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HOW AM I SUPPOSED TO LIVE WITHOUT YOU: AN INVESTIGATION OF
ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF WORKPLACE OSTRACISM

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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Feb 2012

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigates workplace ostracism in terms of (1) the antecedents of workplace ostracism; (2) the influences of ostracism on interpersonal emotions; and (3) and the diverse behavioral consequences of ostracism. We conducted three empirical studies. In Study 1 (Chapter 2), we examined how narcissism as a personality trait of the target is related to workplace ostracism. Using two independent samples, we found that in teams with a higher level of goal interdependence, narcissists are least likely to be ostracized when they have a high expertise status, whereas in teams with a lower level of goal interdependence, they are most likely to be ostracized when they have a low expertise status.

In Study 2 (Chapter 3), we examined the relationship between ostracism and employees' emotional reactions at the dyadic-level, and identified factors that intensify the negative emotions of ostracized team members. Social relations analyses revealed that ostracism toward another arouses negative emotions (i.e., anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety) in the target when interacting with the perpetrator. Such negative emotional reactions are exacerbated when the target perceives a low level of ostracism from other team members or a low level of ostracism from the perpetrator to other team members.

In Study 3 (Chapter 4), we examined the conditions under which ostracism deters social loafing and organizational deviance and promotes helping. We found that when team identification is high, ostracism acts as an informal sanction that decreases employees' social loafing and organizational deviance and increases their helping behavior. The implications of the three studies for theory and practice are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background to the research

Ostracism, which is defined as being ignored and excluded (Williams, 1997), has been a feature of human life since the earliest recorded human history, when the ancient Greeks decided to vote to ostracize deviant individuals from their communities as a means of punishment (Williams, 1997). Ostracism has been ubiquitous throughout human history, and even today minorities such as gays and lesbians may be ostracized from mainstream society (Hequembourg & Brallier, 2009). Exile and banishment might be extreme forms of ostracism, and homosexuals might represent the minority group in the society, on some level, most of us have once in a while been the instigators or targets of ostracism. Recall the silent treatment given to loved ones, the cold shoulder given to colleagues when we are engrossed in our own work, or the awkward moment when we are disregarded in an intense discussion (Williams, 2001). Ostracism is familiar to us all and is embedded in everyday interactions. As human beings, we cannot simply walk away and discard the feeling of being ignored.

Being ostracized is hurtful. Laboratory experiments have found that the same brain structures are activated by ostracism as by experiences of physical pain, indicating that the “social pain” aroused by ostracism is as real as physical pain (Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2003; MacDonald & Leary, 2005). A perusal of the literature suggests that ostracism threatens four fundamental human needs: the need for belonging, the need for self-esteem, the need for control, and the need for meaningful existence (Williams, 1997, 2001). These four fundamental needs, which

are vital for human motivation and survival, underlie a wide spectrum of social behavior (e.g., Baumeister, 1994; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Branden, 2001; Taylor & Brown, 1988; Tesser, 2000). Social psychologists have embarked on a series of studies to examine the impact of ostracism on the four fundamental needs. They have found that ostracism deprives an individual of the sense of belongingness by threatening to expel the individual from the group. People can stand being criticized and chastised for their behavior as long as the disapproval does not lead to ignoring or exclusion (Williams, 2001). Ostracism impoverishes individuals' sense of belonging and connectedness to others and the group, evoking a host of negative psychological consequences, such as depression, anxiety, and stress (Williams, 2001). Ostracized individuals tend to attribute the unpleasant treatment to something that they have done wrong or some unappealing characteristics that they possess, which may threaten their sense of self-esteem (Williams, 2001). Further, individuals who are ostracized feel that their sense of control has been taken away, because there are no reactions prompted by their queries, provocations, or other actions. The interaction is unilateral, with no way of influencing the end of the ostracism (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008; Williams, 1997; Zadro, Williams, & Richardson, 2004). Finally, ostracism reminds people of their worthlessness and the meaningless of their existence in the eyes of others, which provides a preview of what life would be like if one did not exist. Such implications of "social death" (Sommer, Williams, Ciarocco, & Baumeister, 2001) threaten individuals' sense of a meaningful existence (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004).

The literature on ostracism mainly comprises studies conducted in the laboratory setting. Although the fundamental nature of ostracism and its destructive impact on human beings' fundamental needs also apply in the work setting, we know

little about how ostracism occurs in organizations and what happens to employees when they are ostracized in the workplace.

The significance of research on workplace ostracism

Ostracism has attracted social psychologists' attention for decades, and a plethora of experimental laboratory studies have been conducted to understand the social consequences of ostracism. However, organizational psychologists have not paid attention to this phenomenon in the workplace until recently (Ferris et al., 2008). In light of the wide array of anecdotal, theoretical, and empirical findings from diverse branches of social science, we believe that ostracism may affect a variety of organizational outcomes (i.e., work attitudes, well-being, and behavior). We think that this omission is significant for several theoretical and practical reasons.

First, ostracism is not uncommon in organizations. Indeed, two recent surveys indicate that ostracism is actually prevalent in the workplace. One survey covering over 5,000 workers showed that 13% of the respondents had been excluded at work in the previous six months (Hitlan, Kelly, Schepman, Schneider, & Zarate, 2006). Another survey revealed that 66% of employees had been given the silent treatment over the previous five years, 29% reported that others intentionally left the area when they entered, and 18% reported that they had been situated in a physically isolated location (Fox & Stallworth, 2005).

Second, although the concept of ostracism is usually subsumed under broader concepts such as deviance, social undermining, aggression, and workplace bullying (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998), there are merits to examining ostracism as a distinct construct. There have been calls for researchers to study subtle forms of deviant behavior rather than focusing only on "plant floor" forms of deviance (e.g., theft and sabotage; Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Further, ostracism fundamentally concerns a failure of social engagement (Robinson, & O'Leary-Kelly, & Wang, 2012), that is, a lack of interaction with others. However, deviance and social undermining still allow interaction, albeit in an aversive way (Duffy et al., 2002; Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Neuman & Baron, 1998). For example, aggressive behavior includes verbal or physical assault, and social undermining behavior includes belittling or criticizing others. These types of aversive behavior involve interpersonal interactions. This is where ostracism differs, because the pain of ostracism resides in others' avoidance of interaction (Ferris et al., 2008). Research has shown that ostracized individuals would prefer verbal or physical abuse to being ostracized (Williams, 2001), because it is the expulsion from interactions with other individuals that profoundly affects human beings' fundamental need for belonging, control, and a meaningful existence (Zadro et al., 2004). Thus, workplace ostracism should be separated from broader concepts such as deviance, social undermining, and aggression to avoid any conceptual confusion and to allow an examination of the unique influence of this workplace phenomenon.

Third, the majority of the existing findings are based on experimental laboratory studies with participants who were not embedded in a regular interactional context as in an organization. Generally speaking, participants in experimental studies are gathered for a specific research purpose, and are unlikely to have further contact with each other after leaving the experimental setting. However, the workplace is different. As long as employees have no plans to leave the organization, the possibility of facing and interacting with those who ostracize one is relatively high. Accordingly, ostracized individuals are likely to perceive a high possibility of further influencing the perpetrator and turning the predicament around (Romero-Canyas, Downey, Reddy, Rodriguez, Cavanaugh, & Pelayo, 2010). This difference may lead

certain ostracized individuals to respond to ostracism differently from those who do not perceive the possibility of exerting an influence, such as the participants in experimental studies (Bourgeois & Leary, 2001; Romero-Canyas et al., 2010; Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001; Warburton, Williams, & Cairns, 2006). As the majority of empirical evidence comes from laboratory studies, we know little about what happens to people who are excluded, shunned, and ostracized in the workplace. A more systematic investigation of ostracism in the workplace is thus worthwhile.

Research gaps and dissertation overview

To enrich our understanding of workplace ostracism, three lines of research merit attention. First, the extant ostracism literature reveals little about the factors that affect why certain kinds of individuals are ostracized in a group or organization. To the best of our knowledge, only two studies have examined the antecedents of workplace ostracism. One examined the Big Five personality traits as antecedents (Wu & Wei, 2010), and the other investigated goal structure and the target's social skills (Wu, 2011). There is much more that is unknown than is known about the causes of workplace ostracism. Examples of what is unknown include the dispositional variables, other than the Big Five traits, and the situational variables that may predict ostracism, and whether dispositional variables interact with situational variables to jointly influence the emergence of workplace ostracism. More research attention is needed to investigate the antecedents of workplace ostracism.

Second, it is well established in the literature that ostracism induces a wide array of negative emotional consequences, including depression, distress, stress, sadness, anger, and shame (Eisenberger et al., 2003; MacDonald & Leary, 2005; Leary, Koch, & Hechenbleikner, 2001; Smith & Williams, 2004; Stroud, Tanofsky-Kraff, Wilfley, & Salovey, 2000). However, all of these findings are at the individual

level, and reveal the triggered feelings in general. An interesting and fruitful line of investigation would be to focus on interpersonal emotions, or elicited emotions when interacting with a particular person. Ostracism is generally regarded as a “dyadic phenomenon” that involves an actor and a target (Hershcovis & Barlign, 2007). It would thus be meaningful to examine a target’s aroused emotions triggered by a specific actor, rather than simply focusing on feelings in general. Furthermore, we know little about the factors that moderate the ostracism-emotion link. Research is needed to establish the boundary conditions under which the negative emotions caused by ostracism may be either exacerbated or attenuated.

Third, the literature suggests that ostracized individuals react to ostracism in a variety of ways, many of which appear to be contradictory (Williams, 2007). For example, experimental laboratory research on social exclusion has found that people who are excluded are prone to decrease prosocial behavior such as help and cooperation (Tice, Twenge, & Schmeichel, 2002; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007), whereas other studies have found that ostracized people can be more helpful, positive, and cooperative (Gardner, Pickett, & Brewer, 2000; Williams & Sommer, 1997). Past research has also found that people who are excluded are more likely to be aggressive and to derogate those who exclude them, even those uninvolved in the ostracism (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001). The varying and even contradictory behavioral reactions to ostracism suggest another intriguing line of research, that of investigating the conditions under which ostracized employees choose certain reactions, and specifically when ostracism leads to attempts to be re-included rather than attempts to lash out and be aggressive (Williams, 2007). To address each line of research, we conducted three studies that are presented in the subsequent chapters.

In Chapter 2, we present a study that investigates narcissism as an antecedent of workplace ostracism. Narcissism refers to “a pervasive pattern of grandiosity, self-focus, and self-importance” (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001, p. 177). Narcissism in interpersonal relationships is fraught with paradox, with unclear predictions of interpersonal like or dislike (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Paulhus, 1998; Sandstrom & Coie, 1999). We apply power-dependence theory and attribution theory (Emerson, 1962; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Kelley & Michela, 1980; Molm, 1987) to demonstrate how the power dependence relationship between a narcissist and other team members substantially influences the way in which other members treat the narcissist.

In Chapter 3, we attempt to gain understanding of the relationship between ostracism and emotions at the interpersonal level and the boundary conditions that may further influence this relationship through a second study in which we theorize and operationalize the relationship between ostracism and negative emotions at the dyadic level. Following the contextualized emotional process approach (Elfenbein, 2007) and applying social evaluation theory and prevalence information theory (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989; Pettigrew, 1967; Kelley, 1967), we further argue that the aroused negative emotions of an ostracized individual when interacting with the perpetrator are inclined to be aggravated when he or she considers ostracism from the perpetrator to be a rare event. We further examine two boundary conditions, both related to prevalence information on whether ostracism is a rare event, that are likely to strengthen an individual’s negative emotions when facing the perpetrator of the ostracism.

In Chapter 4, we report a third study conducted to understand why and when people react to ostracism in qualitatively different ways. In this study, we conceptualize ostracism as a mechanism of social sanction to inhibit socially

undesirable behavior and encourage desirable behavior. We propose and examine a boundary condition under which ostracized employees are more likely to decrease inappropriate behavior such as social loafing and organizational deviance, and increase socially desirable behavior such as helping. Given that ostracism is more likely to constitute a threat to those for whom the acceptance of the group is of particular importance (Ellermers, Doosje, & Spears, 2004; Tyler & Lind, 1992), we theorize and examine the moderating role of team identification in the relationships between ostracism and types of reactive behavior (i.e., social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping behavior).

Research contributions

Our research makes six major contributions. First, it contributes to the literature on ostracism by testing its hypotheses in a real work setting, rather than the laboratory contexts of previous research. It provides evidence and knowledge of how ostracism is instigated and the real consequences for ostracized employees in organizations. Second, there has been little systematic investigation of the antecedents of workplace ostracism. We contribute to this line of research by investigating narcissism, which may be both conducive and deleterious to interpersonal relationships. We add knowledge to the ostracism literature by examining individual differences beyond the traditional Big Five personality traits (Wu & Wei, 2010). Third, we examine the joint effects of personal factors and situational factors on the occurrence of ostracism, and contribute to the ostracism literature by testing contextual factors that have rarely been examined in the literature to shed light on the interpersonal and group contexts that protect narcissists from ostracism or facilitate the precipitation of narcissists as the targets of ostracism. Fourth, although previous research has provided ample evidence that ostracism is related to negative emotions,

the research has been conducted at the individual level and has mainly focused on individuals' general feelings. Given that ostracism is a dyadic phenomenon involving an actor and a target (Hershcovis, & Barling, 2007), we contribute to the research by examining the link between ostracism and emotions at the dyadic level. Fifth, we examine the boundary conditions that regulate the relationship between ostracism and interpersonal negative emotions using the social evaluation perspective. This contributes to the literature by providing insights into how prevalence information has an additional influence on ostracized employees' negative feelings toward the perpetrator. Sixth, borrowing insights from the evolutionary psychology perspective, we examine whether and when ostracism functions as a social sanction to deter socially undesirable behavior and promote desirable behavior. We examine the moderating role of team identification in this process, and make efforts to answer the call for more investigations to determine the conditions under which ostracism leads to attempts to be re-included versus aggression (Williams, 2007).

CHAPTER 2

NARCISSISTIC EXPERTS: THE ROLES OF EXPERTISE STATUS AND TEAM GOAL INTERDEPENDENCE IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NARCISSISM AND OSTRACISM

Introduction

Workplace ostracism, which refers to the experience of being ignored or excluded in the workplace (Ferris, Brown, Berry & Lian, 2008, p. 1348), is a common phenomenon in organizations (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Typical examples of workplace ostracism include “silent treatment,” avoiding conversation or eye contact, and “giving the cold shoulder” (Ferris et al., 2008; Williams, 2001). Despite the prevalence of this phenomenon in organizations, researchers have paid it scant attention until recently. Initial evidence suggests that workplace ostracism has a significant negative impact on both employees and organizations (Ferris et al., 2008) in areas such as psychological well-being, job attitude, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior, yet little is known about the causes of ostracism.

We address this question by examining a particular personality trait of targets, narcissism, which broadly refers to a grandiose view of one’s self-importance (Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). Narcissism as a personality trait is not well reflected in the Big Five traits (Paulhus & Williams, 2002), and neither does it equate with exceptionally high self-esteem (Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002). Investigating narcissism as an antecedent should enrich our understanding of the kind of personality that attracts ostracism beyond the traditional frame of the Big Five (Wu & Wei, 2010). Narcissism attracts attention because of its ambivalent role in interpersonal relationships. Some studies have found narcissism to be a dysfunctional trait in the maintenance of healthy relationships (Buss & Chiodo, 1991; Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002), whereas others have shown that narcissists have the glamour of attracting people (Back & Schmukle, 2010; Burt, 2009). We therefore investigate whether a narcissistic personality intensifies or alleviates an individual’s likelihood of being socially excluded by others.

Drawing on power dependence theory (Emerson, 1962; Molm, 1987) and attribution theory (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Kelley & Michela, 1980), we contend that the power dependence relationship between narcissists and other coworkers may influence how others interpret and attribute the behavior of narcissists. In particular, we examine the role of employees' expertise status, which is defined as the informal ranking in a team as determined by task-related competencies (Bunderson, 2003; Van der Vegt, Bunderson, & Oosterhof, 2006). We argue that when team members are dependent on a narcissist's expertise, knowledge, skill, and ability to achieve individual or team goals, they tend to rationalize or romanticize the behavior of the expert narcissist and are less likely to ostracize him or her. In contrast, when a narcissist has no dependable expertise, team members are likely to be displeased and even annoyed by the individual's narcissistic behavior, and intentionally or unintentionally exclude him or her.

The impact of a person's expertise is premised on the condition that the person's expertise is of value to others. This condition is likely to be met when the team context requires team members to rely on each other, cooperate, and make joint decisions to achieve shared goals (Berger, Fiske, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977). We thus contend that a more circumspective view of the role of expertise status requires an examination of the team context in which power-dependence relationships are embedded. We propose that the moderating effect of expertise status on the narcissism-ostracism link may be dependent on the level of goal interdependence in a team (i.e., members' shared belief that their individual goal achievements are positively related; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Tjosvold, Yu, & Hui, 2004). The level of team goal interdependence will make expertise more or less valued and desired by

other team members, thereby further regulating the moderating effect of expertise status on the link between narcissism and ostracism.

This study aims to contribute to the literature in several ways. First, research on workplace ostracism is in its infancy. As a burgeoning research domain, some important questions have not yet been addressed. For instance, we still know little about the antecedents of ostracism (Wu, 2011). We contribute to this line of research by examining the narcissistic personality and illuminating the conditions under which narcissism is either positively or negatively related to ostracism. Second, the notion that status discourages workplace mistreatment is not novel, but the empirical evidence does not allow a firm conclusion on the issue (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Aquino & Thau, 2009). We examine expertise status in the team and show how it essentially influences the ostracism of a narcissistic member. Third, we anchor expertise status, or the interpersonal power-dependence relationship among teammates, within the team context by proposing goal interdependence as a cross-level moderator. As context delimits the boundaries of organizational phenomena (Johns, 2006), in so doing we identify an important boundary condition for the role of expertise status in regulating the relationship between narcissism and ostracism. Fourth, we contribute to the narcissism literature. Although narcissism has received intense attention in the field of personality/social psychology, it has been less studied in the field of industrial-organizational psychology (Judge et al., 2006). Among the very few studies in this area, narcissism has mainly been examined as the “dark side” of CEO personality that negatively affects decision making (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, & Hiller, 2009). In contrast, we focus on narcissism as a personality trait of employees in general and examine its effect on interpersonal interactions. We also tried to uncover two contradictory conditions:

when narcissism is destructive, and when narcissism is constructive. In opposition to the sweeping claim that narcissism has a negative impact on relationship development (Judge et al., 2006), we reveal a condition in which narcissism is not necessarily detrimental to interpersonal relationships.

Theory and hypotheses

Narcissism and ostracism

A narcissist is half angel, half demon. The “angel” part of narcissists is embodied in the possession of an immediately perceived charming and charismatic air (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Young & Pinsky, 2006). Narcissists appear to be agreeable, conscientious, open, confident, competent, intelligent, passionate, creative, and entertaining (Paulhus, 1998), and are thus likely to be received as socially likable in the first instance (Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2010; Oltmanns, Friedman, Fiedler, & Turkheimer, 2004). Narcissists are also attractive because they are rule-breakers. They like to take risks, challenge orthodoxy, and defy authority, and have the power to inspire people and shape the future with their grand vision (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Maccoby, 2000, 2004; Post, 1986; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). The prevalence of narcissistic leaders across different sectors of society, and indeed the world and throughout history, to some extent suggests that narcissists possess certain qualities that make them stand out from the ordinary, fascinating many of us and making people willing to be subject to their influence (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). Some scholars contend that narcissists fascinate us because they satisfy our fantasies of indulging the cravings that we ourselves desire but cannot or dare not fully satisfy (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001). For example, we may

admire those who are brave enough to break the rules when we are scared to do so, and in part fulfill this need by seeing others indulge our desire.

However, previous research has also identified a wide array of disadvantages of narcissism that make it difficult for narcissists to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships with others (Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Paulhus, 1998). Narcissists have a grandiose view of themselves. They demand excessive admiration and attention, have an unreasonable sense of entitlement, are interpersonally exploitive in that they see others as an extension of themselves, and behave arrogantly and without compassion (Bogart, Benotsch, & Pavlovic, 2004; Emmons, 1987; Judge et al., 2006). This self-centered, hostile, and haughty behavior makes narcissists annoying and dislikable to others, and is detrimental to interpersonal relationships (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Paulhus, 1998). However, although narcissism has both advantages and disadvantages, we do not know when the advantages dominate, making narcissists liked by others, and when the disadvantages dominate, making them repelled by others. In light of the possibility that narcissists are “dividers” — they can be expected to do grander things but may also be extremely difficult to work with, we thus attempt to investigate how this kind of employees can be effective instead of being ostracized. We examine this paradoxical issue in a team context, which is when narcissists will be most likely or least likely to be socially ostracized by others. Drawing on power-dependence theory and attribution theory, we employ a contextual-embedded perspective by proposing two moderating factors: expertise status and team goal interdependence.

The role of expertise status

According to power-dependence theory (Emerson, 1962; French & Raven, 1959), the knowledge, skills, and expertise possessed by an individual group member are valuable resources that make the group and its members more dependent on that individual (Van der Vegt et al., 2006). Following this line of reasoning, expectation states theory posits that when a group member's expertise, knowledge, skill, and ability are perceived by other members to be critical resources for achieving the group's goals, this member tends to develop a higher informal status of power, prestige, and reputation in the group (Berger et al., 1977; Bunderson, 2003; Ridgway, 1987; Van der Vegt et al., 2006).

Power dependence influences how individuals make sense of and construe their social world (e.g., Brewer, 1986; Fiske, 1993; Gilbert, 1998; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Kipnis, 1976; Pettit & Sivanathan, in press). We argue that the expertise status of narcissistic members influences how team members interpret their experiences of interacting with narcissistic members in substantially different ways. There are two specific mechanisms that underpin this attribution. First, people have an innate motive for self-enhancement, which is likely to drive them to attach themselves to perceived "winners" or those with power so that they can bask in their reflected glory (Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976). People may not mind putting up with arrogant, demeaning, and even hostile behavior by an expert to attain such high-status associations (Lipman-Blumen, 2004; Pfeffer & Fong, 2005). Thus, people may be willing to subject themselves to the influence of even a narcissistic expert.

Second, as the opportunity costs of breaking off a relationship with a narcissistic expert may be high, people may alter and reconstruct their attributions to interpret the narcissist's behavior in a positive light. Social psychology research has

identified the surprising and intriguing phenomenon that people can flexibly reconstruct and rationalize a difficult condition in a positive way once they have come to terms with it (Heider, 1946, 1958; Pfeffer & Fong, 2005; Salancik, 1977). For example, a classic study on eating worms (Comer & Laird, 1975) showed that participants who expected to undergo a noxious task (i.e., eating worms) actually wanted to eat worms even when they no longer had to. This study suggested that the participants who had chosen to be in the experiment may have already reconstructed the meaning of their participation as being for the good of science as a means of rationalizing their behavior. They may even have seen themselves as heroic figures willing to endure discomfort for the greater good (Comber & Laird, 1975; Pfeffer & Fong, 2005). People may persist with a chosen course of action through such useful reconstruction to cooperate with the inevitable, even when it is unpleasant (also see Festinger, 1957). Following this reasoning, we argue that when persisting with a relationship with a narcissistic expert is important, people may reconstruct the arrogant and self-centered attitude or behavior of narcissists as being consistent with their high expertise status, and may believe them to be entitled to display such behavior. They may even attribute narcissistic behavior to the embodiment or reflection of the narcissist's status and power. Such altered attributions are likely to justify, rationalize, or even glorify the behavior exhibited by narcissistic experts, thereby making such experts more acceptable or even admirable in the team.

