieve their needs. Studies have regarded aggression as an act of control (Tedeschi, 2001) and since aggressive behaviors are easier to be recognized, individuals tend to believe they have achieved their needs by engaging in aggressive behaviors (Williams, 2007). Moreover, the study supports the negative causal relationship between OBSE and deviant behavior and confirms the one study that has found OBSE to be negatively related to deviant behavior (Ferris et al., 2009).

As the nature of work frequently involves teamwork and various interactions with other organizational members, it is essential that organizations and managers provide a social context prioritizing positive interpersonal relationships among organizational members. The workplace environment should not only strengthen on facets that help organizational members perceive similarity among one another but also increase awareness on individual differences. Since the workforce is becoming more diverse, diversity training and development programs should incorporate a broad range of practices such as training, mentoring, recruitment, and management development that all aim to increase social integration among organizational members in order to create an inclusive organizational

culture (e.g., Mor-Barack, 2005; National Urban League, 2009). Another approach to increase diversity awareness is perspective taking as studies have found it to result in forming social bonds by decreasing prejudice and stereotypes of others (e.g., Galinsky and Ku, 2004). However, organizations need to be cautious as research has found training that focused on similarities resulted in less negative outcomes and was more effective in resolving conflicts in comparison to training that focused on differences among individuals (Holladay and Quinones, 2008).

In addition, organizations and managers should promote a culture where organizational members constantly communicate with other organizational members. Organizations can promote a culture where there is openness and candor in communication while leaders can facilitate the communication process by stimulating employees to share with other organizational members. Witherspoon et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis found several antecedents that can help increase communication among organizational members. Witherspoon and colleagues found that subjective norms, employee participation, social trust, shared goals among organizational members, and organizational support can help individuals to frequently communicate with each other.

### **Limitations and future directions**

The study has several limitations that should be mentioned. First, all of the questionnaires were self-rated and common method variance may be of concern. Although the study was designed using a three-wave approach, the use of multi-raters such as peers and supervisors should also be considered for workplace behaviors such as helping behavior, voicing behavior, and deviant behavior (e.g., Stewart et al., 2009). Second, the results may not be generalizable due to the study sample's characteristics. The sample consisted of

respondents from several organizations from different industries in South Korea. For instance, a collectivistic society emphasizes solidarity, harmony, and having a concern for others. Collectivistic societies can perceive workplace ostracism differently and can be more sensitive toward ostracism (Powell et al., 2009) in comparison to Western societies that focus on individualism and self-achievement. Workplace behaviors such as helping behaviors and voicing behaviors can also be differently perceived due to the emphasis on close and harmonious relationships. Third, the appropriateness of the control variables should be reconsidered. Although individual-level characteristics that might affect relationships between the study variables were considered, other individual variables such as personality characteristics and negative affect may prove to be more significant for ostracism and workplace behaviors (e.g., Williams et al., 2002; Berkowitz, 1989). Last, the scale measuring workplace ostracism is generalized and does not distinguish the types of ostracism behaviors and identify the source of ostracism. As individuals may experience several types of ostracism behaviors, certain forms of ostracism behaviors can have more impact on certain workplace behaviors.

Workplace ostracism negatively impacts organizations and its members and research needs to investigate how managers and organizations can prevent and maintain workplace ostracism. For example, studies should examine positive organizational practices such as organizational socialization and employee onboarding programs that can help employees adapt to the social context. Studies have found organizational socialization to be positively associated with social integration (e.g., Gruman et al., 2006) which may help prevent and manage workplace ostracism. In addition, there are limited studies that have included boundary conditions for workplace ostracism (e.g., Wu et al., 2012). Organizational

perceptions such as organizational justice and perceived organizational support, communication methods such as work-based social network services, and work-related characteristics such as task interdependence may mitigate the effects of workplace ostracism. Finally, studies should continue to explore the underlying mechanisms that can further link workplace ostracism and behavioral outcomes. Since workplace ostracism involves relationships with organizational members and has been argued to be a painful experience; team commitment, team-member exchange, and stress may mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and behavioral outcomes.

