T.C.
ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
SOCIAL SCIENCE INSTITUTE

EFFECTS OF WORKPLACE OSTRACISM ON WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS, ANTAGONISTIC WORK BEHAVIOUR, AND WELL-BEING: MEDIATED BY PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT

PhD. Thesis

Umma DAURA SA'ID GARBA

Ankara - 2023

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PhD. Thesis

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APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis study titled as "EFFECTS OF WORKPLACE OSTRACISM ON WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS, ANTAGONISTIC WORK BEHAVIOUR, AND WELL-BEING: MEDIATED BY PERCEIVED ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT" prepared by UMMA DAURA SA'ID GARBA was approved by a large majority by the following jury as a Ph.D thesis in Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University Social Sciences Institute, in the program of Management and Organisation.

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ETHICAL DECLARATION

I, Umma DAURA Sa'id Garba, declare that this dissertation was carried out by me alone under the supervision of Asst. Prof. Dr Hande Özgen, Department of Management and Organisation, Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University. I attest that this dissertation is the work of the author alone and has not been submitted previously either wholly or partly to qualify for any other academic award from other universities. I also declare that I have no research ethical violations regarding patents, copyrights, and rules. All sources of data paid, and unpaid help, editorial work, and other scholarly information used in this dissertation are acknowledged. 24/02/2023

Umma DAURA Sa'id Garba

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ABSTRACT

Effects of Workplace Ostracism on Withdrawal Behaviours, Antagonistic Work Behaviour, and Well-Being: Mediated by Perceived Organisational Support

This study investigates the impacts of workplace ostracism and perceived organisational support on psychological and physical withdrawal behaviours, antagonistic work behaviour and well-being. In addition, it was also tested whether the perception of workplace ostracism differs according to gender, marital status, and employment types of the employees. And lastly, it was tested if perceived organisational support has a mediating role between workplace ostracism and outcome variables. Convenience sampling method was used, and a total of 320 participants comprising 90 females and 230 males from Nigerian oil and gas companies participated in this study. The data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science Software application. Three research questions were proposed. Testing the first research questions; thus, (does demographic traits of gender, marital status, work experience, and employment status) of employees make any difference in terms of workplace ostracism? This question was addressed using a t-test for independent groups, and ANOVA. Results show that females, single employees, and part-time employees perceive more workplace ostracism. The second research question is: does workplace ostracism and perceived organisational support significantly predict psychological withdrawal behaviour, physical withdrawal behaviour, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being? In answering this question, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted, and the results revealed that, employees experiencing workplace ostracism will likely engage in psychological withdrawal behaviours when their perceptions of organisational support decreases. Findings on the second hierarchical regression analysis revealed that; employees experiencing workplace ostracism may engage in antagonistic work behaviour. The third research question is: does perceived organisational support mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and psychological withdrawal behaviour, physical withdrawal behaviour, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being? On this, mediation analysis was performed using Hayes Process Macro Model. Results showed that perceived organisational support had a positive and significant mediation role in the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being and between workplace ostracism and psychological withdrawal behaviour.

Keywords: workplace ostracism; psychological withdrawal behaviours; physical withdrawal behaviours; antagonistic work behaviour; well-being; perceived organisational support

ÖZET

Örgütsel Dışlanmanın Geri Çekilme Davranışları, Düşmanca Davranışı ve İyi Oluş Üzerindeki Etkileri: Algılanan Örgütsel Desteğin Aracılığı

Bu çalışma, örgütsel dışlanmanın ve algılanan örgütsel desteğin psikolojik ve fiziksel geri çekilme davranışları, düşmanca iş davranışları ve iyi oluş üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktadır. Ayrıca çalışanların cinsiyet, medeni durum ve istihdam türüne göre örgütsel dışlanma algısının farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığı da test edilmiştir. Kolayda örnekleme yönteminin kullanıldığı çalışmaya Nijerya petrol ve gaz şirketlerinden 90 kadın ve 230 erkek olmak üzere toplam 320 katılımcı katılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler Statistical Package for Social Science Software uygulaması kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Üç araştırma sorusu önerilmiştir. İlk araştırma sorusu çalışanların demografik özelliklerinin (cinsiyet, medeni durum, iş deneyimi ve çalışma durumu) örgütsel dışlanma açısından anlamlı fark yaratıp yaratmadığını test etmek üzerinedir. Bu soru, bağımsız gruplar için t-testi ve ANOVA ile test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, kadınların, bekar çalışanların ve yarı zamanlı çalışanların örgütsel dışlanmayı daha fazla algıladıklarını göstermektedir. İkinci araştırma sorusu, işyerinde dışlanma ve algılanan örgütsel destek, psikolojik geri çekilme davranışını, fiziksel geri çekilme davranışını, düşmanca iş davranışını ve iyi oluşu anlamlı olarak yor damakta mıdır? olarak belirtilebilir. Pearson korelasyon analizi ve üç ayrı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılarak soru test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, örgütsel dışlanma algılayan çalışanların örgütsel destek algıları azaldığında psikolojik geri çekilme davranışları sergileyebileceklerini, örgütsel dışlanmanın düşmanca iş davranışlarına neden olabileceği Üçüncü araştırma sorusu ise, algılanan örgütsel desteğin örgütsel dışlanma ile psikolojik geri çekilme davranışı, fiziksel geri çekilme davranışı, düşmanca iş davranışı ve iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık edip etmediğinin test edilmesine ilişkindir. Araştırma sorusunu test etmek için Hayes Process Macro kullanılarak aracılık analizleri yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar algılanan örgütsel desteğin örgütsel dışlanma ile iyi oluş ve örgütsel dışlanma ile psikolojik geri çekilme davranışı arasındaki ilişkide pozitif ve anlamlı aracı rolü olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: örgütsel dışlanma; psikolojik geri çekilme davranışı; fiziksel geri çekilme davranışı; düşmanca iş davranışı; iyi oluş; algılanan örgütsel destek.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AYBU	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CWB	Counter productive Work Behaviour
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
IBM SPSS	IBM Statistical Packages for Social Sciences
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
NNPC	Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation
OST	Organisational Support Theory
PhyWB	Physical Withdrawal Behaviour
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
PsyWB	Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour
SET	Social Exchange Theory
TNT	Temporal Needs Threat

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

The success of any organisation is dependent upon many factors among which include workplace relationships, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work behaviour, and well-being. This implies that in so far that the employer of labour makes an effort to accomplish the organisation's goals, there must be a mechanism for ensuring every employee relate with one another within the ambits of love, cooperation and appreciation of self-esteem, self-concept and commitment to organisational performance. The significance of interpersonal relationships within the workplace can never be overemphasized. This can be established between employer and employee as well as between one employee and another.

According to Berscheid and Ammazzalorso (2004) employees relate within the organisation but are interdependent with one another in terms of behaviour, attitude or otherwise. Any change in the behaviour or attitude of one employee will produce a change in the behaviour of another employee. Interpersonal relationship among employees constitutes a daily association between employees or heads of the sections and supervisors. These interactions are normal and a fragment of the work setting. They are usually pleasing and creative but often the source of bullying, frustration, conflict, and tension. Good interpersonal relationships would improve decision-making process as a precursor to an improved organisation's performance (Pacheco, De Serpa Ana, & Caldeira, 2015). Obakpolo, (2015) argues that positive workplace relationship is essential for the attainment of organisational goals.