In contrast, when the expertise status of narcissists is low, they have no valuable resources upon which others depend. In this condition, narcissists are likely to be perceived as annoying and dislikable, and their behavior to be deleterious to maintaining healthy interpersonal relationships (Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002). Thus, narcissistic team members with low expertise are more likely to be ostracized

by the team. In short, narcissists with a high expertise status are less likely to be ostracized by team members, whereas narcissists with a low expertise status are more likely to be rejected by team members. This leads to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Expertise status moderates the relationship between narcissism and ostracism in such a way that when expertise status is high, narcissism is negatively related to ostracism, and when expertise status is low, narcissism is positively related to ostracism.

The role of team goal interdependence

So far we have illustrated the moderating role of expertise status in the relationship between narcissism and ostracism, but without considering team context. In light of the important role of context, which provides “situational opportunities and constraints” for the occurrence of organizational behavior (Johns, 2006), we propose that to more fully depict how expertise status influences the relationship between narcissism and ostracism we need to take team context into account. We propose that a team-level construct – team goal interdependence plays a critical role in shaping the narcissism-ostracism link.

Team goal interdependence reflects members’ shared belief that their individual goal achievements are interdependently related, and that their individual goals are subsumed in the shared team goal (Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Tjosvold et al., 2004). We contend that this contextual factor influences the joint effect of narcissism and expertise status on ostracism through two specific mechanisms. First, the influence of expertise status on the link between narcissism and ostracism is dependent on the extent to which the narcissist’s expertise, skills, and knowledge are valued by other members of the team. A narcissist’s expertise is more likely to be valued by other team members in work groups in which members have to depend on

each other to achieve a collective goal (Berger et al., 1977). Thus, in teams with a high level of goal interdependence, a narcissist's expertise is more likely to be valued by others, making him or her more acceptable in the team. Conversely, in teams with a low level of goal interdependence, a narcissist's expertise is less likely to be valued by others, as the other members will not rely on the narcissist's expertise for goal achievement. Thus, narcissists with a high (rather than low) expertise status are less likely to be ostracized in teams with a level of high goal interdependence.

Second, team context may also provide situational opportunities for, and countervailing constraints against, organizational behavior (Johns, 2006; Mowday & Sutton, 1993). In teams with strong goal interdependence, the fates of team members are interwoven, and they tend to regard the team as a whole that swims and sinks together. Thus, ostracizing a narcissist even with low expertise would run counter to the benefits of a member or the team. In contrast, in teams with a low level of goal interdependence, team members do not have a strong sense that their fates are entwined. Such teams can be difficult environments for narcissists with a low expertise status, because the team context provides a situational opportunity for ostracism to emerge. The hostile attitudes and behavior of narcissists make it especially difficult and undesirable to maintain a healthy interpersonal relationship. Thus, narcissists with a low (rather than high) expertise status are more likely to be ostracized in teams with a low level of goal interdependence. Hence, we predict that:

Hypothesis 2: Team goal interdependence and expertise status jointly moderate the relationship between narcissism and ostracism: (1) narcissism is negatively related to ostracism only if the team has a high level of goal interdependence and the narcissist has a high expertise status; (2) narcissism is positively related to ostracism only if the team has a low level of goal interdependence and the narcissist has a low expertise status

Method

Overview

We conducted two independent studies to test the hypotheses. In both studies, we chose the call center of a state-owned telecommunications company in different provinces as our research site. Before collecting data, the researchers went to the site to observe the work environment and conducted several interviews with employees, supervisors, and the general managers of the call centers. We were informed that the call centers were operated by teams who were responsible for mobile services, fixed line services, and 3G services across the province in question. Employees in the call centers had plenty of opportunities to cooperate with each other, learn together, share knowledge, and help each other during each work shift. For example, they had two routine meetings before and after each shift to pass on new information on policy or procedure or useful guidelines to speed up each telephone enquiry, or to share problems that they had encountered during their shift. In addition, at least one workshop and one examination were conducted each week involving all the employees in the call center. We were thus confident that during these activities employees in this work setting had regular interactions with each other that offered potential for the ostracism of team members.

There were two methodological reasons for conducting two independent studies. First, in Study 1, we used a short unidimensional measure of narcissism (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006). Although this short measure is well established and widely used in the psychology literature (e.g., Cain, Pincus, & Ansell, 2008; Konrath, Bushman, & Tyler, 2006; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008), it reduces the complex construct of narcissism to a single trait score (Cain et al., 2008).

To improve the construct validity, in Study 2 we used the full multi-dimensional measure that is generally used to measure narcissism (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

Second, we employed a round-robin design to allow team members to rate each of the other members of their team in both Study 1 and Study 2 (Warner, Kenny, & Stoto, 1979). However, the team size in Study 1 was too big to allow a full rating for all team members. We thus randomly selected some of the team members from each team to complete the surveys. To capture the full picture of ostracism among teammates, in Study 2 we chose a research site that allowed us to collect data from all team members.

Study 1: Sample and Procedure

The survey data for Study 1 were collected from a call center of a telecommunications company in a northern city in China. There were 24 teams in the call center ranging in size from 19 to 37 members. The respondents were asked to report on narcissism and team goal interdependence. We used a round robin design in which the team members rated the expertise status of each member of their team and the extent to which they ostracized each of them (Warner et al., 1979). Given that narcissists are generally over-confident about their importance (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001), it is highly possible that the team members with a high score for narcissism were less aware of being ostracized when such behavior was taking place. In such cases, the self-reporting of ostracism would not have reliably reflected the actual situation. We thus obtained the rating of ostracism through other-rating. In so doing, we also reduced concerns about common method variance by collecting data from various sources, including self-ratings for narcissism, aggregate member-ratings of team goal interdependence, and other-ratings of expertise status and ostracism.

We distributed paper-and-pencil surveys to 235 employees across 24 teams. The respondents returned the completed surveys directly to the researchers and were assured that their responses would be treated confidentially. The final sample consisted of 218 employees across 24 teams. The effective response rate was 93%. The mean age of the respondents was 24.66 years. Eighty-five percent of the respondents were female and 15% were male. Seventy-eight percent of the respondents had received a college education or above. The mean organizational tenure of the respondents was 2.17 years.

Study 1: Measures

All of the measures used in this research were originally developed in English. Bilingual experts first translated the measures into Chinese and then back translated them into English. We then compared the back-translated English version with the original English version for equivalence and agreement (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973).

Narcissism. Narcissism was assessed using the five-point NPI-16 scale (Ames et al., 2006). The respondents were asked to indicate agreement with statements such as “I like to be the center of attention” and “I am an extraordinary person” (1 = disagree strongly, 5 = agree strongly; $\alpha = .88$).

Expertise status. Following the procedure of Van der Vegt et al. (2006), we first asked the team supervisors to compose an inventory of competencies relevant to the respondents’ job nature. We then asked the respondents to rate the expertness of each member of their team on the competencies identified in the competence inventory. The final inventory included three items: (1) possessed professional knowledge, skills, and abilities; (2) learning ability; and (3) psychological resilience. The respondents were asked to compare each team member with other members of the team (1 = far

below average, 9 = far above average; $\alpha = .91$). We then aggregated the ratings from all of the other members of a focal individual's team to obtain an averaged expertise status score for that individual. There was sufficient statistical support for this aggregation. We obtained intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) that exceeded the values typically recommended for aggregation ($ICC_1 = .53$, $ICC_2 = .91$; James, 1982; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998). The median within-group agreement value was above the commonly used threshold ($r_{wg(j)} = .86$; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984).

Team goal interdependence. We used the five-point, five-item scale developed by Tjosvold et al. (2004) to measure this construct. Sample items included "our team members 'swim or sink' together," and "our team members' goals go together" (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .92$). We calculated a single score for each team by aggregating the ratings of individual members (Trosvold et al., 2004). The intraclass correlation coefficients ($ICC_1 = .19$, $ICC_2 = .62$) and median within-group agreement ($r_{wg(j)} = .82$) values exceeded those typically recommended for team-level constructs reported in the literature (e.g., Bliese, 2000; Schneider et al., 1998).

Ostracism. To circumvent common source bias, we measured ostracism through peer rating. For example, we asked member A to report his or her ostracism behavior toward every other member of the team (e.g., B, C, D, E, and so on). We then asked B to report his or her ostracism toward A, C, D, E, and so on. To obtain the individual ostracism score for A, we then aggregated the ratings of all other team members (e.g., B, C, D, E, and so on). Based on the results of a pilot study,¹ we selected the 5 items

¹ The pilot study to validate the present measure was conducted among a sample of business undergraduate students in a university in Hong Kong. Most of the students were in their first or second year of study. The respondents were asked to complete the ostracism measure. Out of 162 questionnaires, 161 usable questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of 99%. Fifty-six percent of the respondents were male and 44% were female. Seventy-nine percent of the respondents were from Hong Kong, 15% were from mainland China, and the remaining 6% were from overseas. The mean age of the respondents was 20 years. The items selected from the study exhibited standardized loadings of .70 or higher on their respective factors in a confirmatory factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha for ostracism was .89.

with the highest factor loadings from the original 10 items in the measure developed by Ferris et al. (2008). The respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their ostracism toward teammates using a seven-point response scale (1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, 5 = often, 6 = constantly, 7 = always). Sample items include: “I ignored [X] at work”, and “At work I treated [X] as if he/she wasn’t there”. The respective items were subsequently repeated for all members of the team. The Cronbach’s alpha was .80. To justify the aggregation, we calculated the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) and the median within-group agreement value ($r_{wg(j)}$). Their values provide statistical support for the aggregation ($ICC_1 = .50$, $ICC_2 = .90$, $r_{wg(j)} = .87$).

Control variables. We controlled for gender, age, education, and organizational tenure, as these demographic variables may influence workplace mistreatment (Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998). We also controlled for employees’ negative affectivity, because this personality trait has consistently been related to workplace victimization (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Negative affectivity was measured using a short scale comprising four items (“stressed”, “scared”, “upset,” and “nervous”; Lam, Van der Vegt, Walter, & Huang, 2011) from the PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of this scale was .86.

Analyses

As our theoretical model was conceptualized at different levels, we employed hierarchical linear modeling to test our hypotheses by using the mixed modeling feature of SPSS 17.0. We centered all of the independent variables at their grand means before evaluating the regression equations (Enders & Tofighi, 2007; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998).

Study 1: Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2.1 presents the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for the key variables. Ostracism was only modestly related to expertise status ($r = -.13, p < .05$), but not to team goal interdependence.

Table 2.1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Variables (Study 1)

Variables	Means	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Gender	.85	.36	-								
2 Age	24.66	3.21	.09	-							
3 Education	2.94	.61	.09	.29**	-						
4 Organizational tenure	2.17	2.32	.11	.49**	.14*	-					
5 Negative affect	2.27	.88	.06	.02	.04	.01	-				
6 Narcissism	2.90	.71	-.18**	-.11	.19**	-.10	-.01	-			
7 Expertise status	6.63	.82	-.02	.13	.18**	.21**	-.05	.05	-		
8 Team goal interdependence	3.99	.36	.14*	.21**	.04	.27**	.07	-.14*	.07	-	
9 Ostracism	1.75	.38	-.02	.11	.04	.24**	.00	-.05	-.13*	-.03	-

Note: $N = 218$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Hypothesis testing

We tested a multilevel model in Study 1 in which expertise status and team goal interdependence jointly moderated the relationship between narcissism and ostracism. In Step 1, we entered the control variables and then entered narcissism, expertise status, and team goal interdependence in Step 2. As expected, narcissism was not significantly related to ostracism, although there was a slight negative association ($\beta = -.079$, ns), suggesting that narcissists may have a certain charm that makes them less likely to be ostracized. In Step 3, we entered all of the combinations of two-way interaction terms for narcissism, expertise status, and team goal interdependence. The interactive effects of narcissism and expertise status and narcissism and team goal interdependence were not significant. Thus, H1 was not supported. In Step 4, we entered the three-way interaction. As shown in Table 2.2 (Step 4), the three-way interaction was significant ($\beta = -.124$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$).

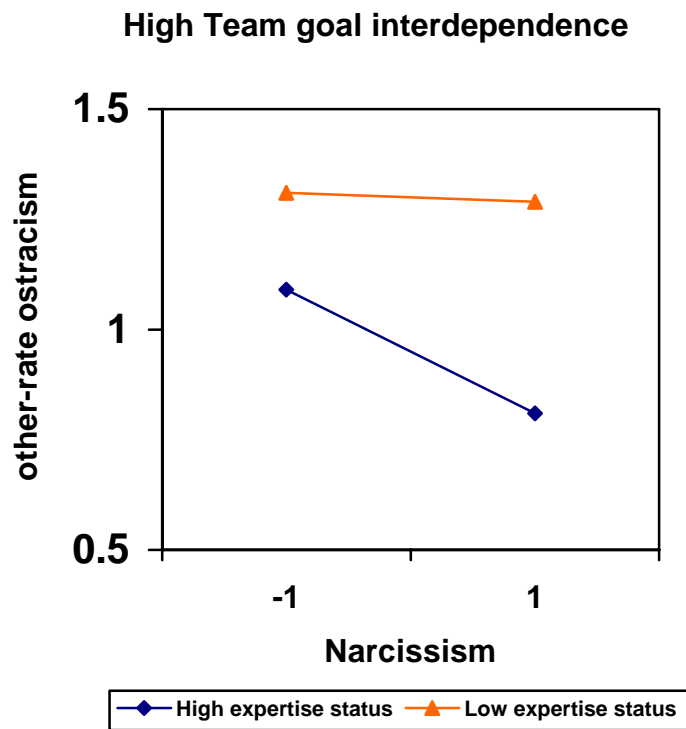
To further test the three-way interaction of narcissism, expertise status, and team goal interdependence, we tested the simple slopes (cf. Aiken & West, 1991). The simple slope test (see Table 2.3) revealed that only when a focal teammate's expertise status was high and team goal interdependence was high was narcissism negatively related to ostracism ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .05$). This finding partially supports H2. Figure 2.1 illustrates the joint effect of expertise status and goal interdependence on the relationship between narcissism and ostracism to facilitate the interpretation of the three-way interaction effect.

Table 2.2: Results of Hierarchical Multilevel Analyses (Study 1)

Variables	Other-rate ostracism					
	Entry		Final		Increase in model fit	Change of explained variance
	β	SE	β	SE		
Step 1						
Gender	-.176	.166	-.137	.161		
Age	.005	.022	-.007	.021		
Education	.012	.102	.144	.101		
Organization tenure	.086**	.032	.135	.031		
Negative affect	-.091	.077	-.057	.072	$\Delta\chi^2(5) = 13.121^*$	$\Delta R^2 = .05$
Step 2						
Narcissism	-.079	.061	-.049	.062		
Expertise status (Status)	-.330***	.070	-.355***	.071		
Goal interdependence (Goal)	-.093	.126	-.094	.123	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 22.332^{***}$	$\Delta R^2 = .04$
Step 3						
Narcissism x Status	-.007	.055	.020	.056		
Narcissism x Goal	-.070	.056	-.077	.055		
Expertise status x Goal	-.018	.069	-.048	.071	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 1.832$	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
Step 4						
Narcissism x Status x Goal	-.124*	.060	-.124*	.060	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.184^*$	$\Delta R^2 = .03$

Figure 2.1: Three-way interaction of narcissism, expertise status, and team goal interdependence on ostracism (Study 1)

A:



B:

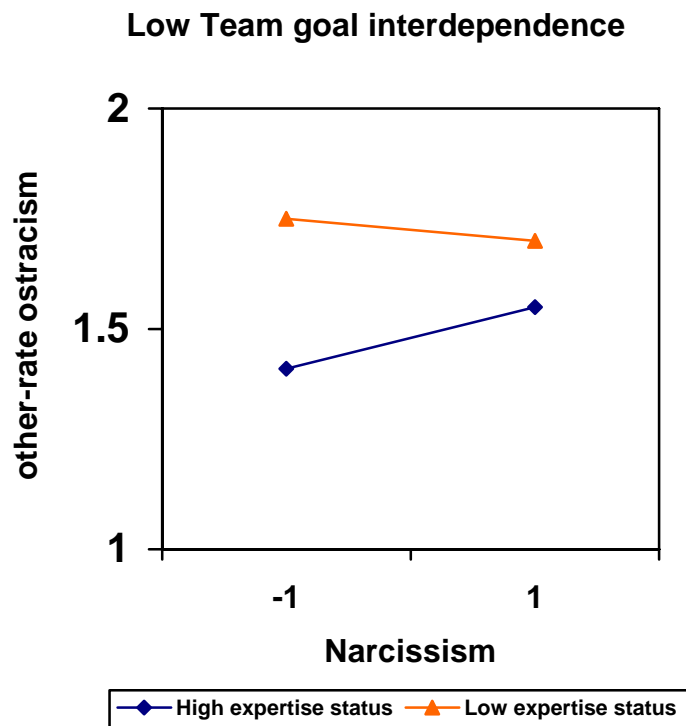


Table 2.3: Tests of the Simple Slopes of the Three-way Interactions of Narcissism, Expertise Status, and Team Goal Interdependence (Study 1)

Expertise status	Team goal interdependence	<u>Other-rate Ostracism</u>	
		β	<i>SE</i>
High	High	-.23*	.10
High	Low	.06	.06
Low	High	-.02	.12
Low	Low	-.04	.04

Study 2: Sample and Procedure

The survey data for Study 2 were collected from the call center of a telecommunications company in a southern city in China. The call center was operated by teams of no more than 10 members, with 16 teams in all. The respondents were asked to report on narcissism and team goal interdependence. We distributed paper-and-pencil surveys to 134 team members and followed the same round-robin procedure as in Study 1. The final sample consisted of 128 employees across 16 teams. The effective response rate was around 96%. The mean age of the respondents was 24.24 years. Eighty-two percent of the respondents were female and 18% were male. Seventy-five percent of the respondents had received a college education or above. The mean organizational tenure of the respondents was 1.48 years.

Study 2: Measures

Ostracism, expertise status, and team goal interdependence were measured using the same scales as those used in Study 1. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the scales were .76, .92, and .89, respectively. These three variables were aggregated from team members at the individual or team level, and statistical support was

obtained for the aggregation. The ICC_1 and ICC_2 values for ostracism were .51, and .81; those for expertise status were .56, and .83; and those for team goal dependence were .36, and .70. The $r_{wg(j)}$ values were .84, .87, and .82, respectively. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for these three variables were .76, .92, and .89, respectively. Narcissism was assessed differently from Study 1, with the widely used five-point, 40-item scale being employed (Raskin & Terry, 1988). The respondents were asked to indicate agreement with statements such as "I like to have authority over other people" and "I am an extraordinary person" (1 = disagree strongly, 5 = agree strongly; $\alpha = .90$). We controlled for exactly the same variables as in Study 1, including gender, age, education, organizational tenure, and negative affectivity ($\alpha = .75$).

Analyses

We performed hierarchical linear modeling to test our hypotheses. We centered all of the independent variables at their grand means before analyzing the regression equations. We followed the same analytical steps as in Study 1.

Study 2: Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2.4 presents the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for the key variables. Ostracism was not related to expertise status or team goal interdependence.

Table 2.4: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Variables (Study 2)

Variables	Means	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Gender	.82	.38	-								
2 Age	24.24	2.44	-.06	-							
3 Education	2.91	.64	-.03	.17	-						
4 Organizational tenure	1.48	1.75	.15	.52**	-.13	-					
5 Negative affect	2.49	.74	.16	.16	-.05	.05	-				
6 Narcissism	3.01	.56	-.15	-.01	.12	-.07	-.16	-			
7 Expertise status	6.53	1.06	.04	.03	-.08	.37**	-.04	-.06	-		
8 Team goal interdependence	4.23	.33	-.16	-.23*	-.17	-.17	-.07	-.01	.10	-	
9 Ostracism	2.36	.46	.01	-.03	-.12	.02	.06	-.06	.02	.00	-

Note: $N = 128$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Hypothesis testing

As shown in Table 2.5 (Step 2), narcissism was not significantly related to ostracism. The two-way interaction of narcissism and expertise status (Step 3) was significantly related to ostracism ($\beta = -.291, p < .01$), as was the two-way interaction of narcissism and team goal interdependence ($\beta = -.292, p < .05$). Thus, H1 was supported in this sample. The three-way interaction (Step 4) was also significantly related to ostracism ($\beta = .312, \Delta R^2 = .03, p < .05$).

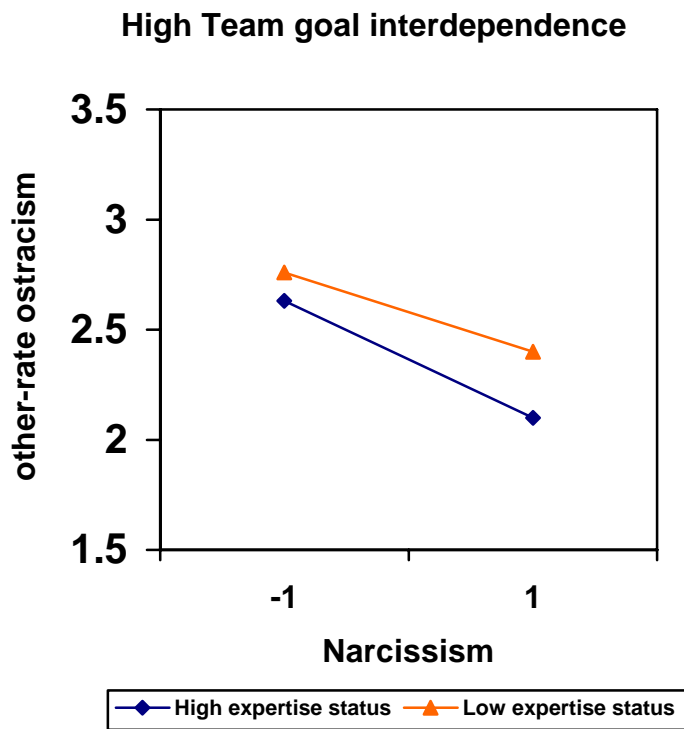
Table 2.5: Results of Hierarchical Multilevel Analyses (Study 2)

Variables	Other-rate ostracism					
	Entry		Final		Increase in model fit	Change of explained variance
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>		
Step 1						
Gender	-.121	.256	-.295	.240		
Age	-.028	.049	-.069	.047		
Education	-.167	.156	-.196	.147		
Organization tenure	.019	.066	.066	.066		
Negative affect	.134	.145	.253	.136	$\Delta\chi^2(5) = 3.187$	$\Delta R^2 = .02$
Step 2						
Narcissism	-.091	.115	-.137	.107		
Expertise status (Status)	-.019	.111	-.137	.105		
goal interdependence (Goal)	-.106	.144	-.206	.164	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 1.132$	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
Step 3						
Narcissism x Status	-.291**	.110	-.370**	.113		
Narcissism x Goal	-.292*	.125	-.336**	.122		
Expertise status x Goal	-.058	.086	-.079	.088	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 11.436^{**}$	$\Delta R^2 = .04$
Step 4						
Narcissism x Status x Goal	.312*	.153	.312*	.153	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 5.715^*$	$\Delta R^2 = .03$

Again, we tested the simple slopes to further test the three-way interaction. The simple slope test (see Table 2.6) revealed that when a focal teammate's expertise status was high and team goal interdependence was high, narcissism was negatively related to ostracism ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$). This significant link is consistent with the findings of Study 1. We also identified the significant link that when expertise status was low and team goal interdependence was low, narcissism was positively related to ostracism ($\beta = .40, p < .01$). This finding suggests that narcissists are more likely to be ostracized when their expertise status and team goal interdependence are both low. These two significant links support H2. Figure 2.2 illustrates the joint effect of expertise status and goal interdependence on the relationship between narcissism and ostracism.

