Interactive Effects of Workplace Ostracism and Belief in Reciprocity on Fear of Negative Evaluation

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Abstract
Workplace mistreatment is although one of crucial reality of organization’s life that exists inevitably but it may possess certain potential in collaboration with other variables to act into prosocial behaviors. Based on affective events theory (AET) this research study attempts to investigate the impact of workplace ostracism on employees’ fear of negative evaluation. This model explains that workplace ostracism could lead to employees’ fear of negative evaluation but belief in reciprocity as moderator has property to weaken this relationship. In an environment of workplace mistreatment, the belief in reciprocity actually sets the degree of employees' understanding to avoid fear of negative evaluation by considering themselves responsible first for workplace mistreatment. Data was collected from education sector of Pakistan, comprising faculty and non-faculty members working at different hierarchical levels in public and private school, colleges and universities. Results have confirmed our hypotheses and found the moderating impacts of belief in reciprocity on the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation. This paper has used SPSS and AMOS tools for data analysis. For practical implication, managers can use implicit property of belief in reciprocity strategically in the interest of organization and employees. According to which belief in reciprocity creates the awareness and direct one’s attention towards previous actions of one-self.

Keywords: workplace ostracism, fear of negative evaluation, belief in reciprocity, affective events theory.

1. Introduction
Success of an organization depends upon productive efforts of the employees for which supervisors have to establish positive and sound relationship with their employees. But sometime employers’ and even peers’ displaced or spillover behaviors take a form of mistreatment. Workplace mistreatment is darker side of an organizational work life and much of recent studies are focusing upon it in new dimensions (Ferris et al., 2015; Cullen et al., 2014; Ferris et al., 2008) strategically in the interest of organization and employees. The individuals who are treated well, they feel themselves more socially accepted and included. Whereas who are maltreated they feel themselves socially rejected and excluded.
The research work of Twenge et al. (2007) and his colleagues on social exclusion and prosocial behaviors found that socially excluded individuals are less motivated towards prosocial behaviors and activities due to fear of negative evaluation.

Affective event theory suggests that stressful events result in intense emotions such as anger, frustration, rage, and anxiety (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) often drive employees to speak up (Grant, 2013). Literature reports three types of workplace stressors which are responsible for producing threat of resource deprivation: job stressors, social stressors, and organizational stressors (Ng & Feldman, 2012). These stressors sustain cognitive, emotional, or physical effort (De Jonge & Dormann, 2006) in individuals to cope with them. Social stressors encompass tense interpersonal relationships with supervisor, subordinates, and peers. Workplace ostracism (WpOS) are evident instances of stressful interpersonal relationship and currently active area of research in management studies (Lian et al., 2014; Ferris et al. 2015; Ferris et al., 2008). Interpersonal workplace mistreatments such as abusive supervision, generalized hierarchical abuse, petty tyranny, victimization, workplace bullying, workplace ostracism, supervisor aggression, supervisor undermining, and negative mentoring experiences have been studied as mistreatments (Tepper, 2007; Hershcovis, 2011). Tepper (2007) identified each term on four dimensions: i) whether the construct focuses exclusively on hostility committed by supervisors against specific employee targets, ii) whether the construct definition excludes other forms of hostility such as physical or sexual, iii) whether the construct's content domain captures behaviors which are not hostile and iv) the role that intention plays in the conceptual definition of the construct. The research work of Hershcovis (2011) has considered five workplace mistreatments, social undermining, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, bullying and abusive supervision, in an effort to distinguish them from each other but his findings concluded that these terms don’t add substantially to our knowledge of workplace mistreatments.

Among workplace mistreatments, workplace ostracism has been further studied to find out some other factors in collaboration are able to mitigate its negativity on human emotions. This study has explored the effect of non-physical and nonverbal mistreatment on the fear of being negatively evaluating. Al-Atwi (2017) has also provoked researchers to start focusing on pragmatic approach towards workplace ostracism and its related factors. This study model is carrying belief in reciprocity (BIR) as moderator which is sensitive to others behaviors. BIR moderates the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation in this research model. It works maximally with those workplace mistreatments which are low on rejecting scale and able enough to trigger employees to feel liable for such mistreatment. Mistreatments high in intensity due to intentional harming verbally and physically makes employees psychologically rigid and deviant to feel themselves responsible for mistreatment. This makes the soul of belief in reciprocity to fail. This was one of the reasons that non-verbal and non-physical mistreatment, workplace ostracism was selected in this research model.