In today's working environment, employees face a lot of challenges regarding what they perceive to be mistreatment (e.g., sexual harassment, interpersonal conflicts, abusive supervision), harassment, incivility, bullying, and ostracism from their supervisors, managers and sometimes among their colleagues (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018; Hitlan et al., 2006). Ostracism has remained a keen vital issue in the

workplace that has received significant scholarly attention in recent time. Gamian-Wilk and Madeja-Bien (2018) conceptualized and distinguished workplace ostracism from workplace deviance, incivility, and bullying. Hence, Sao and Wadhwani (2018) in their qualitative study argued that workplace ostracism is more distressing than harassment as it causes social pain and demoralizes employees.

In the study of Robinson, O'Reilly and Wang (2013, p. 203) workplace ostracism was described as an act of " omission of some specific socially expected behaviours and snubbing attitudes by an individual or group which are targeted against another individual or group within an organisational setting." To this end, workplace ostracism elucidated the extent at which employee came to the realisation that they are being socially ignored in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2008; Tariq & Amir, 2019; Wu et al., 2012). Workplace ostracism usually occur in an organisation where the manager or supervisor or any superior officer decides to ignore, neglect, or exclude an employee or employees of same rank or his subordinate(s) during conversation or personal-related interaction and/or task-related interaction (Robinson & Schabram, 2017).

In another view, Liu and Xia (2016) added that workplace ostracism includes behaviours, such as, (rejecting to) declining to talk or avoiding behaviour or eye contact with the ostracized individual, cold shoulder, or refusing to respond to greeting. The research conducted by Sao and Wadhwani (2018) identified four instances of ostracism often carried out at the workplace which include: (a) to stop conversation whenever an individual enters the office, (b) desperate attempt to make other persons feel bad and bullying (c) total disregard to opinion of subordinates and some employees, and (d) passing unhealthy remarks against an individual in an arrogant way with an intention to cause humiliation to a person. Ostracism behaviours could also occur in the form of outright rejection, silent treatment meted on other persons, actions that upset others, and poor response attitude among others.

Other critical incidents of workplace ostracism as rightly put by Sao and Wadhwani (2018) are excluding an individual from all forms of conversations, deserting the area whenever someone enters, feeling of rejection, feeling of being unnoticed at workplace, and absence of positive communication between employees. Among the factors

highlighted that can cause workplace ostracism include co-workers/colleagues, oneself, organisation culture, supervisors as well as the work setting (Sao & Wadhwani, 2018).

Previous research (Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018; Gkorezis & Bellou, 2016; Tahreem et al., 2017; Tariq & Amir, 2019; Zhao, Peng, & Sheard, 2013) have recognized that workplace ostracism is described as "pervasive workplace phenomenon". Liu and Xia (2016) explained that it poses a serious threat to the organisation. In other words, workplace ostracism has variously been identified to have detrimental impact on employee's effectiveness and organisational output (Ferris et al., 2008; Gkorezis & Bellou, 2016; Hitlan & Noel, 2009; Liu & Xia, 2016; Oaten et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2013; Tariq & Amir, 2019; Wu et al., 2012; Wu, Liu, & Xu, 2010).

In real sense, the felt effects of workplace ostracism have been established both at the organisational and at individual levels. At the organisation level, workplace ostracism affects the actual turnover of the organisation, while at the individual level, it tends to affect the negative behaviour such as, psychological withdrawal behaviour, physical withdrawal behaviour, antagonistic work behaviour and also it affects the well-being of employee (Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018; Tariq & Amir, 2019). In this study, physical withdrawal behaviour (PhyWB), psychological withdrawal behaviour (PsyWB), antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being would be considered for interrogation with focus on how workplace ostracism affects the variables under study. Also, the resultant consequence on the mediation role of perceived organisational support will be investigated.

Withdrawal behaviour could be perceived when the ostracized employee come to work late or even absent from work often. It could also be perceived where there is turnover, psychological distress, passive compliance, and burnout (Fiset, Al Hajj, & Vongas, 2017; Ferris et al., 2008; Mahfooz et al., 2017; O'Reilly et al., 2015; Tahreem et al., 2019).

Antagonistic work behaviour at workplace is also considered as an outcome of workplace ostracism. Studies have indicated that workplace ostracism is counterproductive (Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018; Tariq & Amir, 2019). It is argued that ostracized employee or employees often displays aggressive actions (Twenge et al., 2001; Williams, 2009). Research has also confirmed that workplace ostracism could threaten employee

well-being (Choi, 2020; Ferris et al., 2008). Choi (2020) elucidated that one of the effects of workplace ostracism is that it brings about reduction in social interaction and is a contributing stress factor that reduces the worker's resources (e.g., self-esteem, time, and energy), and in the end, impact the health of employees both physical and mental (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008).

However, previous studies have different viewpoints regarding ostracism, but they focused majorly on the relationship between ostracism and organisation. Among these views include Wang, Qin, and Zhao (2021) workplace ostracism, organisational citizenship behaviour and affective commitment; Rehman et. al. (2021) investigated the mediating and moderating role of workplace ostracism on organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment; Tahreem et. al. (2021) studied workplace ostracism and well-being among others. While scanty literature could be found on its effect on multi variables like, PhyWB, PsyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. Moreover, findings in their respective and separate studies on the dependent variables could not be applied to the current study area, i.e., selected oil companies in Nigeria, hence this study.

Issues related to being ignored or excluded in the workplace has posed a serious threat to most organisation's employees in Nigeria. Employees in many organisations in the country are experiencing a form of ostracism whether in their personal conversation or task-related interactions among their colleagues. This action sometimes causes serious interpersonal conflicts in the workplace, especially if it coincidentally occurs among employees of different ethnic groups or religious entity. Extant literature had however identified and discussed the effects of ostracism on both organisation and employees, but none of these studies to the researcher's knowledge devoted its attention to the oil and gas sector in Nigeria. Equally, there have not been scholarly attention to interrogate the effects of workplace ostracism on PhyWB, PsyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being in the selected oil companies in Nigeria.

In view of this, the current study is aimed at interrogating how workplace ostracism affects employees within the selected companies, with implications particularly for PhyWB, PsyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. Moreover, it is also aimed to investigate the mediating role of POS in the relationship between workplace ostracism and the outcome variables mentioned above.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

One of the challenges organisations faced in this modern time is intense competition, pressure from both within and outside the environment. These issues are sometimes the cause stress, tension and as a result affect employees' well-being as well as their behaviour and attitudes in the organisation such as withdrawal behaviours and antagonistic work behaviours. In today's modern workplace, senior executive, supervisors, and stakeholders are realizing the psychological impact and the tension that employees faced (Lahad, 1993), as such, they are tasked with the responsibility to ensure a free and less problematic working conditions to all employees. Therefore, perceived organisational support will encourage and improve the well-being of the employees which in turn will benefit the organisations (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

1.3. Aims and Importance of the Study

The aim of this research is to study employee's perception or feelings regarding how they are treated by their supervisors, managers and co-workers in Nigerian oil and gas sector. Although previous studies in Nigeria have not captured the type of variables used in the study. As such, our focus is to investigate how this feeling affect employee's PhyWB, PsyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, as well as well-being. Similarly, the research will attempt to analyse how POS will mediate the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables.