Figure 2.2: Three-way interaction of narcissism, expertise status, and team goal interdependence on ostracism (Study 2)

A:



B:

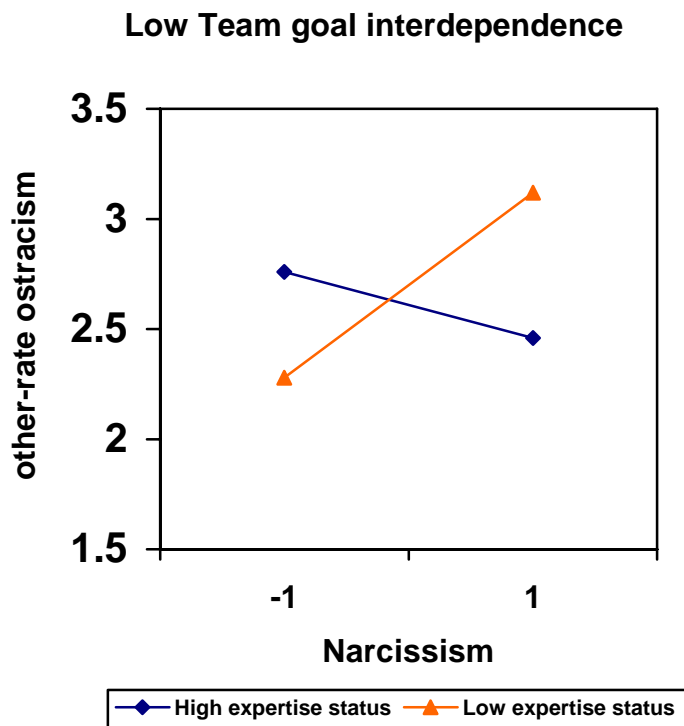


Table 2.6: Tests of the Simple Slopes of the Three-way Interactions of Narcissism, Expertise Status, and Team Goal Interdependence (Study 2)

Expertise status	Team goal interdependence	Other-rate Ostracism	
		β	<i>SE</i>
High	High	-.20*	.09
High	Low	-.16	.12
Low	High	-.14	.10
Low	Low	.40**	.13

Discussion

The objective of this research is to investigate the relationship between narcissism and ostracism. This personality trait exhibits both sides of potential of being liked or disliked by others, significantly influencing interpersonal relationships. We attempted to reveal the conditions under which a narcissist is more or less likely to be ostracized in a team. We examined how the expertise status of narcissists and team goal interdependence jointly influence that relationship. The results revealed two patterns. The first pattern suggests that narcissists with a high level of expertise status are less likely to be ostracized when they are in a team with a high level of team goal interdependence. The second pattern suggests that narcissists who have a low expertise status are more likely to be ostracized when they are in a team with a low level of team goal interdependence.

It is worth noting that the first pattern was found across both independent samples, whereas the second pattern was only found in Study 2. This may be due to the slight difference in the research design of the two studies. In Study 1, we randomly selected members from each team to complete the surveys, and thus may

not have fully captured the social exclusion behavior in those teams. The mean score for ostracism ($m=1.75$) in Study 1 suggests that ostracism behavior was not very severe in this sample. We may have omitted members who suffered strongly from ostracism from the survey, which may explain why we did not find that narcissism was positively related to ostracism. However, in Study 2, where the whole team was included in the survey, the mean score for ostracism increased ($m=2.36$), and the second pattern emerged.

Theoretical Implications

Broadly this study has several implications for two realms of research: the ostracism literature and the narcissism literature. First of all, little is known about the antecedents of workplace ostracism. We contribute to this line of research by investigating the particular personality trait of narcissism. This personality trait, which is described as “full of paradoxes” (Morf & Phodewalt, 2001), is capable of both attracting and repelling people. This study enriches the understanding of when narcissists are likely to be ostracized and when they are accepted by others. By applying power-dependence theory and attribution theory, we illustrate the role of expertise status in shaping the relationship between narcissism and interpersonal dependence, which consequently affects the way that teammates interact with narcissistic experts. A narcissist may be seen as an unpleasant person when he or she has no valuable resources upon which others rely in interpersonal relationships, whereas a narcissist may be perceived as a hero who is entitled to display all types of arrogant behaviors and self-absorption when others depend on this person’s contribution to interpersonal relationships. Thus, the same narcissistic behavior results in different treatment depending on expertise status.

Moreover, following the burgeoning research stream of context theory and the contextualizing approach (Bamberger, 2008), we modeled this interpersonal dependence relationship shaped by expertise as contingent on the nature of the team context as represented by team goal interdependence. In line with our theory, we found a cross-level, three-way interaction that revealed a more complex picture of the reception that narcissists face in different team contexts. These results contribute to the ostracism literature by demonstrating the importance of team goal interdependence in providing situational opportunity for, or countervailing constraint against, the occurrence of workplace ostracism (Johns, 2006; Mowday & Sutton, 1993). Future research should pay attention to the role of context in the personality-ostracism link.

Our results also contribute to the narcissism literature. Despite its complexity and manifold characteristics, narcissism has been predominantly been examined by industrial-organizational psychologists solely as a negative characteristic of top managers (e.g., Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Resick et al., 2009). However, despite the indisputable fact that narcissists are likely to emerge as leaders in many fields (Deluga, 1997; Glad, 2002; Maccoby, 2000), research seems to have ignored the promising avenue of examining this personality trait among general employees. This study extends this line of research in three ways. First, it uncovers the contradictory fates that narcissistic employees face in organizational life: either they become star employees who are adored by other coworkers, a possible reason why they emerge as leaders, or they are the targets of ostracism and exclusion, which blocks the road to workplace success.

Moreover, recently scholars have suggested that the link between narcissism and popularity may be contingent on the duration of interaction with a narcissist

(Back et al., 2010). When it is at zero acquaintance, narcissists may produce physical, nonverbal, and verbal cues that garner popularity, but their problematic behaviors are not yet apparent at such time period. After the initial “honeymoon” period, narcissists tend to become disliked by their peers. This study helps to solve this puzzle from a different angle by demonstrating the important role of expertise status in the relationship between narcissism and ostracism. Reliance on a narcissistic expert may encourage persistence in maintaining an interpersonal relationship with the narcissist and may promote congenial interaction. Our results seem to suggest that after the zero acquaintance, one way for a narcissist to keep attracting others to interact is to gain a higher expertise status.

Furthermore, our results offer some evidence counter to what has been previously suggested. Narcissism has been suggested to be detrimental in team contexts that require cooperation and a positive social-psychological climate (Judge et al., 2006). Narcissists are argued to behave in an interpersonally dismissive and abrasive way, which is viewed as the very antithesis of the prototypical team player, and narcissism is thus viewed as a destructive trait in a positive team context (Judge et al., 2006). However, our findings suggest quite the opposite. It is because in such a positive team context members tend to recognize their fates as being inseparable and value each other, which essentially alters the way that members perceive and interact with a valuable narcissistic team player versus a mere narcissist with no or less value. Rather than saying whether narcissists fit in an environment, we suggest that the environment shapes how narcissists are perceived and interacted in different ways.

Limitations

Despite its discernible strengths (e.g., multiple data sources, validation of the initial results in a second independent study), this study has some limitations. First,

we cannot draw firm conclusions about causality from a cross-sectional study. However, logically, being ostracized is less likely to contribute to the development of a narcissistic personality. Past research on personality development suggests that nearly all personality traits are influenced by earlier life experiences, such as childhood, and may even be genetically influenced (Bouchard & Loehlin, 2001; Graziano, 2003). If this is the case, then reverse causation (i.e., ostracism helps to develop a narcissistic personality) is unlikely. More importantly, the three-way interactive effect identified and confirmed in the two independent studies suggests that a reverse causal path is not plausible. Nevertheless, longitudinal studies are needed in future research to provide firm evidence of causality.

Second, the generalizability of our findings may be of some concern. Although we conducted two independent studies, our sample across the two studies was fairly homogeneous in terms of background, as the respondents were all from call centers in the same industry. Future research would benefit from replicating the current investigation in different settings, organizations, industries, and cultures. Furthermore, one of the three-way interaction patterns was only found in one study (Study 2). Although we have provided some possible and reasonable explanations for this finding, conclusive statements about this pattern must await further investigations.

Future research directions

The findings of this study suggest several interesting and promising future research directions. First, this study is one of the very few to investigate the antecedents of ostracism from the target perspective (Wu, 2011). We examined narcissism, as this personality trait has unique characteristics that are not captured by the Big Five or self-esteem (Campbell et al., 2002; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Despite the insights generated by this research, investigating other personality traits

such as self-esteem, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity would be of benefit. Although these personality traits have not yet been examined in the ostracism literature, they have been studied in research on victimization, bullying, harassment, and other counterproductive types of behavior. Interestingly, the results of such studies are inconclusive (e.g., Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999; Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Harvey & Keashly, 2003; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004). Future research could also look at another interesting construct, core self-evaluation (CSE), which is theorized to be a broad, higher order trait that covers self-esteem, locus of control, emotional stability, and generalized self-efficacy (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). CSE represents baseline evaluations that reflect the positivism of an individual's self-construal (Scott & Judge, 2009). Similar to narcissism, CSE is also related to positive self-regard (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007), but is perceived to be a more functional and healthy trait in terms of interpersonal relationships (Campbell et al., 2002; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoreson, 2003).

Second, this study focuses on how narcissists' expertise determines their informal status, thus shaping dependence relationships between narcissists and other teammates that consequently determine how other teammates interact with them in the team. Future research could extend our model by investigating other factors that also contribute to the determination of an individual's informal status, such as friendship (Lamertz & Aquino, 2004), situational positions in relationship networks that are related to internal and external information flow (Knoke & Burt, 1983; Fang & Shaw, 2009), and social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Such research would provide more insights on the factors that protect individuals from workplace ostracism and other negative organizational behavior.

Another fruitful avenue for future research would be to examine additional moderators and outcomes. This study underscores the important role of team context (i.e., team goal interdependence) in determining whether a narcissist's expertise is of value to other team members, which then determines the dependence relationships within the team. We anchored the dependence relationship shaped by expertise in a context in which expertise was of particular value to team members or team goal achievement. Nevertheless, team contexts may vary substantially. For example, in a team context in which organizational members have competitive relationships rather than cooperative and interdependent relationships (Tjosvold et al., 2004), one member's expertise may not be viewed as of instrumental use to other team members. It is also known that narcissists are perceived to be more annoying in a competitive environment (Judge et al., 2006), and may tend to be the victims of ostracism in this context. Future research could examine this relationship in different contexts.

Finally, we theorized the hypotheses by illustrating how the dependence relationships determined by expertise status essentially influence how others make sense of and interpret narcissists' behavior. Our model heavily relies on this cognitive process when individuals interact with narcissists. It would be beneficial for future research to actually capture and examine this psychological process to illuminate how individuals justify, rationalize, and even glorify their experience when socializing with narcissists.

Practical implications

The findings from this current research have important implications for practice. First, our study suggests that narcissists are not necessarily social outsiders. When they possess the expertise that other teammates rely on for goal achievement, they become acceptable and may even be revered by others. It is under this condition

that the charisma of narcissists is brought to the fore, which is possibly why they are more likely than others to emerge as leaders, as ample evidence suggests (Brunell, Gentry, Campbell, Hoffman, Kuhnert, & DeMarree, 2008; Deluga, 1997; Maccoby, 2000). However, managers need be alert to the “dark side” of narcissism with respect to leader selection or team conflict management once this condition ceases to exist.

Second, our results show that expertise status significantly influences whether a person is accepted or rejected in a context in which expertise is of particular value to the team and members’ goal achievement. Interpersonal relationships in organizations are built, maintained, and developed for a wide range of interests in both the instrumental and affective dimensions (Burt, 1992; McAllister, 1995). Establishing a reputation through expertise, ability, competence, and performance is likely to compensate for certain facets that an individual may lack, such as appearance, warmth, and attractiveness, or even for personality flaws.

Third, our findings emphasize the importance of the role of team context. We found that when narcissists with a low level of expertise status are placed within a context without team norms to regulate appropriate behavior (i.e., a low level of team goal interdependence), they tend to become the targets of ostracism. This finding indicates that harnessing a cooperative and interdependent team context is a crucial task for managers. A variety of procedures and strategies could be used by managers to promote such team features, such as articulating a shared vision, instilling the concept of a shared identity and increased attachment to the team, and promoting the intrinsic value of shared goals (e.g., Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).

Conclusion

We began this study with an interesting question: whether narcissists are more or less acceptable in a team context, given that narcissism personality appears to be

both charismatic and annoying. We identified two boundary conditions – expertise status and team goal interdependence – that jointly influence the relationship between narcissism and workplace ostracism. The results reveal the existence of two patterns for narcissistic team members: those with a high expertise status are less likely to be ostracized in teams with a higher level of team goal interdependence, and those with a low expertise status are more likely to be ostracized in teams with a lower level of team goal interdependence. Our study suggests that the antecedents of ostracism should not be investigated in a social vacuum; the interdependence relationship between interacting parties and the context in which this relationship is embedded must be considered.

CHAPTER 3

WHY ONLY YOU AND WHY ME ONLY? THE SINGLE-OUT EFFECT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OSTRACISM AND INTERPERSONAL NEGATIVE EMOTIONS

Introduction

Ostracism refers to the general experience of being socially ignored, excluded, or rejected (Williams, 2007). The hurtful feeling of being ostracized is familiar to most of us. In social psychology, ostracism has long been found to evoke a host of negative emotional consequences, such as distress, stress, and hurt feelings (Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2003; Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007; MacDonald & Leary, 2005; Smith & Williams, 2004; Stroud, Tanofsky-Kraff, Wilfley, & Salovey, 2000; Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000). Such negative emotions typically describe how ostracized individuals feel in general at the individual level. However, very little is known about the emotional consequences of ostracism at the interpersonal level, or how the target of ostracism reacts emotionally when interacting with the perpetrator. This is a serious omission from the literature for two reasons. First, we argue that ostracism is a typical type of “dyadic phenomenon” that occurs as “a function of a relationship between a perpetrator and a victim” (Hershcovis & Barling, 2007). Employees may selectively ostracize one person and not another contingent on the ongoing features of the specific dyadic relation between the perpetrator and target. Thus, without considering the interplay between the perpetrator and the target, we may not be able to achieve a complete understanding of the impact of ostracism on individuals. Second, emotions serve as a barometer that helps individuals to navigate through the basic problems that arise in social relations (Fineman, 1993; Lazarus, 2006; Morris & Keltner, 2000). In particular, interpersonal emotions, which are defined as the emotional reactions aroused when faced with a specific target of interaction, are more likely to reflect the spontaneous reactions of an individual toward the experience of being ostracized by a particular person, which

may consequently affect the interacting partners in resolving this relational problems (Morris & Keltner, 2000).

It has recently been suggested that emotional processes are deeply contextualized (Elfenbein, 2007). For example, recent research has examined the social moderators of the impact of school bullying and social undermining on feelings of distress, such as the social contexts in which such behavior takes place (Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006; Nishina & Juvonen, 2005). As context provides information for individuals to make sense of and interpret the meaning of organizational behavior (Jones, 2006), we contend that this approach may help us identify the factors that influence the salience of interpersonal negative emotions when an individual is ostracized by a particular member in a team.

Drawing on social evaluation theory and prevalence information theory (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989; Pettigrew, 1967; Kelley, 1967), we argue that in a team context, how bad an individual feels when interacting with a particular team member who ostracizes him or her is dependent on the extent to which the individual perceives the received ostracism from the perpetrator to be a rare event. The information required to make such a judgment can be gleaned from two sources. One is whether the target is distinctively ostracized by a particular member. In other words, if only this member, but not the other members, ostracizes the target, then he or she is likely to interpret being ostracized by this member as a rare event. The other is whether the target is the only target being ostracized by the perpetrator. If the perpetrator only ostracizes the target but not anyone else, then the target is also likely to perceive being ostracized by this perpetrator as a rare event. We contend that such information essentially shapes the negative emotions of an ostracized team member when facing a particular perpetrator.

We contribute to the ostracism literature in two ways. First, whereas past research focuses on how ostracism affects individuals' emotional state in general, we more specifically attempt to demonstrate that the negative emotions triggered by ostracism are in effect target-oriented. We investigate how one team member's ostracism toward another member can induce the latter's negative emotions to the former. Given that ostracism is an interpersonal phenomenon, our study increases the understanding of the emotional consequences of ostracism in the workplace by accounting for a considerable share of the variance at the dyadic level. Second, we examine moderators that may substantially exacerbate an individual's negative feelings toward a specific perpetrator's ostracism behavior. We contribute to both the ostracism literature and the emotion literature by demonstrating how contextual information regarding the degree of uniqueness of the ostracism of a particular perpetrator can exacerbate the pain caused to the target, and also by shedding light on how emotional reactions are relative to the frame of reference (Elfenbein, 2007; Williams, 2007).

Theory and hypothesis

Ostracism and interpersonal negative emotions

Ostracism is painful, aversive, and haunting because it threatens the fundamental human need for acceptance, approval, and affirmation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Ostracized individuals tend to feel that they are not valued as partners when they are shunned, excluded, rejected, and abandoned in social relationships (MacDonald & Leary, 2005). When ostracism signals this relational devaluation, a wide array of negative affective states occur (Eisenberger & Lieberman, 2004; Eisenberger, Lieberman, & Williams, 2003; Leary, Koch, & Hechenbleikner, 2001).

According to the appraisal theory of emotions (e.g., Arnold, 1960, Frijda, 1986; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Lazarus, 1993), the appraisal of a stimulus may determine a person's emotional state. For example, a desirable stimulus may trigger positive emotion whereas an undesirable stimulus may induce negative emotion. Stimuli are prevalent in the interpersonal interactions in the workplace. When an individual appraises the stimulus generated by another person, specific emotions will be elicited when facing that person, which we usually refer to as interpersonal emotions.

We contend that in an interacting dyad, an individual's ostracism of the interacting partner is likely to trigger the latter to generate an array of negative emotions, such as anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety (Leary et al., 2001). Generally speaking, anger is a prevalent emotional state when people do not feel that they are respected and treated with decency. Sadness is an emotional response to social loss (e.g., Lazarus, 1991). Humiliation is a self-conscious emotion that can be easily activated when one's relationship worth is devalued (Gilbert, 1997; Saarni, 1999). Anxiety refers to feelings of nervousness and uneasiness, and is an anticipatory response to potential relational devaluation (Leary et al., 2001). Ostracism between any two persons, with one ignoring and excluding the other, violates the social pact of courtesy, which is likely to make the target feel mistreated by the perpetrator. Thus, when facing the perpetrator, the target's anger may be stimulated by the feeling that he or she is not respected. Being ostracized by an interacting partner is also likely to make the target feel that he or she has failed to socially engage with the perpetrator, which triggers a sense of social loss in the interpersonal relationship and of relational devaluation in the eyes of the interacting partner. Conceivably, such experiences can be expected to trigger sadness, humiliation, and anxiety in the target when interacting with the perpetrator. This leads to the following prediction.

Hypothesis 1a: A's ostracism of B is positively related to B's anger when interacting with A.

Hypothesis 1b: A's ostracism of B is positively related to B's sadness when interacting with A.

Hypothesis 1c: A's ostracism of B is positively related to B's humiliation when interacting with A.

Hypothesis 1d: A's ostracism of B is positively related to B's anxiety when interacting with A.

The role of prevalence information

Social evaluation theory (Pettigrew, 1967) suggests that whether an object, characteristic, or experience is considered to be desirable or undesirable, and the extent to which it is valued or devalued, is greatly dependent on the social context of the evaluator. Information related to the features of the immediate social context influences how individuals evaluate the severity of their condition (Crosby, 1982; Davis, 1966; Ditto & Jemmott, 1989; Johns, 2006). Negative events such as ostracism are likely to trigger individuals to use information to evaluate how severe the condition is, which then leads to an appropriate reaction. For employees in the workplace, the information that can be gleaned from colleagues and group members provides the salient frame of reference for them to evaluate the extent to which negative events are more or less negative, undesirable, and aversive (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Hackman, 1992). In response to negative events, an important source of information is so-called *prevalence information* (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989), which is also referred as *base-rate* (Kahneman & Tversky, 1973) or *consensus* (Kelley, 1967). Prevalence information refers to “information about the number or proportion of people in a relevant population who possess a particular characteristic or engage in a particular behavior” (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989, p. 16). As a case in point,

when a student is bullied at school, he or she will quickly try to gather information about whether other students are also bullied at the school. The information about whether and how many others experience similar events is prevalence information. When many other students are also bullied, this information indicates that the event is common, but when only this student or very few students are bullied, the information indicates that the bullying event is uncommon. Such prevalence information plays an important role in interpreting the meaning of events and their variation (Jones & Davis, 1965; Jones & McGillis, 1976; Kelley, 1967).

According to prevalence information theory, perceived scarcity (low prevalence) tends to lead to more extreme evaluative judgments that are more positive if the evaluative object is positive or desirable, but more negative if the evaluative object is negative or undesirable (Brannon & Brock, 2001; Ditto & Jemmott, 1989; Lynn, 1991). This rule of thumb is called evaluative extremity, which is gained from the experience that what is less common is usually more extreme (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989). For example, if many people perform well in a task, attributional logic states that the good performance may be attributed to low task difficulty. However, if few people perform well, then it is more likely to be attributed to the high ability of the good performers, rather than low task difficulty. As a consequence, when evaluating individuals' performance in a task, people tend to give a more positive evaluation to the few people who outperform the majority (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989). Thus, perceived scarcity information about positive events leads to more positive evaluations.

Likewise, perceived scarcity is likely to lead to more negative responses if the evaluative object is negative or undesirable (Brannon & Brock, 2001; Ditto & Jemmott, 1989). Taking school bullying again as an example, the aversive experience

of school bullying is likely to lead the victims to compare their situation with that of their peers to gather prevalence information. The victims are more likely to develop a negative evaluation of the bullying experience if they perceive that very few or no other children have similar experiences (perceived scarcity) than when these events are perceived to be common (i.e., many others have a similar experience of bullying; Nishina & Juvonen, 2005).