Numerous ways of mistreatments might carry experiences of psychologically distinct social exclusion. Molden et al. (2009) differentiated two domains of mistreatments which carry the feelings of social exclusion explicitly and implicitly. Explicit social exclusions are those which are conducted by those workplace mistreatments which mention employees’ poor social standings, poor job performance, and other weak aspects explicitly through verbal and physical abuse. These types of explicit social exclusion clearly involve target’s rejection. Sometimes, workplace mistreatments conduct social exclusions
implicitly by indirectly communicating target’s social standing, poor job performance or other weak aspects. This is usually done by silent treatment and non-verbal communication through ignoring, keeping distance and unresponsiveness to target (Ferris et al., 2015; Molden et al., 2009; Williams, 2007). These types of implicit social exclusion clearly involve target being ignored. Ignoring other sometimes intentional and sometime may not be intentional (Ferris et al., 2008). This has provided a strong criterion for selecting the workplace ostracism as independent variable for this study as it has provided explorable horizon when act with personalized reciprocity norm. Workplace ostracism is instance of workplace mistreatments which was intended to investigate how implicit or passively ignoring others was conveyed further into fear of negative evaluation. Organizational behavior researchers have largely ignored the importance of implicit social exclusions, fear of negative evaluation and belief in reciprocity to mitigate the negative effects of workplace mistreatment. Workplace ostracism is employees’ perceptions of the extent to which they are ignored and silently treated by their coworkers. Ostracism can be at horizontal level as well as downward direct. It can be from supervisors and coworkers. It is non-verbal, non-physical, intentional and sometimes non-intentional (Ferris, 2008; Williams, 2007, 2009). Therefore, workplace ostracism represents a substantial threat to belonging, self-esteem, control, meaningful existence and hence to other personal and social resources (Ferris et al., 2015; Leary et al., 2005; Williams, 2001, 2007).

The research work of Perugini (2003) and his colleagues instrumentalised the concept of norm of reciprocity as personal norm with its three main components: belief in reciprocity, positive and negative reciprocity. The following studies did further investigate the positive and negative reciprocity relationships with other personal and organizational variables (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Burger et al., 2009). The potential of impact possesses by belief in reciprocity has been ignored completely and none of studies has tried to study its impact on other personal and organizational variables. When individuals show belief in reciprocity they preferably first apply it on themselves. They condition the situation by first giving the favors to other so that they can trigger stimuli for desired behaviors from others. If employees become more focus on belief in reciprocity preferring giving favors first to other then a multiple cycles of reciprocity come into play and more compliance among all employees can be expected. This makes the belief in reciprocity proactive in nature. This is a novel study to investigate the impact of implicit social exclusions carried out by supervisors’ and coworkers’ silent treatment on employee fear of negative evaluation in workplace can be restricted by implying the role of belief in reciprocity. In summarization, the main objectives of this study were; firstly to find out the influential aspects of workplace ostracism on employees’ fear of negative evaluation perception; secondly, to determine the influence of belief in reciprocity on the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation.

2. Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Weiss and Cropanzano’s (1996) developed and described affective events theory (AET) as psychological model designed to explain the association between emotions and feelings in the workplace and work behaviors. This theory is underlined a general belief that human beings are emotional animals and their all behaviors are directed by those emotions. These emotions are usually triggered by some affective events. In an organization an affective event is work-related events that provoke affective response. A positive affective event is one which produces positive emotional responses such as happiness and a negative
affective event is one which produces negative emotional responses such as fear. For example, in this paper research model workplace ostracism is a work related event which produces negative emotion of fear in employees for being negatively evaluated by their co-workers and supervisors. The emotion of fear is one of several human fundamental emotions. It comes on surface when one feels threat to his/her existence (Frijda, 1986), imminent danger enforcing ones to escape from situation, and uncertainty. There are two stages of fear, one is biochemical and second is emotion. When one feels fear his/her body reactions like increase in heartbeat, breath, sweating and blood pressure. Fear as an emotion varies person to person. Its intensity, frequency and duration also vary in the context of personal differences. Fear may results into discomfort, stress, anxiety and nervousness. Fear prepare individual to attain the avoidance behavior to avoid potential threat and risk attached to the situation (Kiewitz et al., 2016).

AET specifically deals with the interplay between emotional and cognitive responses to an affective event such as workplace ostracism leads to fear of negative evaluation. This is an emotional provocation of an affective event but the moderating impact of belief in reciprocity can act as catalyst which has an ability to effect the strength of relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation. This paper adopted an AET perspective of employee perspective on workplace ostracism in order to explore the emotional responses of employees to that event that leads to their fear of negative evaluation.

Twenge et al. (2007), Williams and Govan (2005), Leary and Allen (2011), and Leary, (1983) argued that social inclusion or belonging is a basic human need. This human need actually leads to other personal and social resources which are integral part of social survival (Hobfoll, 1989). If this need is threatened, individuals feel fear of negative evaluation and this fear if not confronted would lead to negative consequences like, i.e., psychological distress (Shafique et al., 2017) social anxiety, taking feedback negatively, social avoidance, shyness (Watson, 2009); whereas fear of negative evaluation may promote positively prosocial behavior, conformity, public speaking, social desirability and impression management (Zellars et al., 2003).

Negative interpersonal behaviors such as bullying, social undermining, and abusive supervision, carries the feelings of rejection (Ferris et al., 2015) whereas workplace ostracism carries feelings of being ignored and excluded (Leary et al., 2005; Williams, 2007). Both rejected or being ignored contains implicitly an aspect of negative evaluation fear. When social exclusion occurs in any form then the immediate response is always painful and distressful but it instantly followed by coping and appraisal mechanisms that direct the individuals towards thoughts and assessments (Chung & Yang, 2017; Williams & Zadro, 2005). This cognitive process usually starts to analyze the personal standings socially. Degrees of belongingness, social controls, self-esteem and meaningful existence determine the level of individuals’ personal and social resources. Threat to these resources may result from fear of negative evaluation by supervisors and peers.