Many studies carried out indicated that ostracism is the cause of some negative behaviours, which in turn leads to some form of negative outcomes which affects both individual and the organisation (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018; Twenge, Catanese, & Baumeister, 2002, 2003). Because of the aforementioned outcomes of workplace ostracism by previous studies, the researcher developed interest to study workplace ostracism as this area of study has never been studied in the available literature of organisational behaviour in Nigeria.

1.4. Significance of the Study

This research is expected to be beneficial to researchers in the field of management and organisation, organisation behaviour, psychology as well as managers in both small, medium and large organisations. It would help researchers and managers to understand the extent of workplace ostracism in the organisation. Additionally, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being of its employees, and how perceived organisational support mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. Ostracism as described by researchers has devastating effect on employees and the organisations (Fiset, Al Hajj & Vongas, 2017).

Because of the frequency at which it occurred and its impact on both employee and the organisation, it should attract researchers to continue unearthing its effects on organisational and employee effectiveness. It is also expected that this research would add to the existing literature in the area of study, and on how organisations can effectively manage their employees' behaviour within the organisation. This study is also significant because it would address a lot of issues bothering on employees' negative behaviour, and well-being, especially in a heterogeneous society, such as Nigeria. Although, workplace ostracism has been studied by various researchers in Northern America, Europe, and Asia, not much has been done in the African context let alone Nigeria. As far as the researcher is aware, no such study has been carried out in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria. It is believed that the study would fill in these existing gaps, and as such serve as a secondary source for academia and upcoming researchers in the field of management studies and organisational behaviour.

1.5. Organisation of Chapters

This thesis consists of six chapters. The first chapter introduces the work, research questions and objectives, scope and the research problem were all discussed. The second chapter reviewed some important and related literature on workplace ostracism and its relationship with PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, well-being, and POS followed by the hypotheses for the research and the model adopted for the research. The third chapter explained the method adopted for the research, the research design,

population, and samples used for the research, data analysis tools as well as the scales adopted for the research.

Chapter four explained and analyses the findings/results of the data collected, the demographic information, comparison tests among demographic variables regarding research variables, regression analyses to analyse the effect of workplace ostracism and POS on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. And finally, mediation analysis to examine the mediating effect of POS between workplace ostracism and the dependent variables studied. Chapter five discussed the findings relating them with previous literature. Chapter six concludes by summarizing the major findings and recommended possible areas for future research directions and the research limitations.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covered the literature review including conceptual, and empirical works. The study is designed to investigate the effects of workplace ostracism and POS on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. In addition, whether POS mediates the relationship between workplace ostracism and dependent variables. The first segment focused on conceptual framework, followed by empirical review, and then conceptual model, while the summary of literature reviewed caps up the chapter. In this section, concepts such as workplace ostracism, POS, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being will be examined from the perspectives of different scholars.

2.1. Workplace Ostracism

Human being is created to feel accepted within the group, organisation, or society they find themselves. Gamian-Wilk and Madeja-Bien (2018) acknowledged that individual's self-esteem relies on their perceived status of inclusion in relationships that are valuable and important in any of these entities. In other words, person's sense of worth stems from the quality of the interactions they have with influential people or groups. Before the conceptualization of "workplace ostracism", prior understand of ostracism is imperative. Human beings realize how valuable they are through the quality of the interactions they have with influential people or groups.

The concept of "ostracism" is relatively new; although, it has earlier been investigated in context such as bullying, counter productive work behaviour (CWB), and social influence strategies (Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018). Ostracism is an umbrella term (Williams, 1997), which is usually used to refer to the elimination of a person or group within a particular setting from other individuals or groups within a particular setting.

Though, various types of ostracism were discussed by Boehm (1986) in his analysis of ostracism among the Montenegro's tribes which eventually led to the articulation of 20 levels of ostracism. They were classified from simplest "a tad bit of coldness in the voice to the most extreme form which is execution" (Boehm, 1986, p. 308). Ostracism happens

almost everywhere within our social environment either at home, school, religious institutions, and marketplaces among others.

Similarly, ostracism has been used synonymously with rejection, exclusion, shunning, abandonment, ignoring among others (Robinson et al., 2013). The term social rejection and social exclusion were distinctively defined by (Blackhart et al. 2009, p. 207), defined social rejection as a "situation when a person seeks to form alliance and is rejected implicitly by others". Ostracism, according to (Wesselmann et al., 2016), is a subcategory of social exclusion. This they describe as "ostracism-based experience and rejection-based experience" which involves direct negative attention that shows someone is unwanted (Blackhart et al., 2009). Ostracism-based experience is a feeling characterized by being ignored and excluded from others. It can take the form of being overlooked or ignored in the company of other people (Williams, 2001), perceive uncomfortable silence, or making individual to feel invisible in the company of other people (Koudenburg, Postmes, & Gordijin, 2011).

Furthermore, rejection-based experience can be understood as a situation whereby an individual using dehumanizing language against other person (Caesens et al., 2017; Luca, et al., 2016), feeling stigmatized or discriminated (Kurzban & Leary, 2001; Smart Richman, & Leary, 2009), or using all manner of cruelty to mock or laughed at someone (Klages & Wirth, 2014); or even to be insulted or experience micro-aggressions and subtle comments that minority groups often experience day by day in their working environment (Derald & Constantine, 2007). There is also linguistic ostracism which means a situation when "two or more people starts to speak a different language that is not understood by the rest of the group members" (Dotan-Eliaz, Sommer, & Rubin, 2009, p. 364); and organisational shunning (Anderson, 2009, p. 36), which describes it as an "organized way of excluding a person who was once a member of the group from the group."

Notwithstanding, all efforts made to explain and describe ostracism from its simple form to the most severe type (Williams, 1997), yet argued that ostracism is inherently ambiguous; to him all these dimensions were chosen based on the responses of people about how they feel when hurt by others. However, the reasons why ostracism is occurring is not clear, therefore, Williams (2007, p. 134) defined ostracism as "being ignored or excluded by individuals or groups, being treated as invisible or denying one's existence".

Ostracism has been studied in many disciplines since the beginning of 1980s. Earlier studies, such as Gruter and Masters (1986) focused generally on social and biological analysis of ostracism using the concepts, such as exclusion and rejection. In ethology and biology, DeWaal (1986); Goodall (1986); and Lancaster (1986) described the ethological orientation on ostracism as an adaptive function, this means, the purpose is to fish out undesirable members from the group, and to promote unity and harmony among the group members.

From anthropological and sociological points of view, ostracism in humans resembles the explanations and traditions behind its use in non-human primates, e.g., lions, wolves, bees etc. (Williams, 1997). The purpose of ostracism is to prevent or to discourage deviant behaviour that can threaten the group and to discipline a deviant member, and to unify the rest of the group members (Williams, 1997). In view of this, Barner-Barry (1986) conducted a participant observation and analysed an instance of ostracism on children at the playground; Gruter (1986) investigated the Meidung practices of the Amish community; Mahdi (1986) studied and analysed how the members of Pathan Hill tribes are practising ostracism in Afghanistan among other similar studies.

In psychology, many studies were conducted on concepts related to ostracism, although few focuses on the antecedents and repercussions of psychological experience of ostracism (Williams, 1997).