Due to the detrimental impact of workplace ostracism on organizations and its members, research should continue to investigate the effects of workplace ostracism in order to understand how it affects organizations and its members. The study results found OBSE to mediate the relationships between workplace ostracism and workplace behaviors which supports Robinson et al.'s (2013) model, therefore further extending literature on workplace ostracism and bridging the gaps within research.

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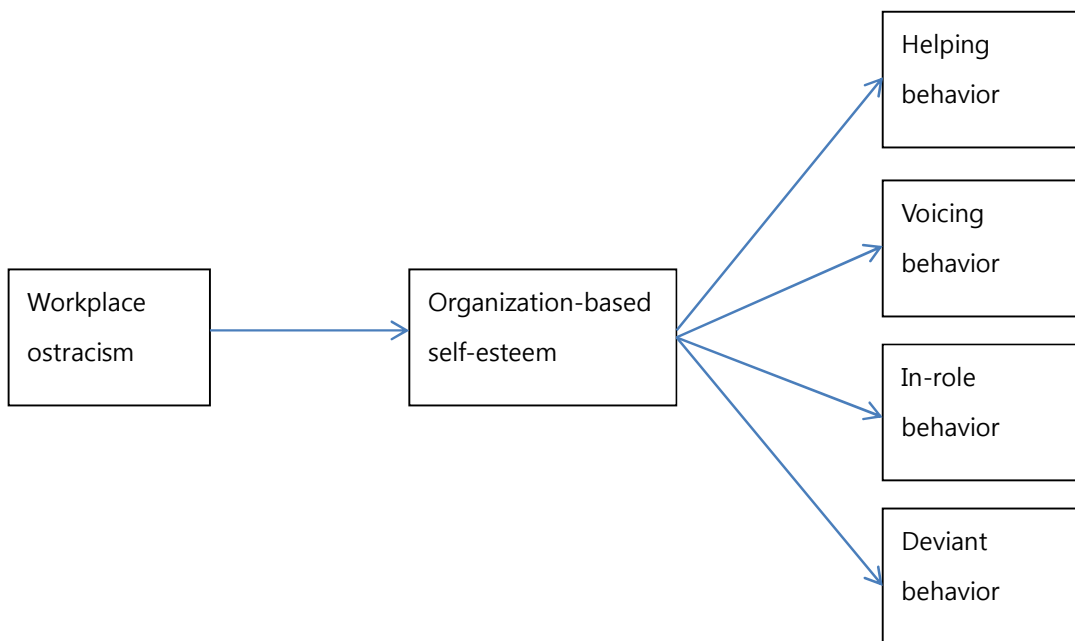