Watson and Friend (1969) define fear of negative evaluation as ‘apprehension about others’ evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively. Campbell et al. (2006) provided evidence that brain activity also get change when any individual is excluded or fear of social isolation from a group. Specifically, socially excluded participants showed lower activation in the occipital cortex, parietal cortex, and right prefrontal cortex than
those individuals who were not socially isolated. These brain regions are involved in self-regulation and self-controlling processes. So the individual who is socially excluded will be less able to regulate and control themselves, this will further generates the fear of negative evaluation from his/her supervisors and peers. Thus, being victimized not only alters behavioral responses but also alters brain functioning linked with self-regulatory processes.

In the light of affective events theory, negative consequences of long-term isolation, if not socially reconnected, might take away all necessary resources of one’s interest, likely to threat individual’s self-image, social desirability, social bonds specifically with existing connections (Maner et al., 2007) and positive evaluation. So based on this following can be hypothesized as:

- **H1**: Workplace ostracism positively leads to fear of negative evaluation.

Perugini et al. (2003) proposed that the dimension of belief in reciprocity holds most ideological and cognitive part of reciprocity mechanism. Belief is a mental acceptance of concept, event, person or thing as being true even without proven or empirical evidence (Schwitzgebel & Eric, 2006). So when individuals show belief in reciprocity they preferably first apply it on themselves. They condition the situation by first giving the favors to other so that they can trigger stimuli for desired behaviors from others. If employees become more focus on belief in reciprocity preferring giving favors first to other then a multiple cycles of reciprocity come into play and more compliance among all employees can be expected. The conditional nature of belief in reciprocity and both types of behavioral reciprocity (i.e., positive and negative reciprocity) makes these constructs particularly well suited as moderator variables (Perugini & Gallucci, 2001) engendering the fear of negative evaluation to undertake prosocial behaviors.

Extant of reciprocity norm literature is evident that mistreatment faced by employees in workplace has resulted into organizational deviance outcomes like organizational deviant outcomes; such as emotional exhaustion, supervisor-directed aggression, hostility towards supervisor, resistance, negative affect, and family–work conflict (Ferris et al., 2015; Lian et al., 2014; Tepper et al., 2008; Tepper, 2007; Tepper, 2000; Ferris et al., 2008). But the construct of belief in reciprocity enables employees to think that there would be some lacking on their part of behavior which triggers anger or discomfort in supervisor and coworkers. So this mind set can also generate a general motivation in those employees who want to deal with workplace ostracism by controlling the fear of negative evaluation. So following can be hypothesized as;

Degree of belongingness, social controls, self-esteem and meaningful existence determine the level of individuals’ personal and social resources. Threat to these resources may result into tend-and-befriend reaction (Williams, 2007).

One implicit property of belief in reciprocity is that it creates the awareness and direct one’s attention towards previous actions of one-self. The conditioned nature of belief in reciprocity first considers one’s own action on which other individual’s response is dependant. So when any employee face mistreatment from others then his/her belief in reciprocity will help him/her to first focus on mistakes and errors in his/her own required behavior due to which other employees treated him/her in this way.
Workplace Ostracism and Belief in Reciprocity on Fear of Negative Evaluation

The concept of reciprocity first discussed in detail was by Gouldner (1960), he raised two important points: a) individuals should help those who have helped them and b) individuals shouldn’t injure those who have helped them. His focus was mainly on the positive reciprocity and its benefits socially but he also discussed some features of negative reciprocity in which people use to return harmful behavior to those who harmed them.

Literature on reciprocity norm can be concluded into its three aspects (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005): (a) reciprocity as a transactional pattern of interdependent exchanges, (b) reciprocity as a folk belief, and (c) reciprocity as a moral norm and individual difference.

Basically reciprocity is an implicitly acting and directing one’s behaviors according to other person’s behaviors in other words one party’s behavioral outcome is contingent upon other party’s behavior and in this way social exchange spiral move on. This interdependent exchange idea about reciprocity has been studied majorly as an obligation as well as strategy since Gouldner’s model (Perugini & Gallucci, 2001; Perugini et al., 2003; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Most interesting point to be noted is that all previous reciprocity norm research literature has studied this concept from the receiver’s aspect rather than giver’s aspect. Few definitions of reciprocity norm are as “rewarding those who are helpful and punishing those who are unhelpful”. As previously defined the Gouldner’s definition as “individuals should help those who have helped them and individuals shouldn’t injure those who have helped them”, Burger (2009) used ‘returning favors’ term in defining reciprocity norm. The biggest missing aspect in the concept of reciprocity norm is the belief in reciprocity of an individual who is first giving the favor. BIR generates the responsibility of directing other person’s behaviors and expectations that what he/she has sent or given to other will return to him/her with the same frequency.

One of the researches conducted by Sommer, Williams, Ciarocco & Baumeister (2001), in which they have found that when individuals feel that they have been ignored or other are unaware of their presence then they feel more threat towards their belongingness, sense of meaningful existence, and self-esteem. In order to lessen these threats individuals usually affiliate themselves more with other people to avoid fear of social isolation. In addition this research also found that when individuals know reasons for ostracizing treatment or if they are able to find alternative reasons for such behaviors then such individuals feel less threat to their belongingness, sense of meaningful existence, and self-esteem. But the conditioned nature of belief in reciprocity as moderator is able enough to direct individuals to find reasons of others’ mistreatments first in their own behaviors. This will motivate individuals to affiliate more with other people and decrease FNgE. Based on this following can be hypothesized as:

- **H2:** Belief in reciprocity moderates the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation.