Historically, ostracism has been a common experience to humans, this means that, excluding a member off the group has been part of human life since the beginning of recorded history. Williams (1997, p. 135) explained that “Greeks would vote to ostracize individuals from their communities as a type of punishment”. The most extreme form of these type of punishment (ostracism) in the ancient times was banishment and exile (Ferris et al., 2008). It is an ancient practiced by different institutions such as governments, cultural institutions, religious leaders, military institutions, tribal groups, small groups among other social organisations (Williams, 1997). Workplace ostracism oftentimes take place freely and unintentionally, without the bounds of any formalised norms or publicly announced regulations by the authorities concerned (Williams, 1997). In line with this, Goodall (1986); Kling and Steklis (1986); Lancaster (1986); and Raleigh and McGuire (1986), all agreed that ostracism occurs in both humans and animals. This means that

ostracism is used on aberrant or undesirable members of society, and it is not exclusive to humans. In other words, both humans and animals engage in excluding a deviant member for the purpose of discipline or punishing them.

Williams (1997, 2001) also distinguished between ostracism, social exclusion, rejection, and bullying. For Williams, ostracism refers to being excluded or ignored; social exclusion refers to being excluded within a group or a network of communities. In this case, individual can exist but inevitably being disregarded; rejection is typically communicated by overt actions, such as words or gestures, and it shows that the rejected person is not desired or acceptable in the relationship or in the group; while bullying is characterised by a pattern of behaviour in which one person is singled out and harassed, and that person is subjected to physical/ or psychological and verbal abuse (Williams et al., 2005).

Biological scientists, behavioural and social scientist all agreed that ostracism has a damaging consequence on its victims, and they claim that it causes mental and physiological stress (Williams, 1997), which results in aggression and depression. This explains some of the consequences of felt ostracism, which most of the researchers on ostracism have agreed upon. For instance, a case study by Gruter (1986) reported stomach ulcers on the victims of ostracism; Boehm (1986) reported that victims of ostracism develop fear for public gatherings, and loss of group leadership; Raleigh and McGuire (1986) reported that ostracism can lead to psychotic behaviours among prisoners who are subjected to solitary confinement.

Similarly, Ferris, Chen, and Lim (2017) noted that ostracism is considered as abnormal behaviour or counter-normative behaviour. Ostracism on the other hand, is distinct from other forms of aggressive behaviours and incivility, such as sexual harassment, supervisory abuse, bullying, among others. According to Ferris, Chen, and Lim (2017) what distinguish ostracism from incivility is that ostracism is a mild kind of social exclusion, and it's also rife with ambiguity, so offenders can pretend it was all in good fun or claim ignorance of the harm they are causing as an excuse (Eisenberger, 2015; O'Reilly et al., 2015; Williams, 1997).

Alexander (1986); Barner-Barry (1986); Basso (1972); Boehm (1986); and Mahdi (1986), all believed that workplace ostracism has some positive benefits in such a way that it improves the effective means of control, counter normative behaviours, punish deviance, and increased in-group cohesion. Hales, Ren, and Williams (2017) explained that ostracism at the workplace can serve several purposes, such as keeping the group safe from potentially harmful or uncooperative members, helping people change their behaviour, and getting rid of those who refuse to comply. One of the benefits of ostracism accrue mostly to the person who perpetrate the act (the ostracizer). As this gives the ostracizer a boost in self-control over their peers, feeling of being valued, and a sense of purpose (Zadro et al., 2017). Gruter and Masters (1986, p. 150) opined that ostracism has been "practical in almost all known human societies" including workplace.

Workplace ostracism has been perceived in relation to how an individual in an organisation feels when they are rejected or ignored by others (which may include employees and employers). Several research on workplace ostracism have emphasized on behaviours that are categorized as ostracism in any organisation, and majority of these researches only cover a particular exclusionary behaviour (Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013).

2.1.1. Workplace Ostracism and Related Concepts

Workplace ostracism, defined as the degree to which an individual believes that they are ignored or excluded by others in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2008). Ostracism is a widespread and pervasive phenomenon that may be found at all levels of a hierarchy and in all types of organisations. Warburton, Williams, and Cairns (2006) found a significant relationship between ostracism and aggression. It was confirmed that chronic social rejection (Leary et al., 2003), the form of ostracism, bullying and romantic rejection was a major contributing factor more than 80% of shootings in United States.

Twenge et al. (2001) suggested that excluding someone socially may reduce typical social restrictions on selfish and violent behaviour, hence increasing an individual's aggression. This is particularly true when ostracism corresponds to individual's ability to control themselves over a displeasing situation (Gerbeer & Wheller, 2009; Leary, Twenge, & Quinlivan, 2006). For Twenge, Catanese, and Baumeister (2002, 2003), when the target

individual has limited resources to either control aggressive urges or to reject group demands, in this case, ostracism may result in aggressiveness. In this context, control is essential in responding to ostracism. When individual lacks emotional control or self-control, or is sensitive to emotions and feelings, it is more likelihood that they may react in a more hostile manner to the occurrence of workplace ostracism. Robinson et al. (2013) maintains that workplace ostracism is the level to which an employee in an organisation or group of employees side-lined a member and engages in socially unacceptable behaviours.

Robinson and Schabram (2017) defined two types of workplace ostracism: 'personal ostracism' and 'task ostracism'. The former characterised an employee being excluded from a merely social connection, such as being excluded from chats, not providing social assistance, or not invited to a conversation or to take coffee. The latter stated, among other things, failing to engage a co-worker in a task-related contact and failing to invite them to a project meeting.

Although workplace ostracism can take many forms, one aspect that they all have in common is that their underlying reasons are frequently obscure (Williams, 2001). Indeed, ostracism can be both purposeful and inadvertent, and its impact is determined by the target's subjective reasons (Sommer et al., 2001; Williams, 2001). Mao et al. (2018) examining reasons and reactions to workplace ostracism argues that ostracism in the workplace is an important problem that has been the subject of a variety and a number of research in recent times. To explain why ostracism happens, Mao et al. (2018) explain that people are shunned may be because of their nature, abilities and skills, behavioural characteristics, and the offenders' ostracism-related motivations. Further investigation on the consequences of ostracism, Mao et al. (2018) posits that, victims of ostracism will respond emotionally and physically.

In the earlier studies of (Williams, 2001), examples of ostracism behaviours in workplace are identified to include, refusing to share important information, avoiding conversation or eye contact, ignoring people, and treating someone in an unfriendly way. Sao, and Wadhwani (2018) in their study to understand the existence and instances of workplace ostracism pointed out that it is a process of ostracizing or excluding someone at the workplace on any ground. They identified factors causing workplace ostracism to

include colleagues, self, organisation's culture, leader, and work environment. Workplace ostracism often turns out to be more stressing as compared to harassment.

Research has shown that ostracism in the workplace, especially avoiding and ignoring a co-worker, may allow other employees to avoid fighting or dispute and may help to reduce stress, tension and prevent them from showing negative emotions (Hales et al., 2016). Ostracism may be employed intentionally as a conflict resolution strategy (Sommer, et al., 2001), occasionally, organisations employed ostracism by retreating from an unfavourable connection or dodging the responsibility of offering critique (Sommer et al., 2001). This may be observed in most individuals working in the same organisational unit, with some pretending to be introverted or reticent, unable to interact with others or participate in a discussion.

The vast majority of empirical research on workplace ostracism have studied its effects on both the individual and the organisation as a whole (Robinson et al., 2014), however, the focus of this research is to investigate the effects of workplace ostracism on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being mediated by POS. Some concepts related to workplace ostracism as provided by previous researchers include harassment, incivility, and bullying will be discussed in relation to workplace ostracism.