We thus contend that when employees are ostracized by one member of a group, it can induce two types of cognitive evaluation of the situation. First, the victim may consider whether the perpetrator is the only member to socially exclude him or her. Second, the victim may try to understand whether the perpetrator also ostracizes other members of the team. Specifically, in terms of the first evaluation, if the victim is distinctively ostracized by the perpetrator but not by the others, then he or she is likely to consider it a rare event. According to prevalence information theory, the target tends to perceive being ostracized by the perpetrator as being more negative when there are no or very few others displaying the same behavior toward him or her. If many others also ostracize the target, then he or she will probably still view the perpetrator's ostracism in a negative way, but less likely to view this particular perpetrator's ostracism in a more negative way, as he or she is no different from other perpetrators. It is the others who do not ostracize the target that make the perpetrator's ostracism stand out. Thus, the target tends to experience more negative emotions when facing the perpetrator. In other words, the uniqueness of the ostracism of a perpetrator stands out when the victim receives a low level of ostracism from the whole team. This salient distinction makes the victim recognize the uncommon treatment of the perpetrator, which is likely to make him or her perceive being

ostracized as being more negative, which in turn elicits more negative emotions when interacting with the perpetrator.

Second, if the victim is the unique target of ostracism from the perpetrator, but relatively few or no other members are ostracized by the perpetrator, then the victim will be likely to perceive being ostracized by the perpetrator as a rare event. It may even trigger the victim's sense of unfairness resulted from being singled out as the only target by the particular perpetrator (Duffy et al., 2006). According to prevalence information theory, such scarcity information is likely to make the victim perceive being ostracized by the perpetrator as more negative and undesirable, which in turn will arouse more negative emotions when interacting with the perpetrator. Hence, we predict:

Hypothesis 2a: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused anger when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of ostracism received in the team.

Hypothesis 2b: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused sadness when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of ostracism received in the team.

Hypothesis 2c: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused humiliation when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of ostracism received in the team.

Hypothesis 2d: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused anxiety when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of ostracism received in the team.

Hypothesis 3a: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused anger when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of A's ostracism of other team members.

Hypothesis 3b: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused sadness when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of A's ostracism of other team members.

Hypothesis 3c: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused humiliation when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of A's ostracism of other team members.

Hypothesis 3d: The positive relationship between A's ostracism of B and B's aroused anxiety when interacting with A is stronger when B perceives a low level rather than a high level of A's ostracism of other team members.

Method

Sample and Procedure

We conducted the study at the call center of a state-owned telecommunications company in China. The call center was a provincial facility responsible for all mobile, fixed line, and 3G services. Before we collected the data, the researchers went to the site to observe the work environment and conducted several interviews with employees, supervisors, and the general manager. Employees in the call center need to cooperate with each other, learn together, share knowledge and experiences, and help each other during work shifts. For example, every day they have two routine meetings before and after every shift. During the meetings, they summarize and share guidelines to speed up the answering of each inquiry, delegate unresolved issues or pending tasks to other group members, and highlight the problems that they have encountered on their shift. Team members then discuss the problems and give suggestions. To keep abreast of new service products, employees need to frequently update their knowledge and skills to handle emerging business, and thus attend at least one workshop every week that involves all of the employees in the call center. During the workshops, they interact with colleagues through activities such as discussions and scenario simulation. To deal with potential burnout due to the heavy

workload, the call center organizes activities such as singing contests, short tours, and shows. The employees in the call center thus regularly interact with each other, providing potential for ostracism between team members.

We used a round robin design to collect the data on ostracism and emotions (Warner, Kenny, & Stoto, 1979). For example, in a team with four members, member A rated the extent to which members B, C, and D ostracized him or her, respectively, and the frequency of his or her aroused emotions when interacting with B, C, and D, respectively. Then member B rated members A, C, and D, and so on. We used this approach to obtain scores for ostracism and emotions in such a way that specific perpetrators and targets could be matched in the data analysis. To avoid reverse causality, we collected data in two waves. At Time 1, we collected data on the independent variables, moderator variables, and control variables, and at Time 2, four weeks later, we collected data on the dependent variables (i.e., emotions).

We distributed paper-and-pencil surveys to 235 employees across 24 teams. The respondents returned the completed surveys directly to the researchers and were assured that their responses would be treated confidentially. The final sample consisted of 227 employees across 24 teams in the two time waves. The effective response rate was 97%. The mean age of the respondents was 24.64 years. Eighty-five percent of the respondents were female and 15% were male. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents had received a college education or above. The mean organizational tenure of the respondents was 2.16 years.

Measures

All of the measures used in the study were originally developed in English and were subsequently translated into Chinese using a double-blind back-translation procedure (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973).

Ostracism. On average, each respondent was required to rate nine team members based on the round-robin approach. To avoid rating fatigue, we measured ostracism with 5 out of the 10 items (Ferris et al., 2008) from the same scale that we used in Study 1 (Chapter 2). We modified the items from a target perspective. The respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they experienced ostracism from their teammates using a seven-point response scale (1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, 5 = often, 6 = constantly, 7 = always). Sample items include: “[X] ignored me at work” and “At work [X] treated me as if I wasn’t there.” The respective items were subsequently repeated for all members of the team. The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was .71.

The intensity of B’s received ostracism in the team (intensity). To capture the intensity of ostracism a member received in the team, we averaged the scores of ostracism this member received from all the team members.

The degree of A’s ostracism targeted to other teammates (degree). After respondents reported each team member’s ostracism behavior towards them, they were further asked to indicate the extent to which this team member ostracized other teammates (1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, 5 = often, 6 = constantly, 7 = always).

Negative emotions. Anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety were measured with different scales. Again, to prevent the respondents from experiencing rating fatigue, we selected three items for each emotion from the scales. The respondents were asked to indicate how often they had experienced each negative emotion when they interacted with each specific teammate during the previous month. Anger, sadness, and anxiety were adapted from Nowlis’ (1965) 12-item Mood Scale. We selected three items each to measure anger (e.g., “angry”), sadness (e.g., “blue”), and anxiety

(e.g., “tense”). Humiliation was assessed using a five-point scale (e.g., “embarrassed,” Nishina & Juvonen, 2005). The Cronbach’s alpha for anger, sadness, anxiety, and humiliation were .90, .90, .82, and .85, respectively (1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always).

Control variables. We controlled gender, age, education, organizational tenure, and dyadic tenure, as these variables may influence individuals’ emotions (Ashkanasy, 2003; Pugh, 2001). We also controlled core self-evaluations, as this trait may influence how employees regulate their emotions in the workplace (Judge & Bono, 2001). We also controlled whether ostracism existed at the time we distributed the surveys (0 = yes, 1 = no).

Statistical Analyses

We conducted a multilevel analysis using a hierarchical linear modeling macro of the social relations model (SRM; Snijders & Kenny, 1999; Kenny, 1994) because of the complex nested structure of the data, with individuals nested not only within teams but also within relationships (i.e., dyads). SRM analysis differentiates among various levels of analysis: the individual (i.e., the actor and the partner), dyadic, and team levels. Past research has applied SRM analysis to examine dyadic relationships within work teams (de Jong, Van der Vegt, & Molleman, E. 2007; Lam, Van der Vegt, Walter, & Huang, 2011; Van der Vegt, Bunderson, & Oosterhof, 2006).

SRM analysis makes a distinction between random and fixed effects. In this study, the estimates of random effects indicate the percentage of total variance in an actor’s negative emotions that are attributable to the characteristics of the actor, the target, the dyadic relationship, and the team. The fixed effects reflect the strength of influence of the predictor variables on the outcome variables.

We used the MLwiN computer package (Goldstein et al., 1998) to analyze the data. First, we calculated a null-model as the reference for subsequent analyses, which contained no predictor variables but was used to partition the variance in individuals' emotions into actor, target, dyadic, and team variance (see Table 3.2). In subsequent models, the predictor variables were added to the SRM. In Model 1, we added the control variables and the main effects, and in Model 2 we added the two-way interactions. We tested for a decrease in log-likelihood between each of the models with a chi-square difference test, which allowed us to evaluate the statistical significance of any model fit improvements (de Jong et al., 2007; Lam et al., 2011). We centered the independent variables at their grand means before the analysis to minimize the likelihood of multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991)

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the discriminant validity of anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety using AMOS 16.0. The results suggested that the hypothesized four-factor model (CFI = .98, IFI = .98, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .06) yielded a better model fit than the single-factor model (CFI = .83, IFI = .83, TLI = .79, RMSEA = .17), with a change in chi-square of 2674.4 ($\Delta df = 6, p < .001$).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.1 presents the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for the variables. As can be seen, ostracism at Time 1 was positively related to anger ($r = .13, p < .01$), sadness ($r = .14, p < .01$), humiliation ($r = .15, p < .01$), and anxiety ($r = .09, p < .01$) at Time 2.

Table 3.1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Variables

Variables	Means	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Gender	.85	.36	--												
2 Age	24.64	3.15	.10**	--											
3 Education	2.93	.62	.06*	.28**	--										
4 Organizational tenure	2.16	2.28	.09**	.49**	.14*	--									
5 Dyad tenure	.99	.88	.00	.17**	.03	.44**	--								
6 CSE	3.45	.56	.01	-.00	.01	-.03	-.02	--							
7 Ostracism	1.77	.91	-.04	-.01	.01	.01	-.00	-.17**	--						
8 Intensity	1.77	.63	-.06**	-.02	.01	.01	.04	-.24**	.69**	--					
9 Degree	2.13	1.60	-.07**	-.07**	.07**	-.09**	-.06*	-.12**	.45**	.40**	--				
10 Anger	1.32	.63	-.02	-.05*	-.03	-.07**	.01	-.11**	.13**	.13**	.04	--			
11 Sadness	1.21	.51	-.08**	-.06*	-.07**	-.10**	-.02	-.15**	.14**	.14**	.04	.71**	--		
12 Humiliation	1.16	.44	-.11**	-.05*	-.04	-.06**	.01	-.17**	.15**	.15**	.04	.52**	.68**	--	
13 Anxiety	1.25	.51	-.08**	-.05*	-.03	-.09**	-.04	-.14**	.09**	.14**	.04	.61**	.75**	.69**	--

Note: $N = 227$ individuals in 1862 dyads within 24 teams.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Variance Partitioning

Table 3.2 presents the partitioning of the variance in interpersonal emotions for the actor, target, dyadic, and group levels of analysis. As shown, there were no significant variations found among the teams in terms of anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety, which is not unusual in social relations modeling (e.g., Kenny, 1994; Kenny, Mannetti, Pierro, Livi, & Kashy, 2002, pp. 127-128). For anger, 63.6% of the total variance was attributable to actor effects, 3.4% of the variance was attributable to target effects, and 32.9% of the variance was attributable to dyadic effects. For sadness, 67.1% of the total variance was attributable to the characteristics of the actor, 31.3% of the variance was attributable to unique dyadic characteristics, and there was no significant difference among target characteristics. For humiliation, 59.7% of the total variance was attributable to actor effects, 1.4% of the variance was attributable to target effects, and 37.9% of the variance was attributable to dyadic effects. Finally, for anxiety, 59.0% of the total variance was partitioned at actor level, 1.4% of the variance was partitioned at target level, and 38.6% of the variance was partitioned at dyadic level. These results suggest that a substantial portion of the variance in interpersonal emotions resides in the dyadic relationship between actor and target.

Table 3.2: Variance Partitioning for A's Negative Emotions toward B

Source of variance	Anger		Sadness		Humiliation		Anxiety	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Group variance	.001 (0.1%)	.026	.011 (1.1%)	.026	.010 (0.1%)	.025	.010 (0.1%)	.025
Actor (A) variance	.637 (63.6%)	.069	.677 (67.1%)	.073	.596 (59.7%)	.065	.592 (59.0%)	.065
Target (B) variance	.034 (3.4%)	.008	.005 (0.5%)	.005	.014 (1.4%)	.006	.014 (1.4%)	.006
Dyadic variance	.330 (32.9%)	.012	.316 (31.3%)	.012	.378 (37.9%)	.014	.387 (38.6%)	.014

Note: N =227 individuals in1862 dyads within 24 teams.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypotheses 1a to 1d predict positive relationships between B's ostracism of A and A's aroused anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety when interacting with B. As can be seen in Model 2 of Tables 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6, respectively, ostracism was positively related to anger ($\beta = .08, p < .001$), sadness ($\beta = .10, p < .001$), and humiliation ($\beta = .09, p < .001$), but was not significantly related to anxiety. Thus, Hypotheses 1a to 1c were supported, but Hypothesis 1d was not supported.

Table 3.3: Social Relations Model Analyses for A's Anger toward B

Step and variables	Time 2 Anger											
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Control variables												
A's Gender	-.04	.16	-.04	.16	-.04	.16	-.04	.16	-.04	.16	-.04	.16
A's Age	-.00	.02	-.00	.02	-.00	.02	-.00	.02	-.01	.02	-.00	.02
A's education	-.03	.10	-.03	.10	-.03	.10	-.04	.10	-.04	.10	-.04	.10
A's tenure	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03
A's CSE	-.23*	.10	-.21*	.10	-.18 [†]	.10	-.20*	.10	-.18 [†]	.10	-.20*	.10
B's Gender	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.03	.04	.04	.04	.03	.04
B's Age	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01
B's education	-.03	.03	-.03	.03	-.03	.03	-.02	.03	-.03	.03	-.02	.03
B's tenure	-.00	.01	-.00	.01	-.00	.01	-.00	.01	-.00	.01	-.00	.01
Dyadic tenure existence	.04*	.02	.04*	.02	.04*	.02	.04*	.02	.05*	.02	.05*	.02
	.05	.12	.07	.12	.10	.12	.09	.12	.11	.12	.10	.12
Independent variable												
B's ostracism to A (OST)			.08***	.02	.08***	.02	.06**	.02	.12***	.03	.08***	.02
Moderators												
Intensity					.07	.06			.07	.06		
Degree							.06*	.03			.07**	.03
Two-way interaction												
OST X Intensity									-.06**	.02		
OST X Degree											-.04*	.02
$\Delta\chi^2$ (df)	14.88 (11)		17.92*** (1)		1.3 (1)		5.54* (1)		8.33** (1)		4.35* (1)	

Note: N =227 individuals in 1862 dyads within 24 teams.

Table 3.4: Social Relations Model Analyses for A's Sadness toward B

Step and variables	Time 2 Sadness											
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Control variables												
A's Gender	-.23	.16	-.22	.16	-.22	.16	-.21	.16	-.21	.16	-.21	.16
A's Age	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	-.00	.02	.00	.02
A's education	-.09	.10	-.09	.10	-.09	.10	-.10	.10	-.10	.10	-.10	.10
A's tenure	-.05	.03	-.05 [†]	.03	-.05	.03	-.05	.03	-.05	.03	-.05	.03
A's CSE	-.26*	.10	-.24*	.10	.01	.04	-.23*	.10	-.21*	.11	-.23*	.10
B's Gender	.02	.04	.01	.04	.01	.01	.01	.04	.01	.04	.01	.04
B's Age	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01
B's education	-.06*	.02	-.06*	.02	-.06*	.02	-.05*	.02	-.06*	.02	-.05*	.02
B's tenure	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01
Dyadic tenure existence	.03	.02	.03 [†]	.02	.03 [†]	.02	.03 [†]	.02	.04*	.02	.04 [†]	.02
	.03	.12	.05	.12	.08	.12	.07	.12	.10	.12	.08	.12
Independent variable												
B's ostracism to A (OST)			.10***	.02	.09***	.02	.07***	.02	.16***	.02	.09***	.02
Moderators												
Intensity					.06	.06			.07	.06		
Degree							.06*	.03			.07*	.03
Two-way interaction												
OST X Intensity									-.09***	.02		
OST X Degree											-.03*	.01
$\Delta\chi^2$ (df)	21.80* (11)		27.32*** (1)		1.05 (1)		6.39*		20.95*** (1)		3.94* (1)	

Note: N =227 individuals in 1862 dyads within 24 teams.

Table 3.5: Social Relations Model Analyses for A's Humiliation toward B

Step and variables	Time 2 Humiliation											
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Control variables												
A's Gender	-.22	.16	-.29 [†]	.15	-.28 [†]	.15	-.28 [†]	.15	-.28 [†]	.15	-.28 [†]	.15
A's Age	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02
A's education	-.06	.09	-.06	.09	-.06	.09	-.07	.09	-.06	.09	-.06	.09
A's tenure	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.03	.03	-.03	.03	-.03	.03	-.03	.03
A's CSE	-.30**	.10	-.28**	.10	-.26**	.10	-.28**	.10	-.26**	.10	-.27**	.10
B's Gender	.01	.04	.01	.04	.01	.04	.01	.04	.01	.04	.00	.04
B's Age	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01
B's education	.02	.03	.02	.03	.02	.03	.02	.03	.02	.03	.02	.03
B's tenure	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01
Dyadic tenure existence	.06**	.02	.06**	.02	.06**	.02	.06**	.02	.06**	.02	.07**	.02
	-.04	.11	-.01	.11	.01	.11	-.00	.11	.02	.11	.02	.11
Independent variable												
B's ostracism to A (OST)			.09***	.02	.08***	.02	.07**	.02	.11***	.03	.11***	.02
Moderators												
Intensity					.07	.06			.07	.06		
Degree							.05 [†]	.03			.06*	.03
Two-way interaction												
OST X Intensity									-.04*	.02		
OST X Degree											-.06***	.02
$\Delta\chi^2$ (df)	24.76** (11)		18.98*** (1)		1.36 (1)		2.92 [†] (1)		3.86* (1)		11.28*** (1)	

Note: N =227 individuals in 1862 dyads within 24 teams.

Table 3.6: Social Relations Model Analyses for A's Anxiety toward B

Step and variables	Time 2 Anxiety											
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Control variables												
A's Gender	-.24	.15	-.24	.15	-.23	.15	-.23	.15	-.23	.15	-.23	.15
A's Age	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02	.00	.02
A's education	-.03	.09	-.03	.09	-.04	.09	-.04	.09	-.04	.09	-.04	.09
A's tenure	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03	-.04	.03
A's CSE	-.26**	.10	-.26**	.10	-.21*	.10	-.25*	.10	-.21*	.10	-.25*	.10
B's Gender	-.01	.04	-.01	.04	-.01	.04	-.01	.04	-.01	.04	-.01	.04
B's Age	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01
B's education	.04	.03	.04	.03	.04	.03	.04	.03	.03	.03	.04	.03
B's tenure	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01
Dyadic tenure existence	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
	-.07	.11	-.07	.11	-.01	.12	-.05	.11	.01	.12	-.04	.11
Independent variable												
B's ostracism to A (OST)			-.00	.02	-.02	.02	-.02	.02	.06*	.03	-.01	.03
Moderators												
Intensity					.13*	.06			.14*	.06		
Degree							.06*	.03			.06*	.03
Two-way interaction												
OST X Intensity									-.09***	.02		
OST X Degree											-.02	.02
$\Delta\chi^2$ (df)	16.10 (11)		.02 (1)		5.36* (1)		4.46* (1)		41.37*** (1)		.92 (1)	

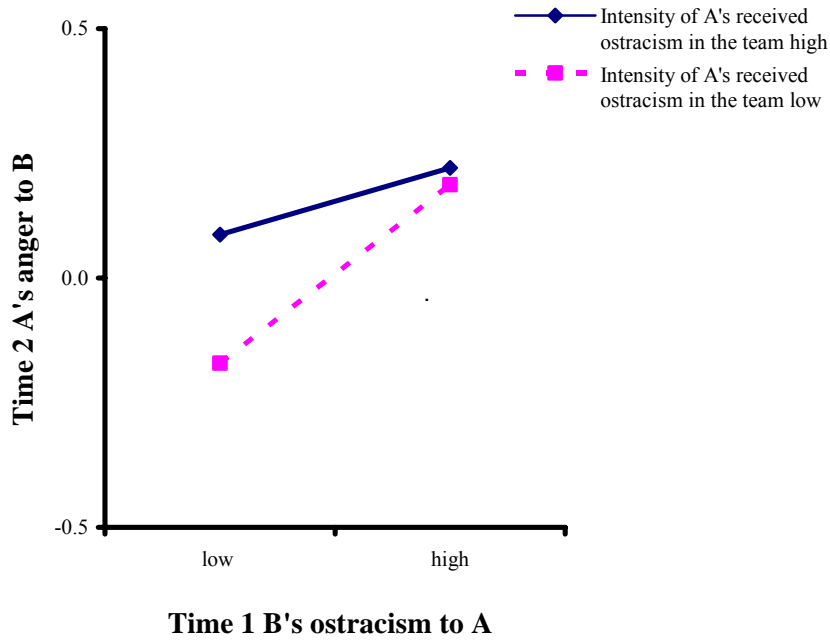
Note: N =227 individuals in 1862 dyads within 24 teams.

Hypotheses 2a to 2d predict that the intensity of A's received ostracism in the team moderates the relationship between B's ostracism to A and A's emotions toward B in such a way that the positive relationship will be strengthened when the intensity is low rather than high. After we added the main effect of the moderators in Model 3, the coefficients of the two-way interaction between B's ostracism of A and the intensity of B's ostracism to all teammates were significant for anger ($\beta = -.06, p < .01$), sadness ($\beta = -.09, p < .001$), humiliation ($\beta = -.04, p < .05$), and anxiety ($\beta = -.09, p < .001$) at Time 2 (see Model 5 of Tables 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6). Figures 3.1A, 3.1B, 3.1C, and 3.1D plot these interactive effects (Aiken & West, 1991). As expected, B's ostracism of A was more positively related to A's negative emotions toward B when the intensity of B's ostracism of other team members was low. Simple slope tests further showed that when the intensity was low, B's ostracism of A was more strongly related to A's anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety toward B (simple slope test: $\beta = .18, p < .001$; $\beta = .24, p < .001$; $\beta = .15, p < .001$; $\beta = .15, p < .001$, respectively) than when the intensity was high (simple slope tests: $\beta = .07, p < .001$; $\beta = .08, p < .001$; $\beta = .08, p < .001$; $\beta = -.03, ns.$, respectively). Thus, Hypotheses 2a to 2d were supported.