Here, it is assumed that higher the belief in reciprocity, weaker will be the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation. This aspect of personal reciprocity norm serve as starting mechanism for balancing the social system stability (Chen et al., 2009; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Perugini et al., 2003). The research model of this study is further an attempt to allocate the initiating mechanism to belief in reciprocity, as it initiates equitable interpersonal exchange relationship.

In this study model, the relationship between WpOS and FNgE, BIR as moderator is acting as initiating trigger to control and absorb the distress of mistreatment into a positive
approach of social inclusion. Obviously, this would require a modification in emotional and thought patterns (Chen et al., 2009).

3. Research Model

Figure 1 has shown the research model. There is direct relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation. Whereas belief of reciprocity is moderating this relationship influencing the existed strength of linkage.

![](image)

**Figure 1: Interactive Effects of WpOS and BIR on FNgE.**

4. Methodology

This study followed the time-lagged design for data collection. Variables were divided into two groups and data was collected in two waves in order to control the concerns about common method biasness (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Time plays an important role in increasing or decreasing the intensity of emotions and mood. Emotions are intense and for shorter period of time as a result of some event whereas mood is less intense and for longer period of time without specific work event. So it was worthwhile to collect the data at different timings for trustable results.

4.1 Population

Population for this research was selected from education sector of Pakistan, comprising faculty and non-faculty members working at different hierarchical levels in public and private school, colleges and universities. This is very important to select that organizational environment where employees show those perceptions, attitudes and behaviors which are key area of interest and required to measure in the research model (Zhou & George, 2001).

4.2 Sample Design, Size and Procedure

Data for this study was collected from public and private school, colleges and universities where the employees are generally in frequent contact with their chairpersons and colleagues for better educational quality and addition of new professional studies and programs. The selection of target population has been made due to presence of those activities which are the main concern of this research. Target population was comprised of faculty and non-faculty members of public and private sector schools, colleges and universities. As it was not possible to reach all supervisors and employees because of
geographical dispersion of various educational institutions so convenience sampling technique was used to obtain the study sample. Practically speaking, the cost and the time available for conducting survey were also limited which in fact enforced the researchers to go for convenience sampling. Questionnaire survey method was employed to collect the data.

Data was collected at two times with the difference of four weeks duration. 400 questionnaires were distributed among the participants working in public and private sector school, colleges and universities. At time 1, data on WpOS, BIR and demographic variables was collected by employees; and at time 2, data on FNgE, was collected also by employees. So this study has been designed to control the common method biasness by collecting data at two different times (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Collecting data at two times effects measurement context and respondent mood. Measurement context is in terms of respondent environment, position on questionnaire and location. So difference in timing effects on retrieval from memory for responding questions and thereby effects correlations among variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Employees provide the data about their perceptions of WpOS, FNgE, BIR, and demographics. Out of 400 questionnaires, 332 were returned, out of these 14 were incomplete and 9 were filled just by choosing single response option. So these questionnaires were discarded. Out of total 400 questionnaires 309 questionnaires in useable form. So, acceptable response rate was 77%.

4.3 Instruments

4.3.1. Workplace Ostracism

Ferris et al. (2008) has developed ten-item scale for measuring WpOS. This scale was five-point Likert scale. Response options ranged from 1 (‘strongly disagree’) to 5 (‘strongly agree’). Sample items included ‘Others ignored me at work’, ‘Others left the area when I entered’, and ‘My greetings have gone unanswered at work’. Cronbach’s alpha for this measure is 0.89.

4.3.2. Fear of Negative Evaluation

It was measured by 12-items adapted from Leary, (1983) brief version of fear of negative evaluation. Participants responded on five-point Likert scales. This scale is measured on 5-likert scale from 1=not at all characteristic of me; to 5 = extremely characteristic of me, with Cronbach’s alpha \( \alpha = .92 \). Sample items included “I am afraid that other people will not approve me”, and “Other peoples’ opinion of me do not bother me (R)”.

4.3.3. Belief in Reciprocity.

A 9-item scale developed by Perugini et al. (2003). This scale is measured on 5-likert scale from 1=strongly disagree; to 5 = strongly agree. Sample statements are “I fear the reactions of a person I have previously treated badly, “If I work hard, I expect it will be repaid.” Internal reliability of scale is 0.867. Table 1 provides the summary.

4.3.4. Control Variables

We controlled several variables that may affect the relationship among our study variables. So to control the potential impact this study has controlled demographic variables such as employee designation (EmpDes), employee tenure (EmpTen), employee education (EmpEdu) and employee gender (EmpGen), as previous research (Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998) suggests that these status variables affect employee responses to voice.
Table 1: Instruments Used in the Study and Their Sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WpOS</td>
<td>Ferris et al. (2008)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNgE</td>
<td>Leary, (1983)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIR</td>
<td>Perugini et al. (2003)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Data Analysis and Results

For data analysis SPSS/ AMOS latest version was used as a tool for Confirmatory factor analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and multiple hierarchal regression and correlation techniques were utilized for testing the relationship among the study variables.