2.1.1.1. Ostracism and Incivility

One concept which is very similar to ostracism is incivility. Incivility, according to Akella and Lewis (2019) is any behaviour that shows lack of responsibility, respect, and restraint. This indicate that any behaviour that lacks respect can be distinguished as uncivil. In another development, Anderson and Pearson (1999) defined incivility as low-intensity, deviant workplace behaviour with an ambiguous intent to harm; these includes talking or looking down to others, making demeaning remarks/comments among others (Porath & Pearson, 2013). Importantly, what distinguishes incivility with the rest of negative interpersonal work behaviour is that it is not intense and that the pain is not deeply felt when occurred (Schilpzand, DeParter & Erez, 2014). A lot of studies have been conducted on incivility, but despite all these efforts, there is no theoretical foundation to guide the progress (Schilpzand, DeParter & Erez, 2014). Anderson and Pearson (1999) posited that incivility or uncivil behaviour between co-workers would be reciprocated with more severe

forms of negativity as such could cause more aggressive behaviours to the employees involved in the organisation.

However, O'Reilly et al. (2015) described uncivil behaviours to include derogatory remarks to the target. In essence, it is very difficult to distinguish between ostracism and incivility as both constitute a more form of normative behaviour. Although ostracism sometimes tend to be ambiguous, incivility also is ambiguous with low intensity generally (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008).

2.1.1.2. Ostracism and Bullying

Bullying, on the other hand, was defined by the American Psychological Association (2017) as a form of aggressive behaviour in which one or more people intentionally and repeatedly causes injury, harm, or discomfort to another person(s). This behaviour usually involves physical contact, words, or subtler actions. It also involves an unbalanced power, thus creating a hostile working environment (Felblinger, 2008). The consequences of bullying as highlighted by previous research may expose victims to emotional and verbal abuse, and they may be susceptible to depression, stress, burnout, and other psychological/physiological conditions (Bowling & Beehr, 2006).

In their study of New Zealand's adolescents aged 11-13, (Maxwell & Carrol-Lind, 1997), using 259 participants as a sample, they studied the experience of bullying and they found relational aggression (ostracism, rejection, and exclusion), to be graded as the third most frequently experienced form of bullying. Still in the same study, 41% of the results indicated that participants reported being ignored or rejected by their peers, and another 60% reported having felt these experiences at some point in their lifetime. Another study by Leary et al. (2003) reported that more than fifteen school shootings in the United States implicated "long-lasting rejection such as ostracism, romantic rejection, and bullying" as a possible underlying factor in about eighty seven percent cases of school shootings. In another study by Keuskamp, Ziersch, and Anthony (2021) found divorced, separated and widowed employees reporting more bullying than unmarried employees.

Workplace bullying does not necessarily take the form of physical abuse, like in the case of school bullying among others. Work-related bullying, according to Fox and

Stallworth (2006) involves such behaviour whereby employees in an organisation are given workloads. For instance, when their leave applications are rejected or sometimes not allocated menial task. These according to Fox and Stallworth (2006) are types of workplace bullying. For Yıldırım (2009) workplace bullying involves shifting opinions, overruling victim's decisions especially during meetings, professionally attacking the victims and openly flaunting one's status and power. A study by Simons (2008) also reported that bullying increases the chances of intention to quit the organisation. In other words, one of the consequences of bullying may result in employee manifesting withdrawal behaviour. Another study by Obiechina (2021) found workplace bullying has a significant association with employees' well-being in Nigeria.

However, in comparison, workplace ostracism was found to have stronger psychological and work-related outcomes with visible abuse, such as bullying, incivility and harassment (Ferris, Chen, & Lim, 2017; O'Reilly et al., 2017). Workplace ostracism is occurring on daily basis in our working environment. In the view of Ferris et al. (2008) ostracism within organisation has not been widely studied. Conversely, workplace ostracism, as argued by (Robinson & Schabram, 2017), that since the 1970s, the idea of workplace ostracism has been evident in organisational studies literature. Wu, Wei, and Hui (2011, p. 23) insist that "despite its significance, little consideration has been given to the idea of workplace ostracism in particular". Thus, the concept has been viewed as a component of a bigger phenomenon such as misbehaviour (Bennet & Robinson, 2000), bullying at workplace (Fox & Stallworth, 2006; Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018), counterproductive work behaviour (Sackett & DeVore, 2001), and social undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002).

Robinson et al. (2013) described workplace ostracism as a circumstance in which a person or set of individuals fails to take steps that engage another employee, referred to as the "ostracizer," when it is suitable to do so. Li and Zhang (2019, p. 308) describes ostracism in the workplace as a type of "cold" violence that occurs in the work environment. They link it to the employees' internalised belief that others in the workplace are ignoring or rejecting them in some way. Earlier studies of rejection, such as Jackson and Saltzstein (1958), Scachter (1951), and Snoek (1962), were infrequent and failed to provide adequate answers on the subject matter, until recently when researchers, such as

Ferris et al. (2008), and Williams (1997, 2001) provided answers to the meaning and what distinguished ostracism from other related concepts.

Flowing from the foregoing, the concept of workplace ostracism is basically a phenomenon where an individual experience(s) a form of rejection or exclusion by others within and outside a working environment (Williams et al., 2005). Workplace ostracism in its natural sense does not require the ostracizer to act aggressively but rather systematically using different ways.

2.1.1.3. Ostracism and Mobbing

Petersen (2019) described mobbing as "a group bullying", this is a situation whereby co-workers group themselves to target, humiliate and oppress a co-worker. Mobbing can take the form of verbal aggression (insult or sarcastic remarks), stonewalling (employee being ignored by a co-worker or supervisor and request not answered), exclusion (refusing to socialize with the victim of exclusion), gossip & slander (deliberately talking about the victim's personal life/information), physical aggression (physically engaging in fight between each other). Leymann (1986) states that mobbing is a borrowed term to mean or to describe a behaviour that include non-sexual harassment in the workplace. The concept was later adopted by the German speaking countries as against the preferred concept of bullying by the English-speaking Nations (Roland & Munthe, 1986) and harassment (harcèlement morale) in French speaking world (Neuman et al., 2011).

According to a report by the US national survey (2014) mobbing include all kind of repetitive abuse, humiliation, intimidation and psychological abuse that takes place in the working environment. This act is sometimes deliberately perpetrated to cause psychological harm and mental stress to the victims. Research in the recent times were conducted on the effects of mobbing on employees' mental and psychological well-being as well as on the organisation. Brousse et al. (2008) about psychopathological effects of mobbing among a target population at workplace; Manotas (2015) mobbing in higher educational institution; Uye et al. (2022) workplace mobbing and perceived stress among referees in southwest Nigeria; Quraishi et al. (2015) mobbing, stress and employee's behaviour at workplace; Adeoye, Egbuta and Abolarin (2019) workplace mobbing: the causal factor of neurotic personality and employees' intention to leave, among others.

Findings from previous research highlighted that mobbing is the reason for some psychological and physical illnesses (Leymann, 1990b), it was also considered as a widespread negative occurrence which represents a major factor for employee stress in the workplace environment (Uye et al., 2022). In summary, workplace mobbing and workplace ostracism are very similar in terms of the consequences caused by the actions of the actors to the victims, but we can conclude that workplace ostracism due to its ambiguous manner (Williams, 2001), it is difficult to understand the action, and because it is only perceived by the victims in most of the times, it is almost hard to determine whether it is deliberate or it is negligently perpetrated by the actors.