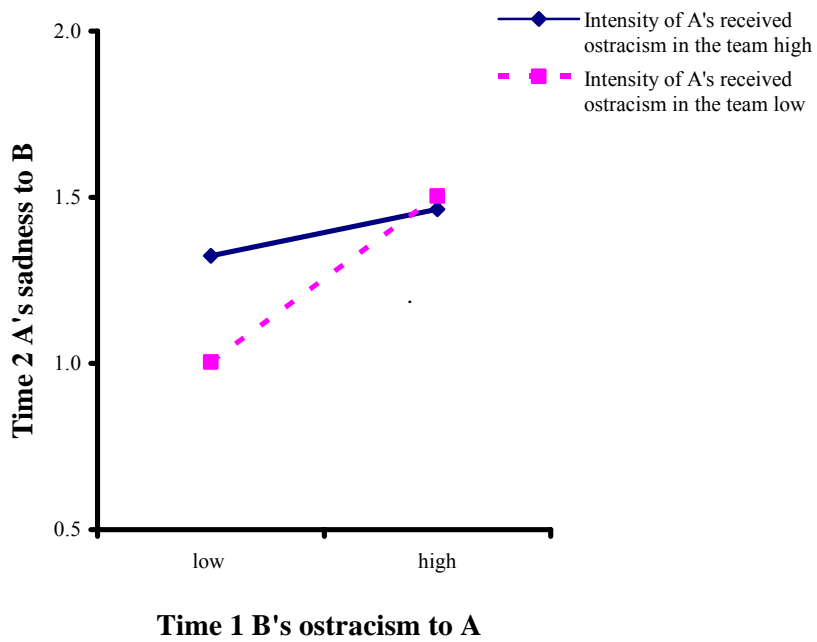
Hypotheses 3a to 3d predict that the degree of B's ostracism targeted to other team members moderates the relationship between B's ostracism of A and A's emotions to B, such that positive relationships will be strengthened when the degree of ostracism is low rather than high. As can be seen in Model 6 of Tables 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6, the coefficients of the two-way interactions were significant for anger ($\beta = -.04, p < .05$), sadness ($\beta = -.03, p < .05$), and humiliation ($\beta = -.06, p < .001$) at Time 2, but not for anxiety at Time 2. Figures 3.2A, 3.2B, and 3.2C represent the interactive effects, and show that B's ostracism of A was more positively related to A's negative

emotions toward B when the degree of B's ostracism of all other team members was low. Simple slope tests further showed that when the degree of ostracism was low, B's ostracism of A was more strongly related to A's anger, sadness, and humiliation toward B (simple slope test: $\beta = .12, p < .001$; $\beta = .12, p < .001$; $\beta = .16, p < .001$, respectively) than when the degree was high (simple slope tests: $\beta = .05, p < .05$; $\beta = .07, p < .01$; $\beta = .05, p < .05$; respectively). Thus, Hypotheses 3a to 3c were supported, but Hypothesis 3d was not supported.

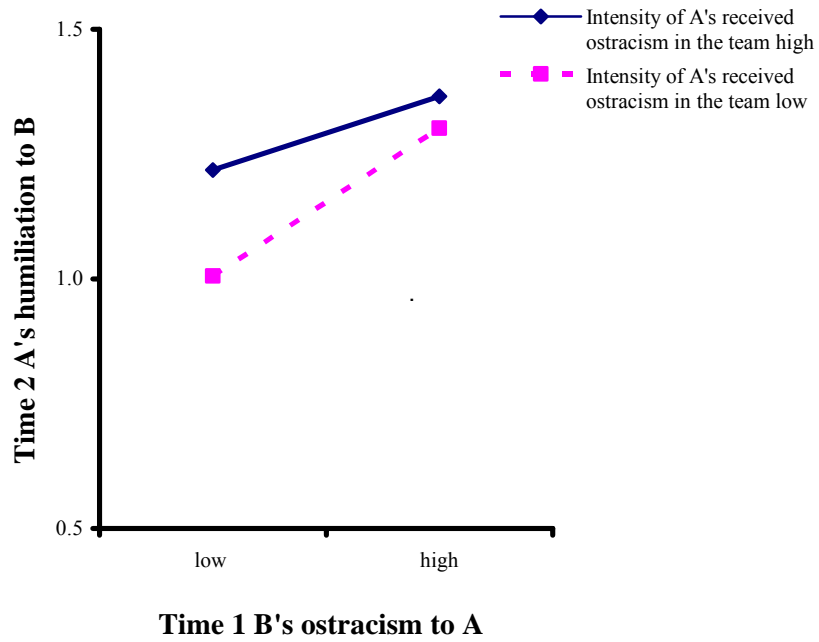
Figure 3.1: The two-way interaction of B's ostracism to A and the intensity of A's received ostracism in the team on A's negative emotions to B
A:



B:



C:



D:

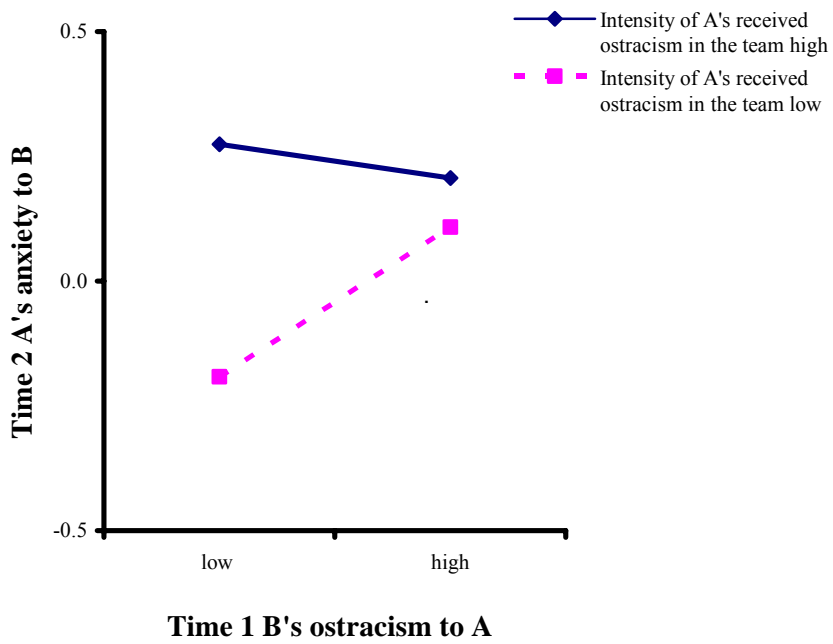
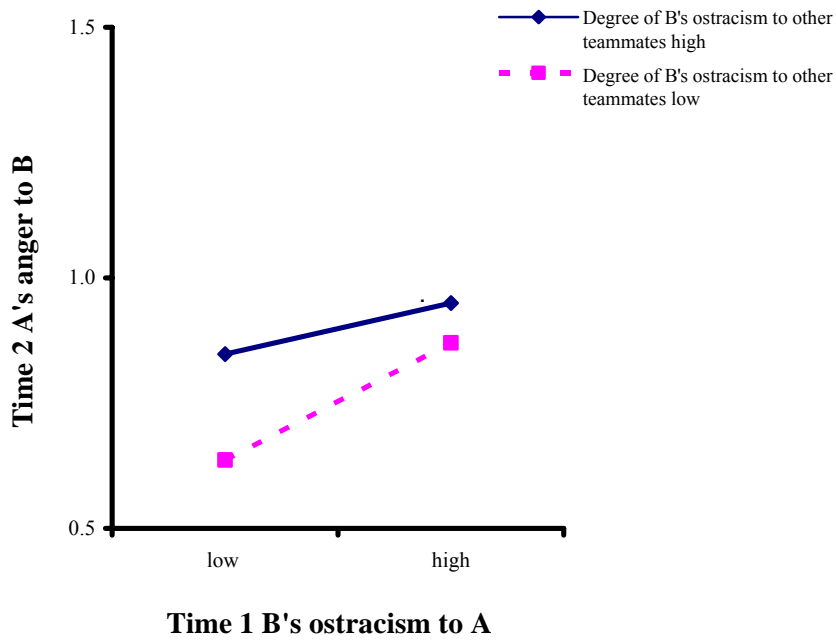
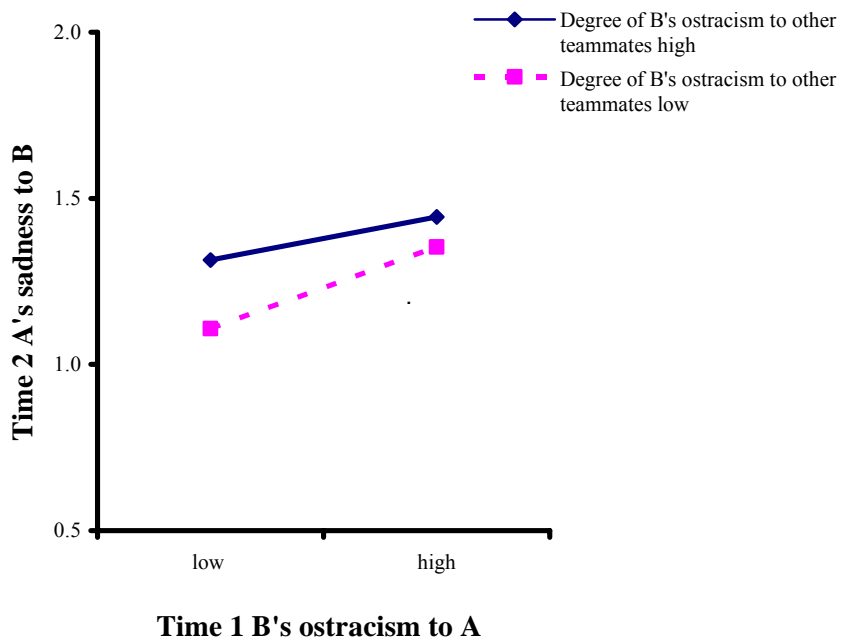


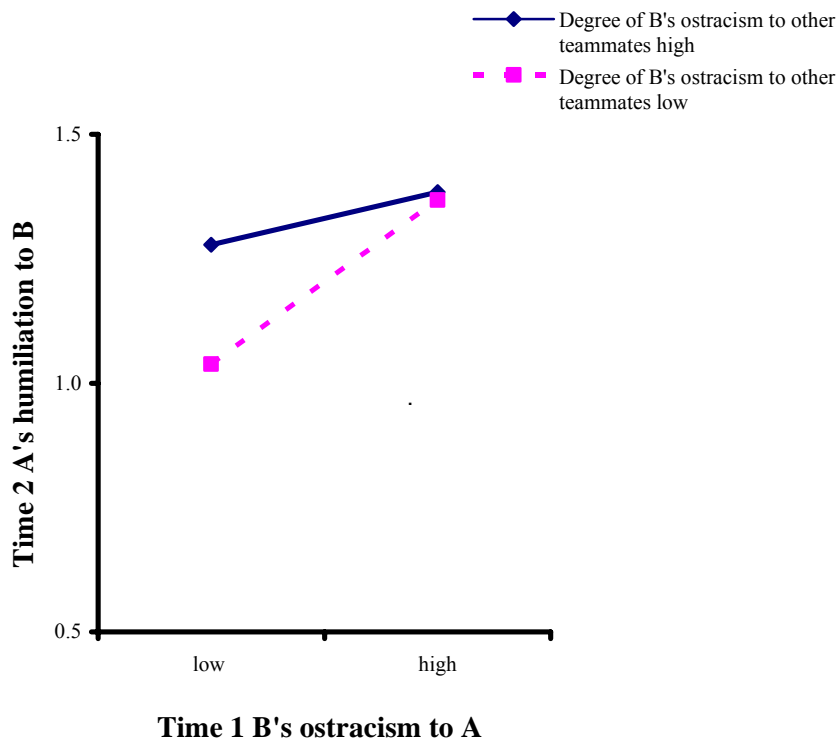
Figure 3.2: The two-way interaction of B's ostracism to A and the degree of B's ostracism targeted to all the other teammates on A's negative emotions to B



B:



C:



Discussion

There is ample evidence to suggest that ostracism makes people feel pain and distress (see Williams, 2007 for a review). This study makes a unique contribution to this line of research by examining the relationship between ostracism and employees' emotional reactions at the dyadic level, and by identifying the factors that may intensify their emotional responses. The results of the SRM analyses showed that the ostracism of team members toward another elicited negative emotions (i.e., anger, sadness, humiliation) when the targets faced the perpetrators. We further found that when the target member perceived the received ostracism from the perpetrator as “special treatment” because few or no others treated him or her in this way, or

because the perpetrator rarely treated others in this way, such uniqueness exacerbated the aroused negative emotional reactions when facing the perpetrator.

Another interesting finding worthy of attention is that we consistently found that when the intensity of ostracism was high, meaning that the target (Person A) received a great deal of ostracism from all team members, the level of elicited negative emotions when facing the focal perpetrator (Person B) was higher than in the opposite condition, especially when the level of Person B's ostracism of Person A was low. Put differently, when Person A received a great deal of ostracism from almost all of the other members in the team, it mattered less whether Person B ostracized Person A or not. The results seem to suggest that under such condition, Person A also felt negatively toward Person B, even if Person B rarely ostracized Person A. This finding interestingly suggests that there seems to be a "displaced aggression" effect when the majority of the people around an individual treat him or her in a negative way (Denson, Pederson, & Miller, 2006; Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, & Miller, 2000; Miller, Pedersen, Earleywine, & Pollock, 2003; Porath & Erez, 2007; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985). Seemingly, individuals barely differentiate those who impose pain from those who do not. Thus, even those who treat an ostracized team member nicely may suffer collateral damage from the individual's negative emotions.

Theoretical Implications

This study has several theoretical implications. First, the results of the SRM analyses reveal that a substantial proportion of the variance in team members' negative emotions caused by ostracism lies at the dyadic level, that is, people's emotional reactions toward ostracism are target-oriented. This finding suggests a new direction for the ostracism literature. Although research on workplace ostracism is still in its infancy, the existing studies mainly focus on analyses at the individual level.

In light of the nature of ostracism as a dyadic phenomenon, this approach may not be sufficient to accurately capture the variance in ostracism that is likely to emerge in interpersonal relationships in the workplace. It would be fruitful to go beyond the traditional focus on individual-level analysis (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007; Williams et al., 2000) to include an interpersonal level of analysis. It is also noteworthy that previous research seems to suggest that both individual and situational factors appear to have little influence on the pain that ostracism initially creates (Eisenberger et al., 2003; Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007; Leary, Haupt, Strausser, & Chokel, 1998; Williams & Sommer, 1997). Our results suggest that it may be useful to identify and examine relational factors that may significantly influence how employees feel about ostracism by a particular member. Future research should pay greater attention to the interpersonal level (the dyadic level) of the ostracism-emotion relationship.

Second, our results provide interesting and novel insights into the factors that moderate the pain that ostracism initially brings, which the existing literature has not provided any answers (Williams, 2007). We drew on prevalence information theory (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989) to show how the perceived scarcity of ostracism influences the emotional experiences of ostracized team members. We found that convenient information in relation to whether being ostracized by a particular team member is a rare event significantly influences the intensity of the target's emotional reactions. To be specific, information comparing other potential perpetrators with the focal perpetrator, and comparing other potential targets with the self, may be useful for ostracized members to further evaluate, appraise, and consequently react to their plight. Our findings in part answer the recent call for more research on how ostracism

affects individual emotions, and especially the factors that exacerbate or alleviate the pain caused (Williams, 2007).

Third, we theorized and tested two conditions that would make ostracized individuals feel “singled out,” either through the evaluation of potential actors or of potential targets. In the literature on bullying and social undermining, the idea that being singled out as the sole target intensifies individuals’ negative reactions is not completely new (Duffy et al., 2006; Nishina & Juvonen, 2005). We extended this existing knowledge in two ways. First, the first condition, the perceived uniqueness of one’s ostracism from a focal perpetrator compared with other potential perpetrators, is rather new in the literature. Our study is the first to examine whether being distinctively ostracized by one perpetrator among a group of potential perpetrators would make the focal target feel especially negative when interacting with the focal actor. Second, we analyzed this effect at the relational level, rather than the individual level. As the “single-out” effect may be more target-oriented, we have depicted a more accurate and complicated picture.

Limitations

The results and implications of this study should be interpreted with awareness of several limitations. The first possible limitation is the use of self-report measures, because this may introduce common source bias. However, such concern is somewhat reduced by the study procedure of measuring interpersonal ostracism at Time 1 and assessing emotions at Time 2. Taking measurements on two independent occasions makes the study less subject to responses biases (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Moreover, the significant two-way interactions are not easily attributed to common method bias. Nevertheless, we encourage future research to confirm the validity of our findings by using data from different sources.

The second possible limitation is that we used retrospective self-reports to assess employees' emotional reactions to ostracism. Although self-reports of emotions are the most common and potentially the best way to measure emotional experiences (Clore, 1994; Diener, 2000), there is also debate about whether retrospective data are appropriate in some cases (e.g., Golder, 1992; Robinson & Clore, 2002). We believe that the technique is appropriate for this study. First, one of the chief concerns regarding retrospective reports is whether individuals can accurately recall an event and their reactions to it. The ostracism literature shows that the level of experienced pain caused by a socially painful event such as ostracism is even higher than that caused by a physically painful event (Williams & Fitness, 2004). The pain levels caused by ostracism are also comparable to the pain levels observed in meta-analyses (Wilkie, Saverdra, Holzemer, Tesler, & Paul, 1990) of chronic back pain and childbirth using the McGill pain inventory. This evidence gives us confidence that the respondents were able to accurately recall the event, as ostracism is not only a salient event but also involves tremendous emotional reactions (e.g., Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Fabiani & Donchin, 1995; Kihlstrom, Eich, Sandbrand, & Bobias, 2000). Second, we controlled for several variables in our analyses to reduce the potential impact of recall bias on our results. We controlled for demographic variables such as gender and age that may influence the accuracy of emotional recall (Widiger & Settle, 1987; Robinson & Clore, 2002a), and also controlled whether an employee was still ostracized by a particular perpetrator to reduce the recall bias from recency and accessibility effects (Robinson & Clore, 2002b)

Third, although our hypotheses were developed from a strong theoretical background and the temporally lagged research design allows for more robust conclusions, we cannot draw a firm conclusion on causality. Relationships found in

field studies are susceptible to any unmeasured third variables that may account for the findings. We acknowledge the need to validate our findings with further evidence gleaned from experimental research or panel data.

Finally, our sample was fairly homogeneous in terms of background, as the respondents were all from the same call center. This homogeneity may raise concerns about the generalizability of our findings to other industries and settings, although the homogeneity of our sample may help to rule out alternative explanations, such as team and organizational climate (e.g., Parker Balters, Young, Huff, Altmann, & Lacost, 2003). Statements about generalizability must await the results of investigations in different teams, industries, and cultures.

Future Research Directions

Given the paucity of empirical research into ostracism in the workplace, there are several interesting and promising avenues for future research. First, our findings suggest that prevalence information regarding an individual's negative treatment markedly influences their emotional reactions. Ostracism is likely to be perceived to be more severe when it is perceived to be a rare event, because the rule of scarcity-extremity makes people perceive negative events to be more negative and undesirable. Future research could extend our findings to understand the role of prevalence information in a variety of psychological, attitudinal, and behavioral responses to ostracism, such as whether this scarcity principle can be also applied to explain ostracized employees' job satisfaction, turnover intention, and different behavioral reactions.

Second, although in this study we applied the scarcity-extremity rule to explain ostracized employees' intensified negative emotional reactions of the target when facing the perpetrator of the ostracism, we still know little about why such

prevalence information substantially affects the target's emotional responses.

Exploring the underlying mechanisms would certainly enrich the understanding of the scarcity rule, and could even add knowledge to broader research domains such as the frog-pond effect, frame of reference, and context theories (Bamberger, 2008; Johns, 2006).

Third, emotions have been argued to be important informational cues in maintaining interpersonal relationships (Elfenbein, 2007; Van Kleef & de Dreu, in press). It is true that sometimes ostracism occurs without intention (Williams, 1997; 2001). For example, people may feel ostracized by colleagues when those colleagues are merely engrossed in their work. Under such circumstances, expressed emotions may help the partner to realize that something is wrong, and may help the partner to identify the problems and regulate their behavior to maintain congenial interpersonal relationships. However, another possibility is that the expressed negative emotions may pull the two actors apart, further damaging their relationship. A fruitful future avenue would be to conduct longitudinal studies to examine the factors that influence the evolving process of the ostracism-emotion-interpersonal relationship.

Our investigation of the consequences of ostracism stops at employee emotional reactions. However, it would also be useful for future researchers to investigate the role that emotions play in ostracism-behavior relationships. Emotions are known to trigger different behavioral reactions. For example, anger can lead to retaliation (Lazarus, 2006). We suggest that future research could examine whether emotions have a mediating effect on the relationships between ostracism and various behavioral reactions.

Practical Implications

Our findings also offer some implications for practice. Workplace ostracism is a painful experience. Negative emotions are inevitably evoked when employees are intentionally or unintentionally ignored or excluded. First, negative emotions may not be healthy for team member relationships or the team climate such as cohesion (Kemper, 1984; Lazarus, 1991). Given the pervasiveness of this workplace phenomenon and its destructive impact on employees' psychological health (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Williams, 2007), the circumvention of workplace ostracism and the encouragement of more social interaction in the workplace to consolidate employees' sense of belonging should be on managers' agenda.

Second, managers should manage ostracism in teams at two levels. At the interpersonal level, team leaders should pay attention to the interactions among team members. Especially, the interpersonal relationship between two members may deteriorate over time if one continuously singles out and ostracizes the other if the ostracism constantly comes from only this source. Our findings suggest that when an individual is singled out by a particular perpetrator as the sole target of ostracism, or the ostracism treatment comes only from a particular perpetrator and not from other team members, the negative emotions toward the perpetrator are intensified. Thus, it may be deleterious to the ongoing relationship between the two members if one holds an increasing grudge against the other. At the team level, managers should encourage cooperation, develop better colleague relationships within the team, and ensure that team members do not collectively ostracize one or a few members. The "displaced aggression" effect shows that victims tend to displace the negative emotions triggered by ostracism onto those who are not actually the perpetrators. It stands to reason that

such displaced negative emotions are likely to worsen the individual's relationships with team members who do not engage in social exclusion.

Conclusion

How does an ostracized team member feel when facing the perpetrator of the ostracism? This study provides evidence to suggest that a large proportion of the variance in negative emotions caused by ostracism is target-oriented. Ostracized employees tend to experience feelings such as anger, sadness, and humiliation when they interact with the perpetrator of the ostracism. We further identify two conditions under which a victim of ostracism may perceive being ostracized by a particular perpetrator to be a rare event, which then significantly strengthens their aroused negative emotions when interacting with the perpetrator. Our study suggests that people's emotions are relative to the frame of reference upon which they rely to make appraisals of the situation. The comparative standing of one team member versus others may substantially influence employees' emotional experiences of ostracism.

CHAPTER 4

DOES OSTRACISM REIN IN EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIORS? THE ROLE OF TEAM IDENTIFICATION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OSTRACISM AND EMPLOYEE RESPONSES

Introduction

Ostracism, the act of ignoring and exclusion, threatens human beings' fundamental need of belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Williams, 1997). Driven by this need, ostracized individuals are likely to conform, obey, comply, inhibit their socially undesirable behavior, and present themselves in a favorable way (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Williams & Sommer, 1997). It is thus not uncommon for people to employ exclusion as a type of informal sanction to obtain compliance and elicit socially desirable behavior from others (Kipnis, 1984). Does ostracism rein in employees' workplace behaviors? The empirical evidence provides conflicting answers. Ostracized individuals are found to react to ostracism in a variety of ways (Williams, 2007). They may act in a prosocial way by being more helpful and cooperative (Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000; Williams & Sommer, 1997), or they may display aggression and mean-spirited behavior (Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007; Williams, 2001) or simply flee (Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000). It is not clear under which conditions ostracism inhibits socially undesirable behavior and the conditions under which it elicits socially desirable behavior.