5.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

SPSS was used for the analysis of exploratory factor analysis. Before running the factor analysis, it is important to check adequacy of data by KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and Bartlett’s test. If KMO and Bartlett’s tests are significant than SPSS further do factor analysis. Table 2 shows the results. The value of KMO was 0.895. This suggested that the data was suitable for factor analysis. Whereas Bartlett’s test was significant that confirmed the sufficient correlation among the items (Field, 2000). These two tests provided the support for the validity of instrument (Liu et al., 2009) and allowed moving further to modify the instrument.

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett’s Test

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .895 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 4501.199 |
| | Degree of Freedom | 351 |
| | Significance | .000 |

Maximum likelihood factor analysis was used as exploratory factor analysis and promax as rotation method. Maximum likelihood factor extraction method gives best results with correlated data set. Maximum likelihood factor analysis is more formal in a statistical framework and allows for the calculation of fit indices, and significance testing (de Winter & Dodou, 2012). It should be used when researcher has to go for confirmatory factor analysis further. Promax rotation is an oblique method. It is also recommended when it is know that there is correlation among factors, based on theoretically hypotheses.

Tabachnick and Fiddell (2007, p. 646) argue that “Perhaps the best way to decide between orthogonal and oblique rotation is to request oblique rotation [e.g., direct oblimin or promax from SPSS] with the desired number of factors Brown (2009b) and look at the correlations among factors. If factor correlations are not driven by the data, the solution remains nearly orthogonal. Look at the factor correlation matrix for correlations around .32 and above. If correlations exceed .32, then go for oblique rotation.” In table 3, the correlation between factor 1 and 2 was 0.596. So the selection of maximum likelihood
factor analysis and promax rotation was best suited. This table shows the correlation among the factors extracted in exploratory factor analysis.

Table 3: Factor Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.596</td>
<td>.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.596</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 4 contains only those items that had factor loadings more than 0.4. Columns are representing Cronbach alpha, Eigen values and cumulative variance respectively. Each eigenvalue shows the variance produced by the factor. The exploratory factor analysis is done on the basis of correlation matrix so all factors are standardized having variance of 1 and total variance is always equal to total number of factors available in the analysis. Those items which are not pure or not loaded properly on one factor should be deleted. But luckily this was not the case in this factor analysis. Three factors were extracted. All items were properly loaded on their relevant factors.
Table 4: Pattern Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
<th>Eigen Value</th>
<th>Cumulative Variance %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WpOS8</td>
<td>.865</td>
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</tr>
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<td>WpOS6</td>
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<td>WpOS10</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>WpOS7</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WpOS1</td>
<td>.690</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WpOS3</td>
<td>.637</td>
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<td>WpOS2</td>
<td>.557</td>
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<td>WpOS9</td>
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<td>WpOS4</td>
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<td>WpOS5</td>
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<tr>
<td>FNgE3</td>
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<td>FNgE5</td>
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<td>FNgE12</td>
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<td>FNgE9</td>
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<td>BIR2</td>
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<td>BIR5</td>
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<tr>
<td>BIR6</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The reliability analysis (Cronbach alpha) of each factor shows satisfactory results. According to George and Mallery (2003) the rules of thumb for Cronbach alphas are: “>_ .9 – Excellent, _ > .8 – Good, _ > .7 – Acceptable, _ > .6 – Questionable, _ > .5 – Poor, and _ < .5 – Unacceptable” (p. 231). An acceptable criterion for Cronbach alpha was 0.7.

The Cronbach alpha of all factors of interest was greater than 0.7 in this study. The Cronbach alpha of WpOS was 0.89, FNgE has 0.915 and BIR has 0.867. Table 4 is presenting the summary.

5.2. Structural Equation Modeling

It statistically analyzing technique used to analyze multiple variables for having structural relationships. It is combination of confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis. It is
helpful to understand the structural relationship through model fit among unobserved variable and observed variable relationship.

5.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in AMOS

CFA is a statistical technique used to confirm the factor structure of a set of measured variables. CFA allows the researcher to test the hypothesis that there is a relationship present between measured variables and their underlying latent constructs. CFA differs from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) mainly by specifying a factor structure based on proposed theoretical relationships. CFA is a procedure for testing hypotheses reasoned by theory. CFA allows testing hypotheses related to construct validity. It can also provide statistical significance of the effect of a latent variable on each of the measured variables through model fit.

When first the CFA was run it gave loadings for few items lower than 0.5. Their loadings were disturbing the loadings and correlation values of other items and among variables. So items, WpOS1, WpOS2, WpOS5, BIR1 and BIR10 were removed. There were four items in FNgE which were reversely coded but majority of respondents while responding the item statements treated them like other items in FNgE and responded them high on scale. So the loadings of these items were also lower than 0.5. So these items were also deleted.