2.1.1.4. Ostracism and Toxicity

Toxicity is a noun related to a poison or poisonous and is defined as a negative workplace atmosphere created by co-workers, supervisors and even organisational culture which causes employees to find it difficult to work or progress in their career (Stojanovic, 2022). The concept is widely used as a toxic work environment in many literatures. Using harassment, bullying, ostracism and incivility as a multiple dimension under toxic workplace environment and using work depression as a mediator, Rasool et al. (2019) found that toxic workplace environment has negative impact on worker productivity. Toxic environment was reported to have negative relationship with job productivity, while job stress mediated the relationship between dimensions of toxic work environment i.e., harassment, bullying, ostracism and incivility and job productivity (Anjum & Ming, 2018). In another study by Iqbal, Asghar, and Asghar (2022) toxicity in the workplace environment was found to correlate with turnover intention. In view of this, Glazer, Farley, and Rahman (2021) regarded ostracism as a toxic social stressor.

2.1.1.5. Ostracism and Harassment

Harassment according to the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission EEOC (1967) is any “offensive jokes, insults, epithets, physical assaults or threats” targeted on individual because of their race, religion, sex, or socio-economic background which causes harm and discomfort to the victims. Harassment in the workplace can be perpetrated by a supervisor, manager, co-worker or an agent of the employer. According to Martin and Hine (2005) harassment is an abusive behaviour with a systematic intent to damage the target. It

is essentially based on gender, racial and disability differences (Pryor & Fitzgerald, 2003; Simons & Mawn, 2010; Vessey et al., 2009). Although most of the research on harassment gave more attention to sexual harassment than generalized workplace harassment, however, the consequences of harassment can cause a lot of harms to the victims.

Even though previous findings have posited that harassment has consequences on employee well-being, but the findings of Bowling and Beehr (2006) have shown that harassment is negatively related to well-being. People can be harassed by their peers or even by their seniors and the most powerful among the group members.

2.2. Withdrawal Behaviours

Withdrawal behaviour refers to employees' psychological and physical withdrawal behaviour from work (Lehman & Simpson, 1992). In summary, any action(s) taken by an employee to pull out physically and psychologically from the organisation is considered as withdrawal behaviour. Absenteeism, lateness, and turnover intentions are some examples of physical withdrawal behaviour, while psychological withdrawal behaviours include being present but work in a limited capacity, being inactive or less productive, and burnout. According to Sliter, Sliter, and Jex (2012) withdrawal behaviours are excused or unexcused physical absence from the workplace, including absence, tardiness, departing early, and intention to avoid or leave that organisation.

Withdrawal behaviours include a set of attitudes and behaviours used by employees when they stay at the job but for some reason decide to be less participative (Kaplan et al., 2009). Llies et al. (2012); Nguyen, Groth, and Johnson (2013); Zimmerman et al. (2012) refer to employee tardiness, absenteeism, and turnover intention as withdrawal behaviours since each behaviour represents some substantial removal or withdrawal from the place of work. Below is a diagram showing the dimensions of withdrawal behaviours.

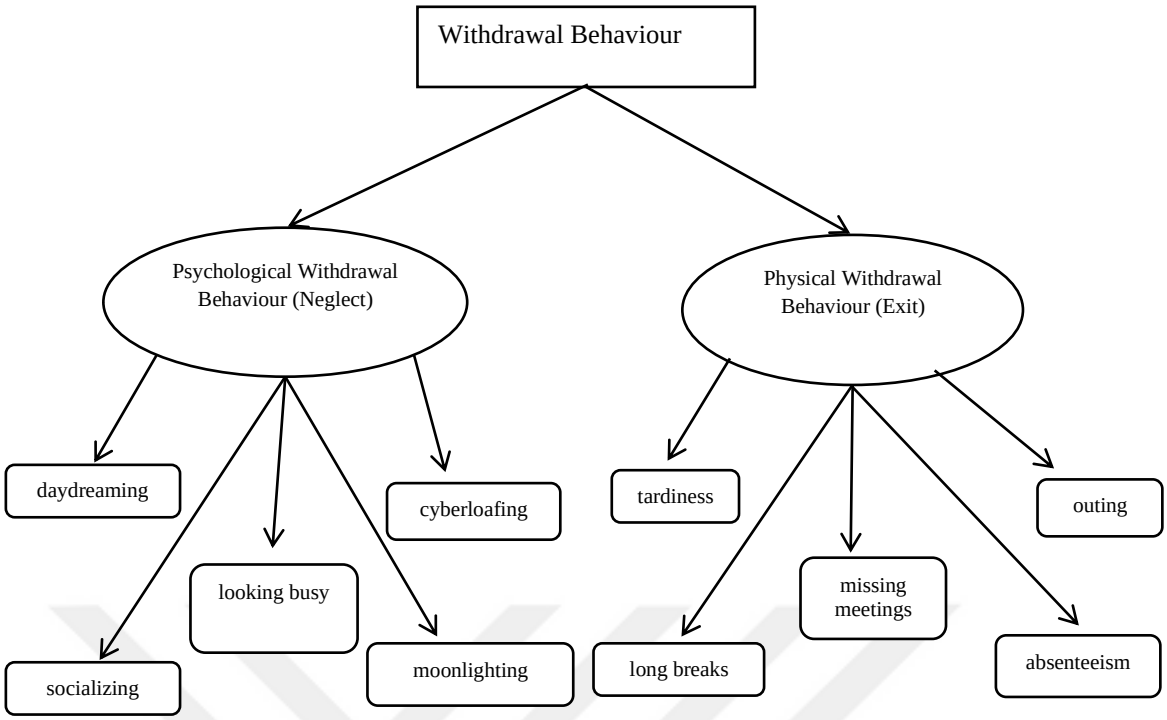


Figure 2.1. Dimensions of Withdrawal Behaviours

Source: School of Management Studies (NIT calicut), (2013).

2.2.1. Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour (PsyWB)

One of the characteristics of psychological withdrawal (PsyWB) in workplace is often manifested in the form of laziness, inattentiveness to instructions, lack of interest and minimal effort on the job. Others include lack of creativity and absence of intense thinking on the job (Pinder, 2008). On the other hand, Woods, Poole, and Zibarras (2012) theorised counterproductive behaviours, particularly truancy, absence, lateness, and actions that exhibit intention to quit as withdrawal behaviour at workplace. According to Lehman and Simpson (1992) this type of behaviour is the action taken by individual (employee) when they are psychologically, mentally, or emotionally disengaging or disconnecting from the group, or organisation. This can occur when the working conditions or the organisational environment becomes uncomfortable or intolerable to the employee, as a result they tend to psychologically withdraw (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Moore, 2012). This type of behaviour leaves the employee to be physically present at the workplace but mentally and psychologically elsewhere. PsyWB can take the form of daydreaming, contemplating,

chatting with colleagues while ignoring a task among others (Hulin, 1991; Lehman & Simpson, 1992).

In addition, higher psychological withdrawal, and intention to quit are associated with ostracism (O'Reilly et al., 2015). Some of the noticeable signs of psychological withdrawal of employees, include undue excuses to depart from workplace and they tend to have negative opinion and most times exhibit negative attitude towards their work. These negative attitudes may include turnover intentions, intentional absenteeism, and lateness (Johns,1997; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Rosenblatt, 2010; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014).