The objective of this study is to tease out the conditions under which ostracism may function to inhibit socially undesirable behavior and promote desirable behavior. Specifically, we examine ostracism in the workplace and investigate the role of ostracism on the social loafing, organizational deviance (e.g., socially undesirable), and helping (e.g., socially desirable) behavior of employees. We argue that a necessary condition for ostracized employees to behave desirably to regain inclusionary status is that they value group membership. When inclusionary status really matters to ostracized individuals, they strive to earn it back, and may even be

willing to exhibit prosocial behavior toward the architects of the painful experiences of ostracism. We thus propose and examine the moderating role of team identification in regulating these relationships.

We aim to contribute to the literature in two ways. First, the ostracism phenomenon has only recently attracted the attention of organizational psychologists (Ferris et al., 2008; O'Reilly & Roberson, 2009; Wu, 2011). In the very few studies in this area, researchers have mainly focused on the destructive role of ostracism in diminishing employee job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (O'Reilly & Roberson, 2009; Wu, 2011). However, in laboratory studies, ostracism has been found to result in a variety of responses, including antisocial behavior, prosocial behavior, and even numbness (see Williams, 2007 for a review). The existing evidence, which is mainly based on laboratory studies, falls short in addressing two important issues: (1) whether employees exhibit these behavioral reactions in the real world; and (2) what makes ostracized employees choose to react to the aversive experience of ostracism in different ways. In this regard, we contribute to the literature by proposing a functional role for ostracism to deter socially undesirable behavior and promote desirable behavior. We propose and examine the moderating role of team identification as a boundary condition whereby ostracism leads to attempts to be re-included by the display of desirable behavior (Williams, 2007). Second, we examine behavioral responses beyond those previously examined, including important behavior such as social loafing and organizational deviance. These behavioral responses may better reflect whether ostracism rein in employees' behaviors in a desirable way, and have been shown to have profound impacts on group and organizational effectiveness (Griffin & Lopez, 2005; Liden, Wayne,

Jaworski, & Bennett, 2004). We contribute to the ostracism literature by widening the scope of employee behavioral responses as ostracism outcomes.

Theory and hypotheses

The “rein” role of ostracism

Ostracism is widely documented as ubiquitous and powerful (Gruter & Masters, 1986; Williams, 1997, 2007). It has been observed not only in human groups but also in most social species and across time and cultures (Gruter & Masters, 1986). It is argued from an evolutionary perspective that ostracism has its function and existence in maintaining order, punishing deviance, and increasing social cohesion (Basso, 1972; Gruter & Masters, 1986; Williams, 2007). In one study, even a group of preschool children was found adaptive in using ostracism to control and suppress one member of the group who was aggressive and inflicted pain and discomfort on them. The children avoided placing themselves in situations with this child. It was found that such a process of informal or tacit ostracism was effective in suppressing and eliminating the delinquent child’s aggressive behavior (Barney-Barry, 1986).

Indeed, from the perspective of the perpetrators, ostracism can be used as a powerful informal sanction to urge deviant members to behave in an appropriate and normative way (Blau, 1964). Ample evidence from social psychology and behavioral economics studies supports this proposition. For example, ostracized individuals were found to be more likely to conform to group norms (Williams, 2001; Williams et al., 2000) and exert more effort to attain group outcomes (Williams & Sommer, 1997). Likewise, based on a series of experiments on public good, behavioral economists have found that ostracism can be effective in deterring deviations from group-oriented behavior and in promoting cooperation (Fehr & Gächter, 2000; Francis, 1985; Hirshleifer & Rasmusen, 1989; Maier-Rigaud, Martinsson, & Staffiero, 2010; Masclet,

Nourssair, Tucker, & Villeval, 2003). For example, one study found that subjects who were excluded at Time 1 were found to raise donation at Time 2, whereas those who were not excluded tended to decrease their contribution at Time 2 (Masclat, 2003).

The essential reason why ostracism reins in individuals' behaviors may reside in humans' fundamental need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When people are shunned and excluded and are not insiders in a group, a variety of losses result, such as access to available practical, social, and emotional support; physical protection; access to critical resources that are vital for survival and well-being; and even mating opportunities (Leary & MacDonald, 2003; Kirkpatrick & Ellis, 2001; Schachter, 1951; Williams et al., 2000). Likewise, in the workplace, being ostracized entails symbolic or real losses, such as important information, peer support, and social capital attained through social networks in the organization (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000). To restore what has been lost or what will be lost, individuals are likely to repair relationships with the group by presenting themselves in a more favorable way (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010; Williams, 2007). We argue that ostracism sends the signal that the target is not adequately valued as a relational partner. This may prompt ostracized individuals to comply with the group in ways that will help to restore their inclusionary status (Williams, 2007). For example, an early study (Schachter, 1951) on opinion deviance in group discussions found that when someone initially disagreed with the group, the pressures of real or imagined rejection and exclusion would press them to comply with the group.

However, there is also strong evidence that ostracism can trigger tit-for-tat aggression (e.g., Murray, Rose, Bellavia, Holmes, & Kusche, 2002; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007; Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001). Ostracism violates the social pact that obligates people to behave in socially

desirable ways, such as being polite, responsive, and friendly. Such violations are likely to trigger individuals to follow their impulse to reciprocate in a vengeful and mean-spirited way (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). Moreover, ostracism also induces the “flight” reaction, whereby individuals avoid further interactions (Tice, Twenge, & Schmeichel, 2002; Williams, 2007). In several experimental studies, ostracized participants took the first opportunity to flee the ostracism if possible, quitting the experiment or preferring to work alone or with a new group (Predmore & Williams, 1983; Tice et al., 2002). Furthermore, evidence from field studies also suggests that workplace ostracism negatively influences employee organizational citizenship behavior (Wu, 2011).

All the evidence suggests that ostracism does not always play the “rein” role in controlling employees to behave desirably in the workplace. Indeed, to serve this purpose, a major assumption is that ostracized individuals hold group membership in high regard (Dittes & Kelly, 1959; Romero-Canyas et al., 2010; Schachter, 1959; Sleebos, Ellemers, & de Gilder, 2006). Under this condition, the desire to regain acceptance is likely to dominate the impulse to behave in a vengeful way or to simply flee from the negatively charged environment. Thus, individuals are likely to curb their undesirable behavior and display desirable behavior to save their inclusionary status.

A recent study provides initial evidence for this assumption. The study aimed to reconcile two contradictory accounts of the effects of rejection on ingratiation (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). One account depicts rejection as an effective means of eliciting ingratiation, whereas the other account posits that rejection prompts vengeful actions. The study contended that rejection is likely to encourage ingratiation in conditions where the rejection is deeply threatening to the individual (Dittes & Kelly,

1956; Schachter, 1959). The authors theorized and operationalized the “deeply threatening” condition as situations that are particularly self-defining for the rejected individual. In other words, rejection matters more when the group is more relevant to the self (Ellemers, Doosje, & Spears, 2004; Tyler & Lind, 1992). For example, the authors argued that gender differences in the process of socialization mean that men learn to value group membership more than women, who tend to value close individual relationships more (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997; Gabriel & Gardner, 1999). The authors manipulated different self-defining conditions for men and women. For men, the self-defining condition was rejection by a novel peer group; for women, it was rejection by a dating partner to whom the participants felt close and in whom they had invested. The authors found that rejection in those self-defining situations was more likely to enhance individuals’ ingratiation. In essence, the study suggested that rejection from a valued source is deeply threatening, and encourages the ingratiation response.

Following this line of reasoning, ostracism is more likely to motivate socially desirable behavior and discourage negative behavior in those for whom acceptance is of paramount importance. Among those who identify with the group, inclusionary status matters deeply, as ostracism constitutes a severe threat (Ellemers et al., 2002). We thus propose that the expected reining role of ostracism in encouraging appropriate and normative behavior is contingent on a factor that reflects the extent to which an individual values group membership: team identification.

The role of team identification

Social identity theory emphasizes that when people perceive themselves to be actual or symbolic members of a group, they can conceive of, and feel loyal and

committed to, a team (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982). Team identification captures the extent to which a team is valued and contributes to an individual's sense of self (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). It elicits an individual's sense of oneness with, or belonging to, a team (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bezrukova, Jehn, Zanutto, & Thatcher, 2009; Van der Vegt, Van de Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003). This sense of oneness with the team is a motivational force that leads an individual to do whatever necessary to promote his or her social identity as a team member (Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000). Team identification thus drives people to display particular behavior to regain acceptance in the team when their inclusionary status is at stake.

We contend that when identity as a member of a team is of essential importance, ostracism is likely to motivate members to reflect on their behavior, rectify their wrongdoing, and try to compensate for wrongdoing through prosocial behavior so as to restore their perilous inclusionary status. Specifically, we focus on social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping behavior. Social loafing refers to a reduction in employees' motivation and effort when they work collectively in a team (Karau & Williams, 1993). Organizational deviance is defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization or its members, or both" (Bennett & Robinson, 2000, p. 349). Helping behavior refers to promotive behavior characterized by small acts of consideration (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

We argue that when team identification is strong, employees value team membership more strongly, and thus ostracism is likely to be perceived as more threatening because the desire to maintain inclusionary status is stronger. Ostracized members are more likely to decrease both their social loafing and organizational

deviance, which are evidently not desired by the team, and to increase their use of prosocial strategies such as helping. However, when team identification is weak, identity as a member of the team is not important to employees, and they tend to feel psychologically and emotionally remote from the team. Conceivably, such employees are less likely to feel loyal or committed to the team, and thus ostracism is less likely to function as a social sanction to deter social loafing and organizational deviance, or to promote helping behavior. This leads to the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Team identification moderates the relationship between ostracism and social loafing such that when team identification is stronger, ostracism is negatively related to social loafing.

Hypothesis 2: Team identification moderates the relationship between ostracism and organizational deviance such that when team identification is stronger, ostracism is negatively related to organizational deviance.

Hypothesis 3: Team identification moderates the relationship between ostracism and helping behavior such that when team identification is stronger, ostracism is positively related to helping behavior.

Method

Sample and Procedure

The survey data were collected in a call center of a state-owned telecommunications company in northern China. This was a provincial call center responsible for mobile services, fixed line services, and 3G services across the whole province. Before collecting the data, the researchers went to the site to observe the work environment and conducted several interviews with employees, supervisors, and

the general manager. We were informed that employees in the call center have plenty of opportunities to interact with one another. For example, every day they have two routine meetings before and after every shift. During the meetings, they summarize and share guidelines to speed up the answering of inquiries, delegate unresolved issues or pending tasks to other group members, and highlight problems that they have encountered on their shift. Team members discuss the problems and give suggestions. Moreover, to keep abreast with new service products, employees frequently have to update their knowledge and skills to handle emerging business. The employees attend at least one workshop each week that involves all of the employees in the call center. During the workshop, they have the opportunity to interact with other staff through various activities such as discussions and scenario simulation. In addition, the call center also organizes activities such as singing contests, short tours, and shows for employees. Employees in the call center thus interact regularly, giving opportunities for “ostracism.”

To avoid the problem of reverse causality, we collected data at two time waves. The dependent variables were collected at both Time 1 and Time 2 and the Time 1 dependent variables were controlled in the data analysis. We distributed paper-and-pencil surveys to 24 supervisors and 235 subordinates. At Time 1, we asked the supervisors to rate their subordinates’ social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping behavior and asked the subordinates to report on ostracism and team identification. At Time 2, one month later, we asked the supervisors to again rate their subordinates’ social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping over the previous month. The control variables were collected at Time 1. We visited all of the respondents in person to brief them on the purpose of the study and to explain the survey procedures. The respondents received a cover letter explaining the study, a

questionnaire, and a return envelope. To ensure confidentiality, the respondents sealed the completed questionnaires in the envelopes and returned them directly to us on site.

After deleting dyads that could not be matched at both times, the final sample consisted of 213 subordinates under 24 supervisors. The effective response rate for the subordinates was 91%, and for the supervisors it was 100%. In the supervisor sample, 93% were female and the mean age was 29.31 years. In the subordinate sample, 83% were female and the mean age and organizational tenure were 24.68 and 2.07 years, respectively. Seventy-seven percent of the subordinate sample had received a college education or above.

Measures

All of the measures used in the study were originally developed in English and subsequently translated into Chinese using a double-blind back-translation procedure (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973).

Ostracism. We assessed ostracism using the seven-point, ten-item scale developed by Ferris et al. (2008). The respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they were subject to ostracism. Sample items include: “others ignored you at work” and “others avoided you at work” (1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = fairly often, 5 = often, 6 = constantly, 7 = always; $\alpha = .71$).

Team identification. Team identification was measured using the seven-point, four-item scale of Van der Vegt et al. (2003). Sample items include: “I strongly identify with the other members of my work team” and “I feel emotionally attached to this work team (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .83$).

Helping behavior. We assessed helping behavior using the seven-point, seven-item scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). Sample items include “this particular employee volunteers to do things for the team” and “this particular

employee attends functions that help this team” (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients at Time 1 and Time 2 were .96, and .95, respectively.

Social loafing. Social loafing was assessed using the five-point, four-item scale developed by Mulvey and Klein (1998). Sample items include “this employee is a free-loader”, “this employee is contributing less than I anticipate”, and “given his/her abilities, this employee is doing the best he/she can” (reverse coded; 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients at Time 1 and Time 2 were both .77.

Organizational deviance. We assessed organizational deviance using the seven-point, 12-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). As each supervisor was required to rate 10 subordinates, and some items such as “used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job” did not apply in this context, we selected the seven most relevant items to measure organizational deviance according to the supervisors’ suggestions. Sample items include “taken property from work without permission” and “taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace” (1 = never, 7 = always). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients at Time 1 and Time 2 were .83, and .84, respectively.

Control variables. We controlled various demographic variables, including gender, age, education, and organizational tenure, that can influence how people react to mistreatment in organizations (Taylor, Klein, Lewis, Gruenewald, Gurung, & Updegraff, 2000; Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998; Williams, 2007). We also controlled gender and age for the supervisor sample, as these variables may have influenced their rating of subordinate behavior (Tsui, & O’Reilly, 1989). We also controlled for team size (as provided by the company), because this variable has been

shown to affect the dynamics of team identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Richter, West, van Dick, & Dawson, 2006). We also controlled the dependent variables collected at Time 1.

Data Analysis

We conducted hierarchical linear modeling to test our hypotheses, as our data had a hierarchical structure, with subordinates nested within supervisors. We centered the independent variables at their grand means before evaluating the regression equations (c.f. Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

The hypothesis testing consisted of four steps. At Step 1, we entered the control variables, the demographic variables for the supervisors and subordinates, and team size. We also controlled social loafing, helping behavior, and organizational deviance at Time 1 so that we could be more confident about whether Time 1 ostracism affected subordinate reactions to ostracism at Time 2 in terms of social loafing, help, and organizational deviance. At Steps 2 and 3, we entered ostracism and team identification at Time 1. In the final step, we entered the two-way interaction of ostracism and team identification.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 presents the means, standard deviations, and zero-order Pearson correlations of the variables. Time 1 ostracism was negatively related to Time 2 social loafing ($r = -.19, p < .01$) and Time 2 organizational deviance ($r = -.17, p < .05$), but was not significantly related to help ($r = .12, ns.$).

Table 4.1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Variables

Variables	Means	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Supervisor's gender	.93	.25	--														
2 Supervisor's age	29.31	7.04	.07	--													
3 Subordinate's gender	.83	.37	-.02	.04	--												
4 Subordinate's age	24.68	2.74	-.02	.12	.12	--											
5 Subordinate's education	2.93	.62	.13	-.05	.05	.30**	--										
6 Subordinate's tenure	2.07	2.20	-.03	.41**	.08	.51**	.14*	--									
7 Team size	26.08	5.62	-.02	.73**	.01	.08	-.11	.30**	--								
8 Time 1 OD	1.32	.49	.13	-.23**	-.11	.03	-.04	-.07	-.11	--							
9 Time 1 social loafing	2.36	.89	-.02	-.16*	-.05	-.04	-.15*	-.10	-.04	.61**	--						
10 Time 1 help	4.69	1.44	-.19**	-.08	-.13	.00	.18**	.02	-.15*	-.38**	-.41**	--					
11 Time 1 ostracism	1.43	.42	-.07	.00	-.13	-.05	.05	.05	-.07	-.13	-.14*	.10	--				
12 Team identification	6.04	.89	-.02	-.02	.06	.04	-.03	-.04	.07	-.12	-.11	.12	-.33**	--			
13 Time 2 OD	1.27	.47	.11	-.22**	-.09	.03	-.06	-.10	-.05	.68**	.48**	-.33**	-.17*	-.02	--		
14 Time 2 social loafing	2.47	.97	.10	-.00	-.02	.07	-.10	-.01	.13	.51**	.67**	-.38**	-.19**	.00	.50**	--	
15 Time 2 Help	4.71	1.26	-.20**	-.12	-.19**	-.07	.15*	.01	-.17*	-.33**	-.38**	.69**	.12	.09	-.42**	-.58**	--

Note: $N = 213$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Note: OD: organizational deviance

Hypothesis testing

Tables 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 show the hierarchical linear modeling results for the hypothesis testing. Hypotheses 1 to 3 predict the two-way interaction of ostracism and team identification on social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping behavior at Time 2. As can be seen in Step 4 of Tables 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4, the interactive effects were significant for social loafing ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.98$, $\beta = -.09$, $p < .05$), organizational deviance ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 3.89$, $\beta = -.09$, $p < .05$), and helping behavior ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 3.86$, $\beta = .08$, $p < .05$). We then tested the simple slopes of strong team identification and weak team identification. The simple slope tests (c.f. Aiken & West, 1991) further revealed that when employee team identification was weak, ostracism at Time 1 was not significantly related to social loafing, organizational deviance, or helping behavior at Time 2. In contrast, when employee team identification was strong, ostracism at Time 1 was strongly and negatively related to social loafing ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .001$) and organizational deviance ($\beta = -.35$, $p < .001$) at Time 2, and was strongly and positively related to helping behavior at Time 2 ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$). These findings support Hypotheses 1 to 3 (see Tables 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4). To facilitate the interpretation of the two-way interaction effect, Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 illustrate the interactive effect of ostracism and team identification on social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping behavior, respectively.

Table 4.2 Results of two-way interaction on Time 2 social loafing

Variables	Time 2 Social Loafing					
	Entry		Final		Increase in model fit	Change of explained variance
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>		
<i>Step 1:</i>						
Supervisor's gender	.48	.34	.44	.33		
Supervisor's age	-.01	.02	-.01	.02		
Subordinate's gender	-.06	.11	-.05	.11		
Subordinate's age	.03	.02	.03	.02		
Subordinate's education	-.05	.07	-.07	.07		
Subordinate's tenure	-.02	.02	-.02	.02		
Team size	.04 [†]	.02	.03	.02		
Time 1 Social loafing	.64***	.05	.62***	.05	$\Delta\chi^2(8) = 120.73***$	$\Delta R^2 = 48.29$
<i>Step 2:</i>						
Time 1 ostracism (OST)	-.05	.04	-.08 [†]	.05	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.46$	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
<i>Step 3:</i>						
Team identification (TI)	.01	.05	.03	.05	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = .02$	$\Delta R^2 = .00$
<i>Step 4:</i>						
OST x TI	-.09*	.04	-.09*	.04	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.98*$	$\Delta R^2 = .02$

Table 4.3 Results of two-way interaction on Time 2 organizational deviance

Variables	Time 2 Organizational deviance					
	Entry		Final		Increase in model fit	Change of explained variance
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>		
<i>Step 1:</i>						
Supervisor's gender	.13	.27	.07	.27		
Supervisor's age	-.02	.02	-.02	.02		
Subordinate's gender	.06	.12	.06	.12		
Subordinate's age	.01	.02	.01	.02		
Subordinate's education	-.09	.08	-.10	.08		
Subordinate's tenure	-.01	.03	-.01	.03		
Team size	.02	.02	.02	.02		
Time 1 organizational deviance	1.41***	.11	1.38***	.11	$\Delta\chi^2(8) = 135.48***$	$\Delta R^2 = 47.76$
<i>Step 2:</i>						
Time 1 ostracism (OST)	-.08 [†]	.05	-.10*	.05	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 2.64$	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
<i>Step 3:</i>						
Team identification (TI)	.01	.05	.03	.05	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = .06$	$\Delta R^2 = .00$
<i>Step 4:</i>						
OST x TI	-.09*	.04	-.09*	.04	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 3.89*$	$\Delta R^2 = .02$

Table 4.4 Results of two-way interaction on Time 2 helping behavior

Variables	Time 2 Help					
	Entry		Final		Increase in model fit	Change of explained variance
	β	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>SE</i>		
<i>Step 1:</i>						
Supervisor's gender	-.28	.34	-.27	.35		
Supervisor's age	.01	.02	.00	.02		
Subordinate's gender	-.18 [†]	.10	-.20*	.10		
Subordinate's age	-.02	.02	-.01	.02		
Subordinate's education	.08	.07	.10	.07		
Subordinate's tenure	.02	.02	.02	.02		
Team size	-.02	.02	-.02	.02		
Time 1 Help	.43***	.03	.41***	.04	$\Delta\chi^2(8) = 133.38***$	$\Delta R^2 = 53.77$
<i>Step 2:</i>						
Time 1 ostracism (OST)	.04	.04	.03	.04	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = .01$	$\Delta R^2 = .00$
<i>Step 3:</i>						
Team identification (TI)	.04	.05	.03	.05	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = .68$	$\Delta R^2 = .01$
<i>Step 4:</i>						
OST x TI	.08*	.04	.08*	.04	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 3.86*$	$\Delta R^2 = .01$

Figure 4.1 The two-way interaction of ostracism and team identification on social loafing

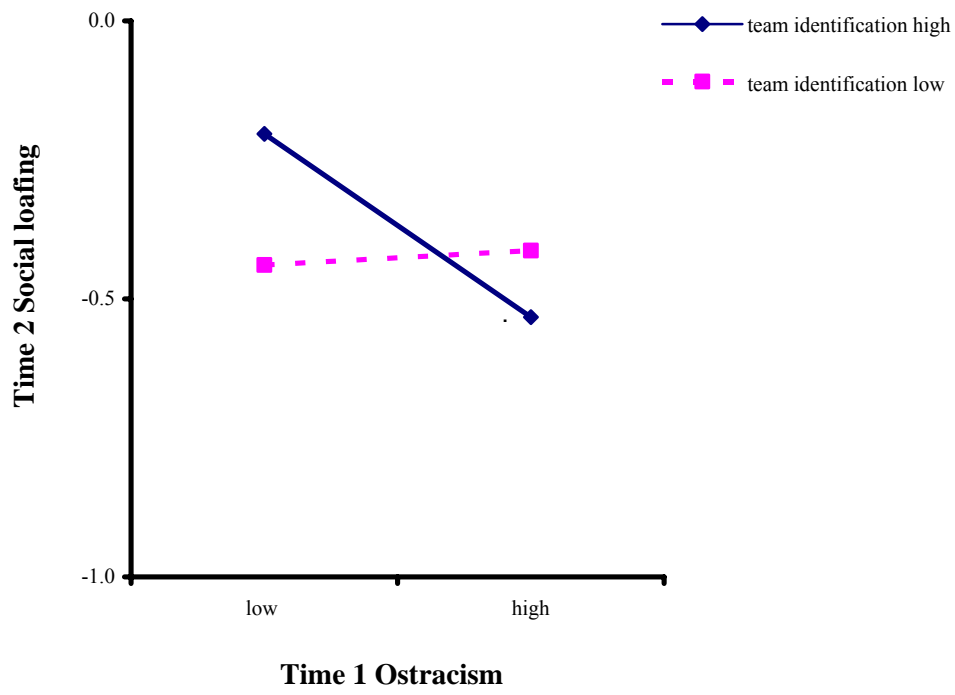


Figure 4.2 The two-way interaction of ostracism and team identification on organizational deviance