Figure 2 represents CFA model and each item’s loadings under their respective latent variables. Latent variable of workplace ostracism (WpOS) included WpOS3, WpOS4, WpOS6, WpOS7, WpOS8, WpOS9 and WpOS10 and their loadings were 0.64, 0.79, 0.78, 0.69, 0.73, 0.85 and 0.63 respectively. Their average is 0.73 which is greater than 0.65, so convergent validity for a construct is good. Latent variable of BIR included BIR2, BIR3, BIR4, BIR5, BIR6, BIR7, BIR8 and BIR9, their respective loadings were 0.66, 0.70, 0.64, 0.69, 0.65, 0.59, 0.72 and 0.62. Their average is also above 0.65. Latent variable of FNgE included FNgE1, FNgE3, FNgE5, FNgE6, FNgE8, FNgE9, FNgE11 and FNgE12 and their respective loadings were 0.68, 0.79, 0.82, 0.82, 0.78, 0.86, 0.59 and 0.68. Each loading was greater than 0.5 and their average was 0.75 which shows good convergent construct validity. Covariance between WpOS and BIR was 0.20, WpOS and FNgE was 0.45, and BIR and FNgE was 0.28. Covariance means how two variables vary or changes together. This shows some kind of dependency between the variables. 0 covariance means two factors are independent. Covariance can be positively or negatively vary. Positive covariance is positive variability present between variables whereas negative covariance shows variability in one variable produces positive variability in other variable. The covariance between WpOS and FNgE was highest.
Figure 2: CFA For Theoretical Research Model
5.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is the degree of shared variance between the latent variables of the model. The convergent validity can be determined when average of items loadings on their respective factors are higher than 0.7. If their average is also more than > 0.7, then it’s good on convergence.

The convergent validity of the measurement model can be assessed by the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). AVE should be higher than 0.5. Reliability should be higher than 0.7 for all constructs of a measurement model. AVE is sum of each squared factor loading divided it by the number of all items in one factor (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010).

\[
\text{AVE} = \frac{\sum \lambda^2}{n}
\]

Figure 2 is showing CFA of whole model carrying all three variables along with their respective items. All items regression weights are also shown. Table 5 shows each variable range from lowest to highest regression weight. Factor ranges for WpOS, FNgE and BIR were .64-.83, .64-.88 and .60-.22 respectively. AVE for WpOS, FNgE and BIR were .51, .57 and .51 respectively. All AVE values were greater than 0.5.

5.2.3 Discriminant Validity

There were no cross-loadings of any item on more than one factor in pattern matrix of EFA in table 4. Correlation among factors should be < 0.7. In factor correlation matrix in Table 3, there was not any correlation among factors more than > 0.7. Here the greatest correlation is 0.596 (0.596) square = 0.355. 35% variance is correlated which low enough to be handled. Hence factors have their distinctiveness.

Hair et al. (2010) described another way also to calculate the discriminate validity by comparing the AVE of a construct with Average shared squared variance (ASV). ASV of a construct is an average of squared correlation with other constructs in measurement model.

\[
\text{ASV} = \frac{\sum r^2}{n}
\]

Where \(r^2\) is squared correlation and n is total number of correlations with other constructs. The rule of thumb for discriminant validity is that AVE should be greater than ASV, i-e. \(\text{AVE} > \text{ASV}\). Table 5 has shown all the results of reliability and validity. AVE of each construct was greater than ASV with other constructs in measurement model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Factor Range</th>
<th>Reliability (\alpha)</th>
<th>Average Variance Extracted (AVE)</th>
<th>Average Shared Variance (ASV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WpOS</td>
<td>.63-.80</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNgE</td>
<td>.64-.82</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIR</td>
<td>.60-.82</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Reliability and Validity Table
5.2.4 Correlations
It is a statistical technique that shows, how pairs of variables are related. Correlation helps to find out the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables such as if two variables increase or decrease in the same direction then the relationship is called direct or positive, at the other hand, if with the increase in one variable other decreases then the correlation is said to be negative or inverse (Khair, 2011). Table 6 is showing correlations for all variables. Correlation between WpOS and FNgE was 0.54, p<0.01, which was significant. Correlation between WpOS and BIR was 0.176, p<0.01, it was also significant and between FNgE and BIR it was 0.221, p<0.01. The correlations between control variables and research variables are also shown in the table. Employee gender and employee education has not shown significant correlation with WpOS, FNgE and BIR. Whereas employee designation and employee tenure have shown significant correlations with WpOS, FNgE and BIR. The correlations between EmpDes and WpOS was 0.160, p<0.01 it was significant. Between EmpDes and FNgE it was 0.137, p<0.05 and between EmpDes and moderation WpOSxBIR, it was .156, p<0.01, these were also significant. EmpTen has shown significant correlations with moderated term WpOSxBIR, it was 0.141, p<0.01. EmpDes and EmpTen were having significant impact on FNgE so these control variables were further considered in Structure equation modeling.

Table 6: Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EmpGen</th>
<th>EmpDes</th>
<th>EmpTen</th>
<th>EmpEdu</th>
<th>WpOS</th>
<th>FNgE</th>
<th>BIR</th>
<th>WpOSxBIR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EmpGen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.146*</td>
<td>.242**</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>-.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EmpDes</td>
<td>-.146*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>-.297**</td>
<td>.160**</td>
<td>.137*</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.156**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EmpTen</td>
<td>.242**</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.069</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.141*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EmpEdu</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>.297**</td>
<td>-.069</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>-.014</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WpOS</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>.160**</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.540**</td>
<td>.176**</td>
<td>.926**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNgE</td>
<td>-.084</td>
<td>.137*</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.540**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.221**</td>
<td>.539**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIR</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>-.014</td>
<td>.176**</td>
<td>.221**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.502**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WpOSxBIR</td>
<td>-.056</td>
<td>.156**</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.926**</td>
<td>.539**</td>
<td>.502**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). N=309
**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N=309

5.2.5 Path Analysis, Direct, Indirect Effects
Path Analysis shows regressed relationship among variables. It is like multivariate regression analysis. In hypothesized research model, path analysis has ability to explain each path, direct and indirect, dependency of endogenous variable on exogenous variables.