2.2.2. Physical Withdrawal Behaviour (PhyWB)

On the other hand, to physically withdraw, some employees may decide to physically disengage or detached themselves from the organisation or from the group to which they belong to. This action is known as PhyWB. According to Cropanzano et al. (1997) physical withdrawal entails an employee physically disconnect or disengage from a group or from an organisation. This action can take the form of absenteeism, tardiness, long breaks, missing meetings, and quitting. Physical withdrawals also include a partial withdrawal for either part of the day, a whole day and even a permanent withdrawal from the group or from the organisation (Sagie et al., 2002; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014).

The Pennsylvania State University (2011) described excessive tardiness as one of the common physical signs that an employee has reached that point whereas disengaged from the organisation, and this can be a major predictor of a more severe type of a withdrawal behaviour, especially if the behaviour manifested becomes consistent. Cohen and Golan (2007) explained that absenteeism entails an employee's refusal to report to work at the deadline of the permitted leave of absence, usually for an extended period of time without a genuine reasons and prior permission to do so. This can take the form of medical appointments, pre-approved vacations among others. According to Zimmerman et al. (2016) many reasons make employees to physically withdraw, among them are feeling of being rejected, tired with the job or even loss of interest in the job or working environment.

2.2.3. Relationship between Workplace Ostracism and Withdrawal Behaviours

Empirical researches imply that workplace ostracism can promote employees' positive work behaviour to the advantage of colleagues and other members of the work group, for the sake of yearning for acceptance in the defined workplace (Derfler-Rozin, Pillutla, & Thau, 2010; Williams & Sommer, 1997). In another vein, Ferris et al. (2015) affirmed that ostracism at the workplace is harmful to the efficiency of an organisation because it may cause employees to restrict their participation in citizenship behaviours that are either beneficial to people individually or to the organisation collectively. Organisational citizenship behaviours, according to Coetzee (2005) are crucial for productivity since organisations cannot predict from the stated job descriptions of the entire spectrum of subordinate behaviours that is required for attaining the goals and objectives of the organisation. Thus, the success of any organisation is dependent on employees' willingness to go beyond their formal job responsibilities.

Tahreem, Bilal, and Imran (2019) carried out a study to investigate a group of teachers in the university in Pakistan to determine their positive and negative behavioural consequences. A qualitative and phenomenological method was used to focus on the participants' experiences, pragmatism, and the effects workplace ostracism on their psychological well-being. Data from 20 ostracized lecturers from both private and public university were used in the study. According to the findings, majority of the ostracized staff indicated positive behavioural outcomes while some of the participants indicated interest and their desire for negative behaviours, such as decreased or low performance, withdrawal, and resignation in future if they continue to experience ostracism at the workplace.

The social suffering induced by ostracism has even been compared to physical discomfort, according to previous studies (Eisenberger, 2012; Riva, Wirth, & Williams, 2011). In other instances, the consequences of such encounters might have a higher detrimental effect on other negative workplace behaviours such as violence and harassment (O'Reilly & Robinson, 2009; O'Reilly et al. 2011; Williams & Zadro, 2001). Ferris et al. (2008), and Hitlan et al. (2006) observed that ostracism in the workplace would disrupt interpersonal behaviour and harm the performance of the ostracised individual.

In addition, studies have demonstrated that the workplace ostracism experienced by employees in the workplace has a major impact on the employees' organisational and interpersonal behaviour (Li & Zhang, 2019). Workplace ostracism ultimately affects employees' positive behaviours in the workplace (Liu, 2015). It weakens interpersonal relationship between employees thereby affecting organisation's framework (Liu, 2015), leads to tension and stress (Wu et al. 2012), and reduces organizational citizenship behaviour (Leung et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2016). Workplace ostracism involves an unwanted behaviour (Ferris et al., 2008), among colleagues in the work environment, and as such it preys on the interpersonal behaviour of both the ostracizee and ostracized. Liu (2015) suggested that workplace ostracism affects employees' psychological and even physiological well-being in such a way that they feel marginalized harmed. And in the end, affect employees' positive behaviours in various ways in the work environment.

Withdrawal behaviour, such as lateness and absenteeism, has aroused considerable research interests due to its adverse effects on organisational performance (Pinder, 2008). Behaviours that are indicative of withdrawal, whether they are overt or covert, are detrimental to the efficiency of an organisation (Thornton, Esper, & Morris, 2013). Empirical evidence from previous studies indicated how workplace ostracism affects employee's desire to withdraw from the organisation. Previous studies, such as O'Reilly et al. (2015) discovered that workplace ostracism is equally unpleasant, in the short term, and has a longer lasting psychological impact for employees, which may disappoint individual's feeling of security and sense of support, which in turn leads to psychological disengagement, depression, even health problems in certain cases.

Workplace ostracism has a great impact in undermining employee behaviour, example refusing to share a vital information with a co-worker, that can be dangerous to both the workers and the organisation (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002). Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1997) noted that ignoring people and withholding assistance are characterised as social influence techniques. Other researchers focused on investigating the role of power in ostracism; and how victims react to ostracism they face in the workplace (Fiset, Al Hajj, & Vongas, 2017).

Sao and Wadhwani (2018) observed that employees who are shunned have a high likelihood of either quitting the job or remaining and becoming absent from the work

emotionally and psychologically. According to the findings of some studies, an employee's propensity to quit increases in proportion to the degree to which they believe that they are subjected to workplace ostracism. More specifically, the degree to which an employee believes that he or she is subjected to ostracism at work because of the actions of their co-workers predicts the degree to which the employee will show their desire to quit (Hitlan & Noel, 2009). However, ostracism from relative leadership and ostracism from colleagues have a far bigger favourable influence on employee attrition or turnover intention (Li & Zhang, 2019).

According to Li and Zhang (2019) ostracizing employees at the workplace may be viewed as a form of group membership trauma for such individuals. When employees become aware that they are being ostracised, they take advantage of the opportunity to distance themselves from co-workers whom they believe are contributing to their unhappiness. Additionally, these employees exhibit a short-term behaviour at work that causes them to involve in risky activities that are damaging to the organisation's long-term growth. The more significant issue is that when the strain of workplace ostracism gets tiresome, it has an effect on the employee's capacity to exercise self-control as well as their mental cognitive function. When this can no longer be tolerated, it results in the resignation of the relevant employee(s).

Ferris et al. (2008) discovered that some forms of interpersonal abuse can bring about negative implications on the attitudes of employees about the work. For example, low job satisfaction and an increased intention to leave their jobs. Social Exchange Theory suggests that, if an employee is ostracized, they will feel less of a duty to contribute to the organisation or to the well-being of their co-workers and their superiors (Balliet & Ferris, 2013; Zellars & Tepper, 2003). Scholars have also contended that workplace ostracism has resulted in negative behavioural outcomes leading to withdrawal (O'Reilly & Robinson, 2009). O'Reilly et al. (2015) established that workplace ostracism is positively associated with withdrawal behaviour.

Mahfooz et al. (2017) examined the significant relationship between workplace ostracism and turnover intention and found out that burnout has a mediating role in this relationship. Similarly, Tatachari (2016) cited in Khan Durrani (2020) investigated the ostracized young minorities and found a significant relationship between workplace

ostracism and turnover intentions. Following a resources depletion perspective, Leung et al. (2011) reported that employee's regulatory resources are depleted when being ostracized which leads to a reduced degree of involvement at work.