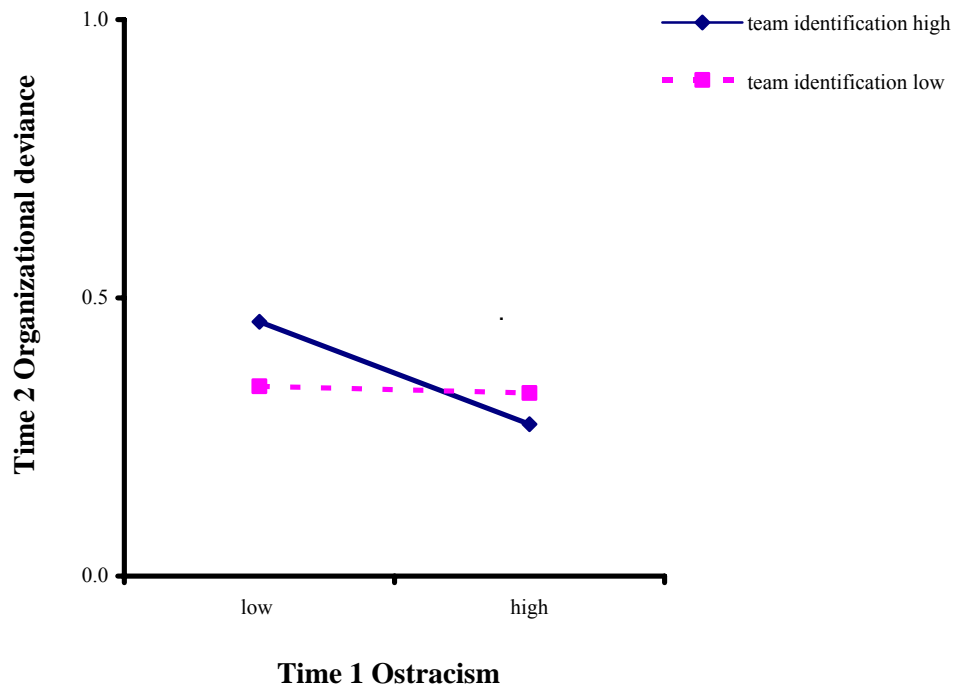
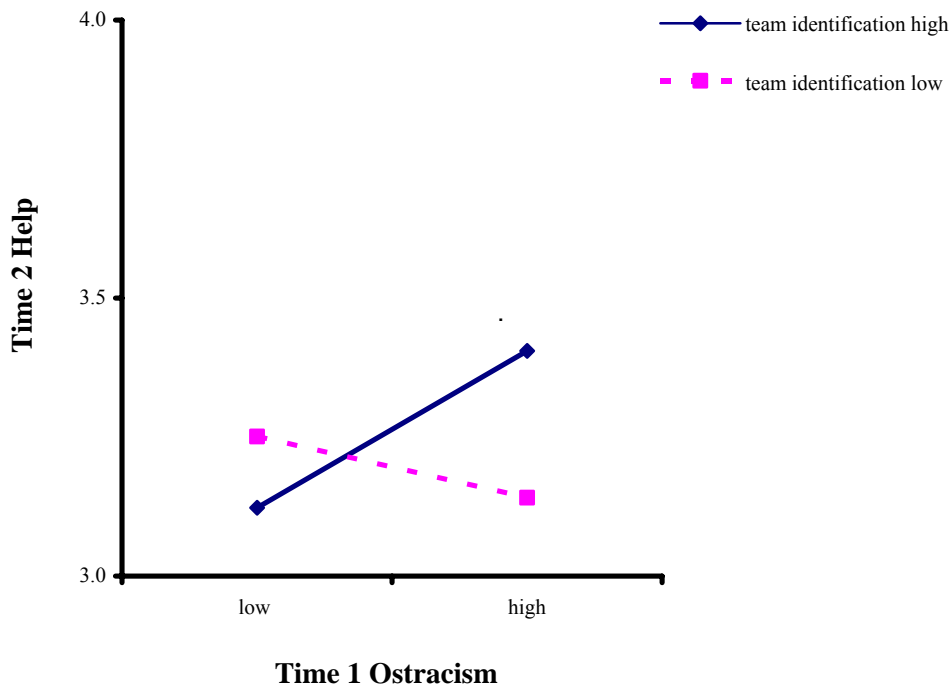


Figure 4.3 The two-way interaction of ostracism and team identification on helping behavior



Discussion

This study attempts to reconcile the inconsistent findings on the effects of ostracism on individual behavior. We examined the conditions under which ostracism deters inappropriate and undesirable behavior such as social loafing and organizational deviance, but promotes more prosocial reactions such as helping behavior. We also examined the moderating role of team identification in the relationship between ostracism and social loafing, organizational deviance, and helping behavior. We found that when ostracized, if a team member has strong versus

weak identification of the team, there will be more helping behaviour, but less social loafing and organizational deviance.

Theoretical implications

This finding has several theoretical implications. First, the literature has shown that ostracism can lead to a variety of reactions. The interesting puzzle is that ostracism is capable of eliciting contradictory responses: prosocial and antisocial (see Williams, 2007 for a review). The motive to re-include is argued to elicit more prosocial behavior, whereas the impulse to revenge is more likely to trigger tit-for-tat antisocial behavior (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). However, it is unclear whether the motive to regain inclusionary status overwhelms the vengeful impulse, leading to prosocial reactions. We contribute to this line of research by showing that when ostracized employees strongly identify with the team, they tend to curb inappropriate and undesirable behavior such as social loafing and organizational deviance, and increase their prosocial behavior such as helping. The findings suggest that when social identity really matters to individuals, they are likely to seize any opportunity to restore what they have lost. Under this condition, ostracism may rein in employees' behaviors so that more desirable behaviour and less undesirable behavior will be elicited.

Second, the phenomenon of ostracism has only recently started to attract the attention of organizational psychologists. The existing evidence has come mainly from social psychology studies that employed an experimental design (e.g., Williams et al., 2000; Williams & Sommer, 1997; Twenge et al., 2007), which leaves the question of what really happens to ostracized employees in the workplace unanswered. There are very few field studies of workplace ostracism, and those that exist mainly focus on how ostracism negatively influences employees' in-role and extra-role

performance (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008; O'Reilly & Robinson, 2009; Wu, 2011). We contribute to the literature on employee behavioral responses by enlarging the scope of interest to behavior such as social loafing and organizational deviance.

Interestingly, our results suggest that ostracism may have a constructive function to deter social loafing and organizational deviance and encourage helping behavior.

However, this effect was only observed among employees who valued group membership. Rather than unanimously defining ostracism as a destructive act, it can be seen from an evolutionary perspective to have a constructive function in promoting group cohesiveness and effectiveness (Gruter & Masters, 1986; Williams, 2007).

Limitations

The results and implications of this study should be interpreted with awareness of its several limitations. First, although we used a time-lag design and controlled the Time 1 dependent variables in the analysis, our findings should not be interpreted as unambiguously indicating causality. As is common in field studies, relationships are susceptible to unmeasured third variables that may account for the findings. We acknowledge the need for further evidence based on panel data before claims of causality can be supported. Second, the generalizability of our findings may be a concern. We collected the data from one call center in one company, and the sample was fairly homogeneous in terms of background, which may raise concerns about the generalizability of our findings to other industries and settings. Although the research design has helped to rule out alternative explanations, such as team level or organizational level effects (e.g., Parker, Balters, Young, Huff, Altmann, & Lacost, 2003), statements about generalizability must await the results of investigations in different industries and cultures.

Future directions

This study can be regarded as among the few that have attempted to resolve the puzzle of why ostracism can lead to quite different, and even contradictory, reactions. There are several interesting directions for future inquiry. First, we have shown that ostracism can elicit more prosocial behavior and deter antisocial behavior in ostracized employees who have a strong sense of team identification. Our findings seem to suggest that when social identity (i.e., team identification) plays an important role, ostracized employees may be more adaptive in behaving in the way that others desire. However, our study does not provide any answers about when ostracism stimulates individuals to lash-out or behave aggressively. According to social identity theory (e.g., Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), self-concept is composed of both personal identity and social identity. Personal identity refers to the attributes of the individual, such as abilities, attractiveness, and competence (Gergen, 1971; Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). Ostracism may threaten people's self-worth as competent and valuable human beings who deserve respectable treatment in social interactions. Being excluded may threaten people's evaluations in functionally important dimensions such as ability, attractiveness, desirability, value, and contribution compared with others. Evolutionary psychologists argue that individuals tend to be aggressive toward those who provoke them into such domains to maintain their dominant status and restore their self-image (de Waal, 1982; Kirkpatrick & Ellis, 2001; Parker, 1974; Westermarch, 1932). An interesting future direction would be to investigate how personal identity and social identity interplay with each other to result in different reactions.

Second, our results suggest that when employees attempt to turn around an ostracism situation, they are likely to socially compensate and present themselves in a favorable way by being more helpful, cooperative, and working harder. However, as

pointed out by scholars, “in many instances, trying to be more socially acceptable can lead individuals down the path of gullibility and social susceptibility, making them easy targets for social manipulation” (Williams, 2007, p. 439). More investigation is thus needed on the long-term effect of the sanctioning role of ostracism: whether it really helps individuals to be more adaptive in the team, or gradually makes them victims of other types of misbehavior such as manipulation and abuse (Crocker & Knight, 2005; Romero-Canyas et al., 2010).

Third, as well documented in the literature, ostracism is a painful and aversive experience (see Williams, 2007 for a review). To regain the acceptance of the team, individuals are likely to resort to prosocial strategies such as being more helpful or ingratiating (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). However, behaving positively toward a person who is the cause of the pain may threaten individuals’ cognitive consistency, because the negative feelings have to be disconnected from the positive behavior toward the perpetrator (Sleebos, Ellemers, & de Gilder, 2006). There may be two possible consequences. One is the threatening of an individual’s self-identity and the erosion of his or her self-coherence, which then leads to more resentment (Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). The other is the successful management of the cognitive dissonance, with the ostracized employee somehow transforming his or her negative feelings toward the perpetrator (Festinger, 1957). An interesting avenue of research would be to investigate how different reactions, such as prosocial strategies, influence employees’ well-being in the long run.

Practical Implications

This study also offers some practical implications. First, from the evolutionary perspective, people have an innate tendency to use peer pressure to regulate deviance and urge conformity and compliance. People may ostracize members who do not

conform to behavioral norms as a sanction. Managers, being aware that ostracism has a deleterious impact on individuals' psychological health and well-being, should help teams to build desirable norms and help team members to develop a strong sense of behavioral norms in the first place. Second, our findings suggest that ostracism can help teams to regulate the behavior of their members only when the members identify with the team. It is thus important for managers to build a team identity among team members and cultivate their sense of the team as a unified entity. Companies could take measures to develop a strong team identity such as showing a positive attitude and making positive gestures toward the team (Van der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005), and by increasing the task and goal interdependence among team members (Van der Vegt, Van de Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003).

Conclusion

We began this study with the question of whether ostracism rein in employees' behaviors in the workplace to inhibit socially undesirable behavior and solicit desirable behavior. The results provide evidence that ostracism does indeed serve this purpose in discouraging social loafing and organizational deviance, and encouraging helping behavior. The evidence points to the crucial importance of team identification in the sanctioning role of ostracism. The theory and results presented here are an initial attempt to resolve the contradictory findings on the link between ostracism and behavior.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The motivation for this dissertation is our surprising awareness of how the prevalent yet hurtful workplace phenomenon of ostracism has been overlooked by organizational psychologists for so long. Although there is a compelling body of research that focuses on different types of negative workplace behavior, such as deviance, social undermining, and aggression (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Duffy et al., 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998), the unique characteristics of ostracism, such as the shutting-off of human connections, the failure to acknowledge another's existence, and the deep threat to the fundamental human need to belong, makes ostracism distinct from other types of negative behavior. We take the stance that workplace ostracism deserves a unique place in the realm of organizational behavior research.

As research on workplace ostracism is in its infancy, there are plenty of lines of inquiry that merit exploration. In this dissertation, we mainly focus on three lines of investigation by examining the antecedents of ostracism, the consequences of ostracism on interpersonal negative emotions, and the consequences of ostracism on the behavioral responses of employees. To systematically investigate these relationships, we conducted three independent empirical studies, the details of which have been reported in the preceding chapters. Here, we provide a summary of the key findings of the three studies and a review of their key implications for theory and practice. We then discuss the limitations of the research, and end with recommendations for future research and an overall conclusion.

Summary of key findings and implications

In the preceding chapters, we have reported the details of the findings of the three studies that addressed different research gaps. To avoid redundancy, here we highlight what we consider to be the main theoretical conceptualizations and implications that result from these findings.

Dependence matters

In Study 1 (Chapter 2), we aimed to investigate the relationship between narcissism and workplace ostracism. We examined the conditions under which narcissists are more likely and less likely to be ostracized by team members. We identified two boundary conditions – expertise status and team goal interdependence – and examined their joint moderating effect on the relationship between narcissism and ostracism. Expertise status refers to an individual’s informal ranking in the team as shaped by task-related competencies (Bunderson, 2003; Van der Vegt et al., 2006). Team goal interdependence refers to a shared belief among team members that their individual goals are positively interdependent (Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Tjosvold et al., 2004). We found that narcissists are most likely to be ostracized by other team members when they possess a low expertise status in teams that have a low level of goal interdependence and are least likely to be ostracized when they have a high expertise status in teams with a high level of goal interdependence.

Study 1 has two important implications. First, it reveals the crucial role of expertise status in affecting the way in which team members interact with narcissists. Whether narcissists possess expertise upon which other members depend will determine how other members interact with them. When other team members are dependent on narcissists’ expertise to achieve individual or collective goals, they may interpret the behavior of narcissistic experts in a positive light. Dependence on narcissistic experts yields persistence in interactions and longevity in relationships

with them (Drigotas & Rusbult, 1992; Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). In contrast, narcissists without expertise who do not have anything on which others rely become vulnerable in interpersonal relationships. In essence, the level of dependence as determined by expertise fundamentally shapes the situation of narcissists in a team: team members are fond of narcissistic experts but dislike narcissists who do not have valuable expertise to contribute.

Second, we anchored this interpersonal dependence relationship in a theoretically meaningful context: team goal interdependence. Echoing context theories and the contextualizing approach (Bamberger, 2008; Cappelli & Sherer, 1991; Johns, 2006; Rousseau & Fried, 2001), our findings suggest that team goal interdependence provides a boundary condition for whether the role of expertise status is either strengthened or suppressed. This finding concurs with the mainstream context theories and the contextualizing approach in indicating that context either provides the necessary conditions or offsets the preconditions for the occurrence of a phenomenon (Johns, 2006). Expertise-shaped dependence does not play a meaningful role in influencing the relationship between narcissism and ostracism unless it is placed in a meaningful context.

In sum, the overall implication of our findings for personality-ostracism research is that the origin of workplace ostracism should not be investigated in a social vacuum, but should instead place the interacting partners in positions of interdependence. As a theme of social psychology is the “power of the situation” (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003), we concur with the proposition that the interaction between any two individuals is shaped by their needs, thoughts, and motives in relation to one another in the context of the specific social situation in which the interaction occurs (Holmes, 2002; Kelley, Holmes, Kerr, Reis, Rusbult, Van Lange,

2002). Ignoring the properties of the interdependence relationship and the context in which interdependence is embedded significantly reduces the ability to explain what happens in reality.

Frame of reference counts

In Study 2 (Chapter 3), we aimed to investigate the relationship between ostracism and triggered negative emotions at the dyadic level, and to identify the factors that may moderate this relationship. We found that a large share of ostracized employees' negative emotions (i.e., anger, sadness, humiliation, and anxiety) occur at the dyadic level, meaning that the negative emotions caused by ostracism are target oriented. We also identified two conditions under which the target's negative emotions toward the perpetrator are exacerbated. The two conditions are both related to the prevalence information available to ostracized employees. The first is whether any other team members ostracize the target, and the second is whether the perpetrator ostracizes other team members. When the information suggests either that the perpetrator is the unique source of ostracism or that the target is the unique target of ostracism, the target is likely to perceive being ostracized by the perpetrator as a rare event. According to prevalence information theory (Ditto & Jemmott, 1989), the target is then likely to perceive ostracism to be more negative, which in turn leads to more negative emotional reactions when facing the perpetrator.

The main implication of this study is to highlight the importance of frame of reference for human reactions to ostracism. The two conditions provide the frame of reference for the target to measure and evaluate the significance of the plight that he or she is facing, which consequently influences the extent to which he or she reacts to ostracism. Our findings underscore the important role of context, which serves as an influential backdrop for workplace phenomenon, possibly making it appear more or

less negative. We provide evidence that context functions “as a shaper of meaning” (Johns, 2006) that affects individuals’ emotional reactions more strongly in the current study.

The importance of identification

In Study 3 (Chapter 4), we used evolutionary psychology as a basis to determine whether and when ostracism serves as a social sanction to inhibit undesirable behavior and encourage desirable behavior. We examined the conditions under which ostracism experienced at Time 1 decreased employees’ social loafing and organizational deviance and promoted their helping behavior at Time 2. We found that when ostracized employees had a high level of team identification, ostracism at Time 1 was negatively related to social loafing and organizational deviance at Time 2, and positively related to helping at Time 2. In other words, the social sanction role of ostracism only works for employees who hold group membership in high regard.

The main implication for the ostracism literature is that whether ostracism functions as a social sanction to regulate employees’ deviant behavior and stimulate their prosocial behavior is heavily dependent on the extent to which employees identify with the team or organization. This finding also makes progress toward resolving the puzzle that ostracism is capable of introducing contradictory responses (i.e., prosocial vs. antisocial; see Williams, 2007 for a review).

Limitations

We have tried to acknowledge the limitations of the three studies in the preceding chapters. Here, we summarize the main limitation as we see it here. The findings from the three studies come from two different companies. However, they are from the same work setting in the same industry in China (call centers of

telecommunications companies). Although the multiple data sources increase our confidence in the internal validity and generalizability of the findings across call centers in similar telecommunications companies, the generalizability of the findings to different work settings, organizations, industries, and cultures is yet to be established.

To begin establishing the external validity of the findings more generally, it will be necessary to select new contexts for research (Cook & Campbell, 1979). For example, as noted, employees of the call centers of telecommunication companies are predominantly female. Previous research shows that females are more likely to socially compensate with prosocial behavior when they are ostracized (Williams & Sommer, 1997). Thus, our findings of the role of ostracism as social sanction to encourage prosocial behavior need to be confirmed in other work settings in which the gender composition is more balanced.

As another example, we conducted all three studies in a Chinese society, where relationships are of critical importance. Social harmony is a deeply embedded notion among Chinese people, who have a strong relational motive to be included in important networks (Fiske & Yamamoto, 2005). It is possible that Chinese people are less likely to attempt to retaliate as a behavioral response to ostracism (Xu & Huang, 2012), as retaliation causes disharmony in relationships (Hui & Bond, 2009). The identified ostracism-behavior link should thus be extended to different cultures to determine whether ostracism always functions effectively as a social sanction.

Future directions

In the foregoing chapters, we have laid out the future research directions for each study in detail. Here, we simply suggest some general directions for future

research on ostracism, which we summarize based on the research process and the findings of the three studies.

Conduct longitudinal research tracing the effects of ostracism

In Studies 2 and 3, we used a longitudinal design to avoid concerns about causality. However, there is merit in conducting longitudinal research beyond the causality concern. For example, according to the social psychology literature, ostracized individuals are likely to react to ostracism in different ways. One reaction is to attempt to flee the situation (for a review, see Williams, 2007). It is not clear in the work setting whether ostracized employees are likely to react instantly to ostracism with withdrawal or turnover. We suggest that they are likely to try to get re-included by displaying prosocial behavior at first. However, if their efforts are in vain, then their sense of “learned helplessness” (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2005) may trigger withdrawal. The psychological dynamics of behavior following ostracism can only be traced by longitudinal research with interventions at different times. Longitudinal studies should improve our understanding of why ostracized individuals choose different response paths.

Study the underlying mechanisms

So far, only a few studies have examined the mechanisms of the relationship between workplace ostracism and employee behavior (e.g., Leung, Wu, Chen, & Young, 2011; Wu, 2011). These studies have proposed and examined organizational identification and work engagement as the mediating mechanisms through which ostracism decreases employees’ in-role and extra-role performances. However, our findings indicate that there are other mechanisms worthy of further exploration.

First, in Study 1 (Chapter 2), we identified the conditions under which narcissists are most likely and least likely to be ostracized by team members. Our

theorizing relied strongly on the attribution process, and specifically how the dependence relationship influences team members' attributions of narcissists' negative behavior. This research could be expanded by directly investigating the attribution process.

Second, in Study 3 (Chapter 4), we found that team identification was a boundary condition under which ostracism functions as a social sanction to deter social loafing and organizational deviance, and promote helping behavior. We are also aware of existing evidence that shows that ostracism has a destructive effect on employees' task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., O' Reilly & Robinson, 2009; Wu, 2011). To reconcile the inconsistent findings on the role of ostracism, future research is needed to identify the potentially different psychological dynamics triggered by ostracism that eventually lead to different behavioral responses.

Treat ostracism as a multi-level phenomenon

In the literature, ostracism has mainly been theorized and operationalized as an individual-level phenomenon. In Study 2 (Chapter 3), in contrast, we examined ostracism at the dyadic level, which allowed us to examine the interpersonal emotions triggered by a specific actor. The findings of Study 2 suggest that a considerable portion of the variance in ostracism resides at the dyadic level, which indicates that future research should go beyond the individual level of study.

If ostracism is a dyadic phenomenon by nature, then it would be meaningful and insightful to scrutinize ostracism at the dyadic level. In Study 2, we found that being ostracized by a particular team member elicits negative emotions toward the actor by the target. It might be useful to study ostracism-behavioral responses at the dyadic level. Being ostracized by a particular member may trigger antisocial behavior by the target toward the perpetrator, but not necessarily toward other team members.

Indeed, the target may be especially friendly and helpful to make a better impression on the others. Thus, our knowledge of the ostracism-reaction link would benefit from further dyadic-level studies.