Figure 1. Hypothesized full mediation model

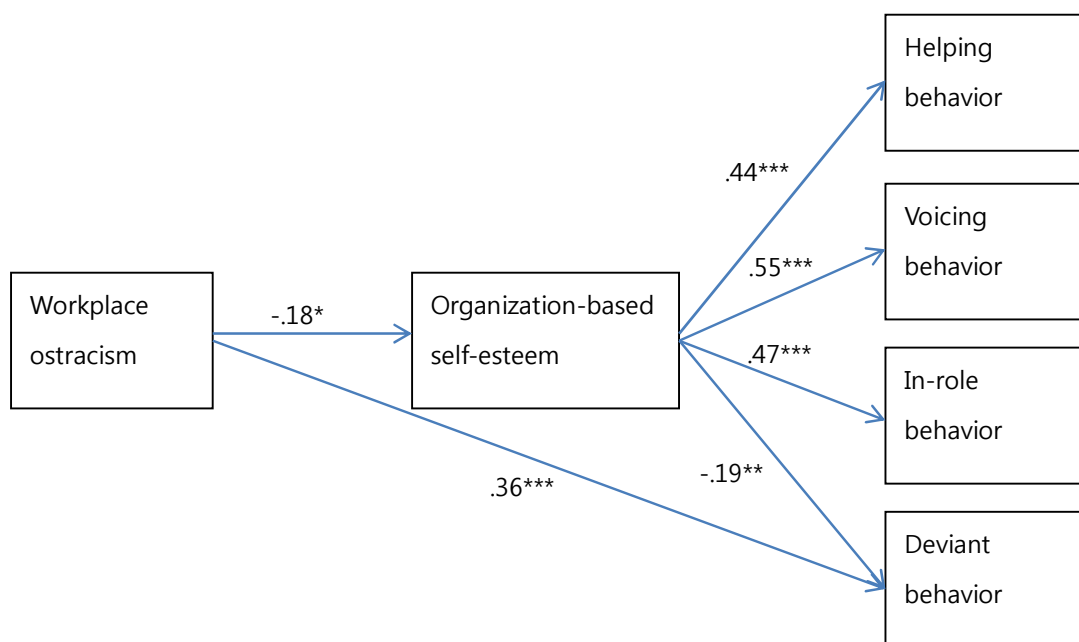


Figure 2. Adjusted model

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender	.47	.50	1											
2. Age	34.96	6.97	-.24**	1										
3. Education	2.94	.63	-.09	-.11	1									
4. Position	2.60	1.52	-.15*	.71**	.12	1								
5. Tenure	6.98	7.00	-.06	.65**	-.12	.46**	1							
6. Team tenure	2.68	2.66	-.05	.27**	-.04	.28**	.30*	1						
7. Workplace ostracism	1.57	.87	-.05	.12	.01	.11	.15	.21*	(.97)					
8. OBSE	4.89	.99	-.20**	.24**	-.03	.21**	.22**	.10	-.18**	(.97)				
9. Helping behavior	5.32	.83	-.11	.39**	-.05	.24**	.34**	.22**	-.17**	.52**	(.94)			
10. Voicing behavior	4.93	.97	-.12	.37**	.03	.27**	.25**	.16*	-.17*	.54**	.72**	(.94)		
11. In-role behavior	5.23	.83	-.13	.21**	.08	.17*	.19**	.15*	-.19**	.57**	.61**	.61**	(.96)	
13. Deviant behavior	2.45	1.15	-.23	-.07	.16*	-.07	-.08	.05	.28**	-.26**	-.33**	-.31**	-.26**	(.91)

n = 225. Reliabilities are in parentheses.

\*p<.05; \*\*p<.01

Table 2. CFA results

Models	X <sup>2</sup>	df	NFI	IFI	CFI	RMSEA
One-factor model	5667.3	765	.51	.55	.54	.17
Two-factor model	3542.3	764	.69	.72	.74	.13
Three-factor model	2631.5	762	.77	.83	.83	.11
Four-factor model	2019.9	759	.82	.88	.88	.09
Five-factor model	1433.1	755	.88	.94	.94	.06
Six-factor model	1142.1	750	.90	.96	.96	.05

Table 3. Structural models

Models	X <sup>2</sup>	df	NFI	IFI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1	1547.9	997	.87	.95	.95	.05
Model 2	1526.7	996	.88	.96	.96	.05

Note: Model 1 (hypothesized full mediation model),

Model 2 (workplace ostracism → deviant behavior included)

Table 4. Indirect effects of workplace ostracism on helping behavior through OBSE

	M	SE	LL	95% CI	UL	95% CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect						
Effect	-.10	.03	-.17		-.05	
Bootstrap size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.						

Table 5. Indirect effects of workplace ostracism on voicing behavior through OBSE

	M	SE	LL	95% CI	UL	95% CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect						
Effect	-.12	.04	-.22		-.07	
Bootstrap size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.						

Table 6. Indirect effects of workplace ostracism on in-role behavior through OBSE

	M	SE	LL	95% CI	UL	95% CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect						
Effect	-.12	.03	-.19		-.06	
Bootstrap size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.						

Table 7. Indirect effects of workplace ostracism on deviant behavior through OBSE

	M	SE	LL	95% CI	UL	95% CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect						
Effect	.06	.03	.02		.13	
Bootstrap size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.						