In AMOS, the model fit statistics for structural model found the direct effect of WpOS on FNE. i.e chi-square $\chi^2 = 173.531$, degree of freedom (df) = 66, CMIN/DF=2.629, Normed Fit Index (NFI)=.921, Tucker Lewis index (TLI)=.930, Comparative Fit Index (CFI)=.930.
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.949, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)= .929, Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)= .887, Root Mean square Residual(RMR)= .036, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation(RMSEA)= .073. These model fit values revealed that the direct effect of WpOS on FNE was supported and the model effectively fits the data.

Figure 3 demonstrates direct regressed relationship between independent WpOS and dependent FNgE variables. Table 7 shows Regression tables. Regression analysis is statistical technique for analyzing the linear relationship between a dependent variable and independent variable. The $R^2$ (.47, $p < 0.05$) shows that WpOS was able to explain 47% of variation in the employee job satisfaction.

Beta coefficient WpOS was able to explain 0.67 of change in FNgE. This beta value indicated the importance of independent variable WpOS in predicting the employee FNgE. Results showed that WpOS ($B = 0.667, p < 0.05$), this showed that this value was explaining the 67% of change in dependent variable by independent variable which is high enough to be significantly different from 0. This beta coefficient generally showed the rate of change in FNgE as a function of change in the WpOS. Hence hypothesis 1 was accepted.

Table 7: Regression Weights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficient</th>
<th>Standardized $(B)$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate ($B$)</td>
<td>S.E.</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), WpOS  
b. Dependent Variable: FNgE

5.2.6 Moderating Effects of BIR on the Relationship between Wpos and Fnge

Figure 4 demonstrates moderation impact on the relationship between independent WpOS and dependent FNgE variables. Table 8 shows Regression table. Figure 4 is showing regression coefficients for each relationship. Linear relationship between WpOS and FNgE was -0.15 ($p>0.05$), between BIR and FNgE was -0.18 ($p>0.05$), where the regression coefficient between WpOSxBIR and FNgE was 0.215 ($p<0.05$). This beta coefficient generally showed the rate of change in FNgE as a function of change in the WpOSxBIR. The standardized beta coefficients of WpOS, BIR, WpOSxBIR for FNgE were -0.10, -0.12 and 0.78 respectively. These results showed that the moderating impact of WpOSxBIR was significant on the relationship between WpOS and FNgE. This moderating impact has made the impact of WpOS on FNgE insignificant as well as negative; i.e. as WpOS increased, the FNgE decreased, due to better understanding of
situation provided by BIR. Similarly the impact of BIR on FNgE was also negative and insignificant.

The $R^2 (0.40, p < 0.05)$ of overall moderated model showed that WpOSxBIR was able to explain 40% of variation in the employee FNgE. So the hypothesis 2 was also accepted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficient</th>
<th>Standardized $B$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Estimate ($B$)</td>
<td>S.E.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>WpOS$^a$</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>BIR$^b$</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>WpOS x BIR$^c$</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), WpOS
b. Predictors: (Constant), WpOS, BIR
c. Predictors: (Constant), WpOS, BIR, WpOS x BIR
d. Dependent Variable: FNgE

6. Discussion

Fear of negative evaluation was found positively and significantly related to workplace ostracism. Numerous studies indicated that one common response to ostracism is to think, feel and behave in ways that improve the inclusionary status of the individual because otherwise it would generate the fear of negative evaluation from his/her supervisors and peers. Thus, being victimize of ostracism not only alters behavioral responses but also
alters brain functioning linked with self-regulatory processes. Negative consequences of long-term isolation, if not socially reconnected, might take away all necessary resources of one’s interest, likely to threat individual’s self-image, social desirability, social bonds specifically with existing connections (Maner et al., 2007) and positive evaluation. More individual perceives workplace ostracism more s/he felt fear of negative evaluation ($H_1$).

This study also contributed to the ostracism and employee voice literature by bringing insight as to how belief in reciprocity can aid an employee in dealing with ostracism in the workplace. Williams (2007) had drawn attention for additional assessment of ostracism under individual and contextual influences. He highlighted the point why individual behave in a conflicting way when facing the ostracism? This directed potential research work to explore latent moderators that may give indications about how individuals respond to ostracism in specific circumstances and cope with it. As evidenced by this study, it showed that being following the norm of reciprocity one becomes clued-up about the context in which ostracism occurs and having the capability to efficiently deal with others. This can mitigate the negative effects of ostracism on employee voice and even convert its potential negativity into productive employee voicing. More interestingly, it has been found that one’s belief in reciprocity could change the direction of relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation. This is what has been evidenced in the results. The conditioning effects of workplace ostracism have decreased its strength of relationship with fear of negative evaluation as per value of belief in reciprocity increased. Belief in reciprocity creates the awareness and direct one’s attention towards previous actions of one-self. The conditioned nature of belief in reciprocity first considers one’s own action on which other individual’s response is dependant. So when any employee faces ostracism from others then his/her belief in reciprocity will help him/her to first focus on mistakes and errors in his/her own required behavior due to which other employees treated him/her in this way. This better understanding with the situation will produce less fear of negative evaluation ($H_2$).