Future research could also look at ostracism at the group level. A recent study on how the prevalence of group-level organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) mitigates the distinctiveness of individual-level OCB (Bommer & Dierdorff, 2007) suggests that whether individual OCB is valuable is contingent on whether it is perceived to be distinct or common in a group context. Group-level OCB “shapes the very meaning underlying organizational behavior and attitudes” (Johns, 2006, p. 388). Likewise, in a team context in which team members are intensely engrossed in their work, ostracism may be inevitable and team members may already have become accustomed to it. In this context, being ostracized may not be as painful as in contexts in which ostracism is a rare phenomenon. Clearly, simply conceptualizing ostracism as an individual-level behavior may not fully explicate the complexity and richness of the phenomenon.

Concluding remarks

We began this dissertation by noting that ostracism, which is a prevalent yet hurtful behavior, has been ignored by organizational researchers for some time. Compared with other obvious forms of negative organizational behavior such as workplace bullying, abusive supervision, and aggression (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Duffy et al., 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Tepper, 2000), ostracism may be rather subtle (Ferris et al., 2008). However, the experience of being ostracized is far from subtle. Evidence shows that the pain caused by ostracism is comparable to severe

types of physical pain (MacDonald & Leary, 2005), yet the phenomenon has received little attention until recently.

In the organizational behavior research, attention is predominantly paid to behavior that is significantly related to the individual or to organizational functioning, efficiency, and effectiveness. Existing evidence and the findings of our studies indicate that ostracism plays a confusing role, either sabotaging employee productivity or pressing employees to be better. It might be argued that it is not necessary to study ostracism if it has less relevance to efficiency and effectiveness. However, we believe that more research is needed to determine how to improve the organizational environment to avoid the occurrence of ostracism as far as possible.

In modern organizations, as reflected by Charlie Chaplin's *Modern Times*, the relatively independent nature of jobs has created many situations for ostracism to thrive. However, employees have not changed as human beings a bit who still need others' attention and to feel that we are accepted (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Organizations, which are places in which employees spend a great portion of their time and life and fulfill their fundamental human needs, should be environments in which employees receive respectful and decent treatment from each other.

The scant attention paid to workplace ostracism ignores the notion that organizations are first and foremost places for people to survive and prosper. Viewing organizations in a humanistic way is new, yet has started to attract scholars' attention in domains such as "compassion organizing" and "necessary evils" (Dutton, Worline, Frost, & Lilius, 2006; Margolis & Molinsky, 2008; Molinsky & Margolis, 2005). Our study on workplace ostracism shows the need for more deep and thorough research on workplace ostracism. If the research reported in this dissertation stimulates future research and practice, then it will have been more than worth the effort.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Study 1 (Chinese version)



THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

员工编码：

人力资源管理调查问卷

您好！首先，衷心感谢您参与此项目研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计，旨在研究团队合作和公司氛围，为改进人力资源管理提供依据。**所有资料只作科学研究，调查资料将会严格保密，研究结果只展现综合数据，调查资料绝不提交您所在单位及上级部门。**

研究结果的可信赖度取决于阁下对问题的认真和客观回答，请您填写此问卷时，仔细阅读各项问题，**答案没有对错之分，请真实地表达您的感受。**您所提供的资料对我们的研究会有很大的帮助。

阁下如希望进一步了解研究结果，或您对此项研究有任何疑问和建议，请通过下列联系方式与本人联系。

最后，再次对您的参与及帮助表示衷心的感谢！

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本问卷包括两部分，问卷A部分是您对自己的一些认识，以及工作中和其他同事之间互动的认识；问卷B部分是您对本小组其他同事的认识。

问卷A：

第一部分：下面的描述是否适合你，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈。请仔细阅读以下每一个句子，不要漏答。

	从不	偶尔	有些时候	适中	常常	频繁地	总是
1. 在公司同事们会忽视你的存在。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 当你进入某一区域时，同事们会离开。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 上班时，你的问候得不到回应。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在公司拥挤的餐厅里，你不自觉的独坐一边。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 你的同事们会躲避你。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 你发现在公司同事们不会注意到你。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 在公司同事们交谈时你会被孤立在外。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 在公司同事们拒绝与你交谈。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 在公司同事们对你视若无睹。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 在休息的时间，同事们不会邀请你，或询问你有什么需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分：下面的描述是否适合你，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈

	非常不同意	不同意	中立的	同意	非常同意
1. 我自信能得到人生中我应得的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我有时感到压抑。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 只要我努力，我通常都能成功。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 有时候当我失败时，我觉得自己毫无价值。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我能成功完成任务。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我有时觉得自己不能掌控自己的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 总体来讲，我对自己感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我对自己的能力充满怀疑。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 人生中的境遇由我自己决定。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我不觉得自己可以掌控自己事业上的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我有能力处理自己遇到的大部分问题。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 有些时候，我感觉很多事情对我来说都相当的苍白和无望。	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分：下面的描述是否适合你，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈

	完全与实际不符				完全与实际相符
1. 我比较喜欢当领导者。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我认为自己是一个好的领导者	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我认为自己能成功	1	2	3	4	5
4. 别人总是认可我的权威	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我具有能影响他人的天赋	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我自信，果断	1	2	3	4	5

7. 我喜欢拥有凌驾于他人之上的职权	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我是一个天生的领导者	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我极少依赖他人去完成任务	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我乐于为我所做的决定承担责任	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我比其它人更有能力	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我总能够按照自己喜欢的方式生活	1	2	3	4	5
13. 我总是知道自己正在做什么。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我将成为一个伟大的人	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我是一个出类拔萃的人	1	2	3	4	5
16. 我知道自己很优秀，因为每个人都这么跟我说的	1	2	3	4	5
17. 我喜欢被人称赞	1	2	3	4	5
18. 我认为自己是一个特别的人	1	2	3	4	5
19. 我希望某天能有人为我写传记	1	2	3	4	5
20. 一有机会我就会展示/炫耀自己	1	2	3	4	5
21. 谦逊不是我的个性	1	2	3	4	5
22. 在公共场合，如果大家没有注意到我的外表，我会感到沮丧	1	2	3	4	5
23. 我喜欢成为关注的焦点	1	2	3	4	5
24. 我基本上敢冒险做任何事情	1	2	3	4	5
25. 我享受成为别人关注的中心	1	2	3	4	5
26. 我喜欢引领时尚和潮流	1	2	3	4	5
27. 我可以看透别人就像读本书一样的容易	1	2	3	4	5
28. 我可以让人相信任何我想让他们相信的事	1	2	3	4	5
29. 我觉得操纵别人很容易	1	2	3	4	5
30. 我通常可以说服他人	1	2	3	4	5
31. 大家都喜欢听我的事迹	1	2	3	4	5
32. 我喜欢看自己的身体	1	2	3	4	5
33. 我喜欢照镜子	1	2	3	4	5
34. 我喜欢展示我的身形	1	2	3	4	5
35. 除非我得到我应得到的，否则我永不满足	1	2	3	4	5
36. 我期待从别人那里得到许多	1	2	3	4	5
37. 我希望举世闻名	1	2	3	4	5
38. 我对权力极度渴望	1	2	3	4	5
39. 我一定要得到我应得的尊重	1	2	3	4	5
40. 如果我能管理这个世界，它会远好于现在的世界	1	2	3	4	5

第四部分：以下问题是关于您对您目前的工作小组的感受。请您仔细阅读以下句子，并在适当的数字上画圈。（将你的工作小组看成为一个整体）

	非常不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	非常同意
1. 我们小组成员之间同舟共济	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我们小组成员希望彼此成功	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我们小组成员寻求共同目标	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我们小组成员的目标一致	1	2	3	4	5
5. 当我的小组成员一起工作时，我们通常拥有共同的目标	1	2	3	4	5

第五部分：以下的形容词是形容您过去两星期在工作中的感受与情绪。请仔细阅读并在适当的数字上画圈。

	完全没有	甚少程度上	一定程度上	相当大程度上	非常大程度上
1. 惊惶的	1	2	3	4	5
2. 紧张的	1	2	3	4	5
3. 易怒的	1	2	3	4	5
4. 不安的	1	2	3	4	5
5. 感到有压力的	1	2	3	4	5

问卷 B：本部分请您评价您与另一位小组成员之间工作中的感受。请仔细阅读以下每一个句子，并在相应的数字上画圈。

A、另一位小组成员的姓名：_____您与这位成员一起工作了多久？___月

第一部分：下面的描述是否适合该成员，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈。

	从不	偶尔	有些时候	适中	常常	频繁地	总是
1. 在公司我不会注意到他/她。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 在休息的时间，我不会邀请他/她，或询问他/她有何需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 在班组里我会躲避他/她。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在班组里我会避免与他/她交谈。							
5. 当他/她在场的时候，我会表现得他/她似乎不存在。							

第二部分：请就专业工作技能，比较该小组成员与小组其他人员，根据程度在合适的数字上画圈。

	远低于平均水平								远高于平均水平
1. 业务能力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. 学习能力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. 心里承受力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

最后，请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的所有资料只供研究，绝对保密，请放心回答。请在每项后面“□”适当的选项上打勾“✓”。

请把问卷放入信封密封及交回香港理工大学研究人员。多谢合作。

1. 性别: 男 女
2. 年龄: _____ (周岁)
3. 教育: 初中或以下 高中或中专 大专
 大学本科或以上 其它 (请注明): _____
4. 您在本公司工作了多久? 工作了: _____ (年)

再次感谢您的积极帮助与支持，请把问卷放入信封密封。

Appendix 2: Time 1 Questionnaire for Study 2 & 3 (supervisor Chinese version)



您好！首先，衷心感谢您参与此项目研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计，旨在研究班组合作和公司氛围，为改进人力资源管理提供依据。**所有资料只作科学研究，调查资料将会严格保密，研究结果只展现综合数据，调查资料绝不提交您所在单位及上级部门。**

研究结果的可信赖度取决于阁下对问题的认真和客观回答，请您填写此问卷时，仔细阅读各项问题，**答案没有对错之分，请真实地表达您的感受。**您所提供的资料对我们的研究会很大的帮助。

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最后，再次对您的参与及帮助表示衷心的感谢！

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邮件：[hanhua.xu@](mailto:hanhua.xu@polyu.edu.hk)

请以指定的您的直接下属作为填写本问卷的对象

A. 被评价下属的姓名：_____

第一部分：以下的描述是否符合您的这位下属，请
根据同意程度在右边相应的数字上画圈。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 他/她主动为班组做一些份外的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 他/她帮助班组新进员工适应新工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 他/她参加有利于班组工作和绩效的活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 他/她为了班组的集体利益能协助班组里的其他人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 他/她会主动参与有利于班组工作开展的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 他/她帮助班组里其他人熟悉和了解工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 他/她帮助班组里的其他人完成工作职责范围内的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分：以下的描述是否符合您的这位下属，请
根据同意程度在右边相应的数字上画圈。

	非常不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	非常同意
1. 在工作上他/她经常不自己努力，而沾别人的光。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 他/她所做的努力和贡献比我预期的要少。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 他/她工作起来全力以赴。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 以他/她的能力来讲，这位员工已尽力做到最好了。	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分：以下各项描述了这位同事于过去一个月的一些行为表现，您是否同意？请仔细阅读，并在适当的数字上画圈。

	从不	偶尔	有些时候	适中	常常	频繁地	总是
1. 对班组同事说一些伤害的话。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 粗鲁地对待班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 取笑班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在公开场合让班组同事尴尬难堪。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 指责班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 与班组同事发生争执。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 戏弄班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 做一些伤害班组同事的行为	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 故意延缓工作节奏。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 工作不尽责、不努力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 无视班组领导的指示。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 未经允许就迟到早退。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 工作中途休息时间比规定的要长，或额外的增加休息的次数	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 扰乱工作环境。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 未经允许擅自拿走公司的东西。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

最后, 请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的**所有资料只供研究, 绝对保密**, 请放心回答。请在每项后面“□”适当的选项上打勾“✓”。请把问卷放入信封密封及交回**香港理工大学研究人员**。多谢合作。

1. 性别: 男 女
2. 年龄: _____ (周岁)
3. 教育: 初中或以下 高中或中专 大专
 大学本科或以上 其它 (请注明): _____
4. 您在本公司工作了多久? 工作了: _____ (年)__(月)

再次感谢您的积极帮助与支持!

Appendix 3: Time 1 Questionnaire for Study 2 & 3 (subordinate Chinese version)



您好！首先，衷心感谢您参与此项目研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计，旨在研究班组合作和公司氛围，为改进人力资源管理提供依据。**所有资料只作科学研究，调查资料将会严格保密，研究结果只展现综合数据，调查资料绝不提交您所在单位及上级部门。**

研究结果的可信赖度取决于阁下对问题的认真和客观回答，请您填写此问卷时，仔细阅读各项问题，**答案没有对错之分，请真实地表达您的感受。**您所提供的资料对我们的研究会很大的帮助。

阁下如希望进一步了解研究结果，或您对此项研究有任何疑问和建议，请通过下列联系方式与本人联系。

最后，再次对您的参与及帮助表示衷心的感谢！

黄旭 教授

香港理工大学管理及市场学系

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许寒华 博士研究生

香港理工大学管理及市场学系

电话 852-2766-7052

邮件：[hanhua.xu@](mailto:hanhua.xu@polyu.edu.hk)

问卷A：

第一部分：以下的形容词是形容您过去两星期在工作中的感受与情绪。请仔细阅读并在适当的数字上画圈。

	完全没有	甚少程度上	一定程度上	相当大程度上	非常大程度上
1. 惊惶的	1	2	3	4	5
2. 紧张的	1	2	3	4	5
3. 易怒的	1	2	3	4	5
4. 不安的	1	2	3	4	5
5. 感到有压力的	1	2	3	4	5

第二部分：下面的描述是否适合你，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈，不要漏答。

	从不	偶尔	有些时候	适中	常常	频繁地	总是
请问在最近的六个月里你是否有以下的经历：							
1. 在班组里同事们会忽视你的存在。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 当你进入某一区域时，班组的同事们会离开。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 上班时，在班组里你的问候得不到回应。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在公司拥挤的餐厅里，你不自觉的独坐一边。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 你的班组同事们会避着你。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 你发现在班组里同事们不会注意到你。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 在班组里同事们交谈时你会被孤立在外。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 在班组里同事们拒绝与你交谈。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 在班组里同事们对你视若无睹。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 在休息或下班的时候，班组同事们不会邀请你，或询问你有什么需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
请问以上的情况现在是否还存在：							
	是	否					

第三部分：以下问题是你对你们班组的一些感受，请仔细阅读以下每句话，并在右边相应的数字上画圈。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我强烈地认同我们班组的其他成员。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我愿意继续与我的班组一同工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我愿意成为这个工作班组的一员。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我对这个班组有感情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分：下面的描述是否适合你，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈

	非常不同意	不同意	中立的	同意	非常同意
1. 我自信能得到人生中我应得的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我有时感到压抑。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 只要我努力，我通常都能成功。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 有时候当我失败时，我觉得自己毫无价值。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我能成功完成任务。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我有时觉得自己不能掌控自己的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 总体来讲，我对自己感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我对自己的能力充满怀疑。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 人生中的境遇由我自己决定。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我不觉得自己可以掌控自己事业上的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我有能力处理自己遇到的大部分问题。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 有些时候，我感觉很多事情对我来说都相当的苍白和无望。	1	2	3	4	5

问卷 B：本部分请您评价您与另一位班组成员之间工作中的感受。请仔细阅读以下每一个句子，并在相应的数字上画圈。

A、另一位班组成员的姓名：_____您与这位成员一起工作了多久？__年

第一部分：下面的描述是否适合该成员，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈。	从不	偶尔	有些时候	适中	常常	频繁地	总是
1. 在公司他/她不会注意到我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 在休息或下班的时候，他/她不会邀请我，或询问我有何需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 在班组里他/她会避着我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在班组里他/她会避免与我交谈。							
5. 当我在场的时候，他/她会表现得我似乎不存在。							
6. 在多大程度上他/她也这么对待班组里的其他同事	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分: 请描述在过去一个月中, 您与这位同事相处时出现以下情绪的频密程度。请仔细阅读, 并在相应的答案上划圈。

	从来没有	较少	有时	经常	总是这样
1. 生气	1	2	3	4	5
2. 愤怒	1	2	3	4	5
3. 不高兴	1	2	3	4	5
4. 伤心	1	2	3	4	5
5. 忧郁	1	2	3	4	5
6. 难过	1	2	3	4	5
7. 担心	1	2	3	4	5
8. 紧张	1	2	3	4	5
9. 不安	1	2	3	4	5
10. 尴尬	1	2	3	4	5
11. 惭愧	1	2	3	4	5
12. 感到丢脸	1	2	3	4	5

最后, 请回答下列有关您个人情况的问题。您提供的所有资料只供研究, 绝对保密, 请放心回答。请在每项后面“□”适当的选项上打勾“√”。

请把问卷交回香港理工大学研究人员。多谢合作。

1. 性别: 男 女
2. 年龄: _____ (周岁)
3. 教育: 初中或以下 高中或中专 大专
 大学本科或以上 其它 (请注明): _____
4. 您在本公司工作了多久? 工作了: _____ (年)

再次感谢您的积极帮助与支持。

Appendix 4: Time 2 Questionnaire for Study 2 & 3 (supervisor Chinese version)



您好！首先，衷心感谢您再次此项目研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计，旨在研究班组合作和公司氛围，为改进人力资源管理提供依据。**所有资料只作科学研究，调查资料将会严格保密，研究结果只展现综合数据，调查资料绝不提交您所在单位及上级部门。**

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以下部分，请以指定的您的直接下属作为填写本问卷的对象

A · 被评价下属的姓名： _____

第一部分：以下的描述是否符合您的这位下属，请根据同意程度在右边相应的数字上画圈。

	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 他/她主动为班组做一些份外的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 他/她帮助班组新进员工适应新工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 他/她参加有利于班组工作和绩效的活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 他/她为了班组的集体利益能协助班组里的其他人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 他/她会主动参与有利于班组工作开展的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 他/她帮助班组里其他人熟悉和了解工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 他/她帮助班组里的其他人完成工作职责范围内的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分：以下的描述是否符合您的这位下属，请根据同意程度在右边相应的数字上画圈。

	非常不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	非常同意
1. 在工作上他/她经常不自己努力，而沾别人的光。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 他/她所做的努力和贡献比我预期的要少。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 他/她工作起来全力以赴。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 以他/她的能力来讲，这位员工已尽力做到最好了。	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分：以下各项描述了这位同事于过去一个月的一些行为表现，您是否同意？请仔细阅读，并在适当的数字上画圈。

	从不	偶尔	有些时候	适中	常常	频繁地	总是
1. 对班组同事说一些伤害的话。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 粗鲁地对待班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 取笑班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在公开场合让班组同事尴尬难堪。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 指责班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 与班组同事发生争执。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 戏弄班组同事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 做一些伤害班组同事的行为	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 故意延缓工作节奏。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 工作不尽责、不努力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 无视班组领导的指示。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 未经允许就迟到早退。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 工作中途休息时间比规定的要长，或额外的增加休息的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 弄乱工作环境。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 未经允许擅自拿走公司的东西。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 5: Time 2 Questionnaire for Study 2 & 3 (subordinate Chinese version)



您好！首先，衷心感谢您再次此项目研究。这份调查问卷是由香港理工大学管理及市场学系设计，旨在研究班组合作和公司氛围，为改进人力资源管理提供依据。**所有资料只作科学研究，调查资料将会严格保密，研究结果只展现综合数据，调查资料绝不提交您所在单位及上级部门。**

研究结果的可信赖度取决于阁下对问题的认真和客观回答，请您填写此问卷时，仔细阅读各项问题，**答案没有对错之分，请真实地表达您的感受。**您所提供的资料对我们的研究会很大的帮助。

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黄旭 教授

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问卷A：

第一部分：以下的形容词是形容您过去两星期在工作中的感受与情绪。请仔细阅读并在适当的数字上画圈。

	完全没有	甚少程度上	一定程度上	相当大程度上	非常程度上
1. 惊惶的	1	2	3	4	5
2. 紧张的	1	2	3	4	5
3. 易怒的	1	2	3	4	5
4. 不安的	1	2	3	4	5
5. 感到有压力的	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分：以下问题是关于您对您目前的工作小组的感受。请在适当的数字上画圈。（将你的工作小组看成为一个整体）

	非常不同意	有点不同意	不能确定	有点同意	非常同意
1. 我们小组成员之间同舟共济	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我们小组成员希望彼此成功	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我们小组成员寻求共同目标	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我们小组成员的目标一致	1	2	3	4	5
5. 当我的小组成员一起工作时，我们通常拥有共同的目标	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分：下面的描述是否适合你，请根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈

	完全与实际不符				完全与实际相符
1. 我知道自己很优秀，因为每个人都这么跟我说的	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我喜欢成为关注的焦点	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我认为自己是一个特别的人	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我喜欢拥有凌驾于他人之上的权力	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我觉得操纵别人很容易	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我一定要得到我应得的尊重	1	2	3	4	5
7. 有机会的话我常常会展示/炫耀自己	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我总是知道自己正在做什么。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 大家都喜欢听我的事迹	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我期待从别人那里得到许多	1	2	3	4	5
29. 我享受成为别人关注的中心	1	2	3	4	5
12. 别人总是认可我的权威	1	2	3	4	5
18. 我将成为一个伟大的人	1	2	3	4	5
32. 我可以让人相信任何我想让他们相信的事	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我比其他人更有能力	1	2	3	4	5
16. 我是一个出类拔萃的人	1	2	3	4	5

问卷 B：本部分请您描述您与另一位班组成员之间工作中的感受。请仔细阅读以下每一个句子，并在相应的数字上画圈。

A. 另一位班组成员的姓名：

第一部分：请问该成员是否有以下的行为对你，根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈。

从不 偶尔 有些时候 适中 常常 频繁地 总是

1. 在公司他/她不会注意到我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 在休息或下班的时候，他/她不会邀请我，或询问我有什么需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 在班组里他/她会避着我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在班组里他/她会避免与我交谈。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 当我在场的时候，他/她会表现得我似乎不存在。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分：请问你是否有以下的行为对该成员，根据恰当程度在合适的数字上画圈。

从不 偶尔 有些时候 适中 常常 频繁地 总是

1. 在公司我不会注意到他/她。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 在休息或下班的时候，我不会邀请他/她，或询问他/她有什么需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 在班组里我会避着他/她。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 在班组里我会避免与他/她交谈。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 当他/她在场的时候，我会表现得他/她似乎不存在。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分：请就专业工作技能，比较该小组成员与小组其他人员，根据程度在合适的数字上画圈。

远低于平均水平

远高于平均水平

1. 业务能力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. 学习能力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. 心理承受力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

第四部分：请描述在过去一个月中，您与该小组成员相处时出现以下情绪的频密程度。

	从来没有	较少	有时	经常	总是这样
1. 生气	1	2	3	4	5
2. 愤怒	1	2	3	4	5
3. 不高兴	1	2	3	4	5
4. 伤心	1	2	3	4	5
5. 忧郁	1	2	3	4	5
6. 难过	1	2	3	4	5
7. 担心	1	2	3	4	5
8. 紧张	1	2	3	4	5
9. 不安	1	2	3	4	5
10. 尴尬	1	2	3	4	5
11. 惭愧	1	2	3	4	5
12. 感到丢脸	1	2	3	4	5