6.1. Theoretical Contribution

The theory of affective event theory endorses the relationship among workplace ostracism, fear of negative evaluation and belief in reciprocity in the context of affective workplace event. The three key components of AET are emotions, moods, work environment features and evaluative judgment. This research explained that how workplace interpersonal stress can be related to employees’ fear of negative evaluation. If not controlled, fear of negative evaluation can result into decreased job satisfaction and job performance.

This research has also tried to employ previously established beliefs to control and reduce the impact of workplace ostracism on employees’ emotional state of fear for being negatively evaluated. Belief in reciprocity is an individual belief that his/her act/behavior determines the way other individual will reciprocate it later. This is self-oriented concept of reciprocity, i.e. If I work hard, I expect it will be repaid; I avoid being impolite because I don’t want other being impolite with me. So the individuals who have high belief in reciprocity, they are more prone to hold themselves responsible for supervisory abuse and colleagues’ social exclusion and ignoring behavior. This motivates them to gives reasons in their mind about such behavior. They focus and ponder more about their own prior behaviors which resulted into ostracism. In this way their fear of negative evaluation can be decreased because now they are able to point out and control the behavioral lack on their end.
7. Conclusion

This research study has tried to investigate the effects of workplace ostracism on employee fear of negative evaluation based on Affective Events theory (AET). This model verified that although workplace ostracism led employees to fear of negative evaluation but belief in reciprocity as moderator has this property to weaken this relationship. The belief in reciprocity has set the degree of employees’ understanding to avoid fear of negative evaluation in which they felt themselves responsible too for workplace mistreatment. Data was collected from education sector of Pakistan, comprising faculty and non-faculty members working at different hierarchical levels in public and private school, colleges and universities. Results have confirmed the hypotheses and found the moderating impacts of belief in reciprocity on the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation

Moderating impact of belief in reciprocity not only significant on the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation but it also terminated the positive relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation and changed it into a negative relationship. This implied that when workplace ostracism increased, the fear of negative evaluation decreased due to presence of belief in reciprocity essence. Along with making workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation a negative relationship, employees high on belief in reciprocity had also shown clearly weak a relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation, which means that ability of workplace ostracism to explain the variation in fear of negative evaluation in the presence of belief in reciprocity also decreased.

The practical implications for managers is by more focusing on implicit property of belief in reciprocity as it creates the awareness and direct one’s attention towards previous actions of one-self. For managers it is very important to use this property of norm of reciprocity strategically in the interest of organization and employees. Different training and awareness sessions should be organized in which importance of reciprocity belief should be highlighted and brought forward at employee conscious level. They may obtain organizational behavioral objectives by making the employees to feel responsible not only for their own behaviors but also other’s response. Since the norm of reciprocity has been found to be effective resource in dealing with workplace ostracism, organizational mangers should search for certain approaches which will be helpful in developing and enhancing the belief in reciprocity in employees. In stressful situation, belief in reciprocity enables employees to think that there would be some lacking on their part of behavior which triggers anger or discomfort in supervisor and coworkers. So this mind set can also generate a general motivation in those employees who want to deal with workplace ostracism by controlling the fear of negative evaluation. One suggestion can be that organization should persuade employees for frequent social interaction as well as it should provide opportunities to them for interactions such as business dinners, event celebrations and family picnics. This will be helpful to build relationships with each other and there will be fewer chances to observe ostracism. Informal meetings rather than formal organizational meetings can allow individual to observe and show other aspects of personalities which are a normal get suppressed in organizational formalities. For employees, more chances to enjoy delightful and satisfactory time with each other, there will be more chances for norm of reciprocity to come into play.
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The recommendations for future research in the context of present study are: firstly, the target population for data collection should be replaced to other than private-public education institutions faculties/non-faculties to check the reliability and variability of results. Secondly, it is highly recommended to also go for other aspects of norm of reciprocity Perugini et al. (2003), positive reciprocity and negative reciprocity, on the relationship between workplace ostracism and FNgE. Thirdly, other types of workplace mistreatments, like abusive supervision, generalized hierarchical abuse, petty tyranny, victimization, workplace bullying, supervisor aggression, supervisor undermining, and negative mentoring experiences (Tepper, 2007; Hershcovis, 2011) should also be researched as independent variable for predicting the change in FNgE in the presence of BIR as moderator. Lastly, in the methodology part, it is highly recommended that the conditional nature of belief in reciprocity on the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation (Hayes, 2013). Hayes (2013) has developed a tool with name of PROCESS to deal with moderation and mediations and both. He has provided 76 models of conditional indirect effects. These models should also be used to test the conditional moderating effects of belief in reciprocity at its different values on the relationship between workplace ostracism and fear of negative evaluation.

REFERENCES