It was predicted by Fiset, Al Hajj, and Vongas (2017) that there is association between felt ostracism and external social support and the desire to leave the organisation. They also discovered that the person who felt the greatest unfavourable results were those who had been ostracized by a senior staff in the organisation such as a manager and the ostracized employee's social support or network outside of the workplace is limited.

2.3. Antagonistic Work Behaviour

Antagonistic work behaviour literally implies showing a dislike or opposition in a hostile and unfriendly manner in the workplace. Psychologically, antagonistic behaviour can be categorized into two as offensive and defensive. Each of these are a result of a different neuro-behavioural pathways, in other words, they are elicited by different stimuli (Leichtling, 2006). Usually, antagonistic behaviours are counterproductive to any organisation. Lau, Au, and Ho (2003) defined counter productive work behaviour (CWB) as any purposeful organisational behaviour that has an influence on an individual's ability to accomplish a given task or that weakens the overall effectiveness of the organisation. Work behaviours that are counterproductive are those that go against the organisation's legal interests in some way (Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

According to Sackett and DeVore (2001, p. 145) counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) is defined as "any action or behaviour intentionally carried out by a member of a particular organisation which the organisational viewed it as contrary to its legitimate interests." Examples of such counterproductive behaviour include sabotage, theft, drug use, withdrawal, and harassment (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Spector et al., 2006). CWB that are detrimental to productivity may be classified into two distinct categories: production deviance and property deviance. Theft and destruction to company property are both examples of property deviance, which is defined as the improper use of employer property. Absenteeism, sloth, and behaviours that divert an employee while they are on the job, such

as the use of alcohol and the aim to work slowly, are all included in the category of production deviance (Hollinger & Clark, 1983).

Martinko, Gundlach, and Douglas (2002) proposed that counter productive work behaviours can be classified into three categories, including personal, organisational, and contextual. Personal factor comprises characteristics common among employees engaging in CWB at work (Boye & Jones, 1997), like demographic characteristics, habits, perceived stress, and job satisfaction are all grouped under this category. Organisational factor encompasses shared perception of the people attach to specific features of the work setting (Ostroff, 1993), that include organisational characteristics, organisation-level anti-theft policy, the effect of the group as well as surveillance by supervisors The term "contextual factor" refers to any element of an individual's surrounding environment that may have a role in the person's decision to participate in or abstain from performing particular unjust acts (Murphy, 1993).

2.3.1. Relationship between Workplace Ostracism and Antagonistic Work Behaviour

Due to scanty literature on antagonistic work behaviour, the concept will be interchangeably used with counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). According to Spector and Fox (2005, p. 151-152) counterproductive work behaviour is defined as, “a set of volitional acts as opposed to accidental or mandated that harm or intend to harm organisations and their stakeholders e.g., clients, co-workers, customers, and supervisors”. Many literatures shows that the variables responsible for counterproductive work behaviours are numerous. These include personality traits (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006); organisational constraints and interpersonal conflict (Penney, Spector, & Fox, 2003); and workplace ostracism (Hitlan & Noel, 2009).

Researches have, however, shown a relationship between workplace ostracism and CWB. According to the research conducted by Chen and Spector (1992) among the consequences of CWB are a variety of negative outcomes, including disagreement among workers, uncertainty regarding the task at hand, conflicts with both the supervisor and other employees, stress and burden at work, and interpersonal divergence. CWB can be purposeful and directly targeted like stealing, or they can be unconscious but still contain

bad effects for the targets, like incivility. Examples of the former are incivility and theft (Shiverdecker & LeBreton, 2019).

CWB sometimes appears in workplace deviance, or workplace aggression literature, in other words, it is studied under workplace deviance or workplace aggression (Shiverdecker & LeBreton, 2019). Tahreem (2016) in her examination of the mediating influence of job satisfaction on the impact of workplace ostracism on CWB, findings demonstrated that ostracism had a favourable effect on CWB. According to studies by Ferris et al. (2015), Tariq and Amir (2019), and Yang and Treadway (2016), workplace ostracism encourages increased CWB and reduces an employee's job or task performance, affecting efficiency in the organisation, extent of productivity, and overall effectiveness.

Furthermore, Evans, Hendron, and Oldroyd (2014) argued that the ostracized employees at workplace will refuse to share an important information (hoard information/ knowledge). One of the possible barriers to employee information hoarding and voice behaviour is workplace ostracism (Gkorezis et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2009; Zhao & Xia, 2017). Employees' ideas, thoughts, and opinions are not appreciated by co-workers because workplace ostracism causes them to feel ostracised by those other members of the organisation (Robinson et al., 2012). To this end, employees believe that expressing their opinions and providing information would have little or no effect, thus they do not express themselves freely (Tehreem et al., 2017).

2.4. Well-being

The Oxford Advanced Dictionary (2020) defines well-being as an overall evaluation that an individual makes of his/her life in all its important aspects. However, well-being encompasses a broader meaning that involves physical and emotional, social, and mental aspects. Before now, well-being was referred to as absence of illnesses, mostly attributed to physical health, but a bit shift from this definition opens more doors for investigation/research in this area of study (DeSimone, 2014). When it comes to the workplace, health and safety used to be the primary concern for employees' well-being. In other words, reducing the number of injuries or health problems that are brought on by the workplace and finding solutions to such problems as they pertain to health and safety.

According to Short (2018) employee well-being exceeds physiological or mental ill health, but it is about improving the health of every employee in the organisation. The extent of well-being on employee has gone beyond their health but has covered their health and level of job satisfaction. It encompasses employee's mental, physical, social, financial, and career well-being. According to Marinaki (2020) well-being is the emotional, mental, and physical health condition of an employee, which is the dynamic consequence that occurs within and outside of the workplace. It also involved the relationship with other co-workers, how they use the tools and resources at their disposal, larger business decisions that have an effect on them and the job they do, as well as a variety of other variables.

Protecting the health and employment of safety measures in order to safeguard employees will lead to increased output, greater morale among workers, enhanced talent and creativity and also enhanced ability to manage relationships with customers. Marinaki (2020) contends that in order for employers to protect these assets, they must provide their workers with a wide variety of benefits, ranging from financial benefits (pension plans, income protection, etc.); improved physical health benefits in the form of life insurance, gym discounts, sick leaves, and mental health benefits (such as mindfulness meditation, coaching sessions, counselling services). In addition, work-life balance benefits such as routine parental leave schemes, work bonus, and sabbaticals may also be introduced with a sole intention of encouraging hardworking employees to remain loyal to their employers.

2.4.1. Relationship between Workplace Ostracism and Well-being

Earlier research on well-being focused on dimensions and descriptions of well-being, such as Bradburn's (1969) Hedonic tradition is concerned with the subjective sense of happiness and life fulfilment. Related dimensions were the studies conducted by Diener (1984); Kahneman, Diener, and Schwarz (1999) on Eudemonic heritage or eudemonic tradition as its popularly known emphasised on positive psychological functioning and human growth. The idea of employee well-being at a workplace creates enabling environment for a healthy coexistence among the workforce of the organisation (Cooper & Robertson, 2001). Consequently, the dynamics of employee well-being at a workplace is essential towards understanding the different domains and context that ultimately affect the quality of life at work (Baptiste, 2008). On their part, Golden, Veiga, and Dino (2008) postulated that the more employees stay away from their respective offices and main

workgroup, the more they develop such feelings of isolation and in the end, will negatively affect their performance.

Recent research on employee positive behaviour in organisation focusing on employee well-being in the workplace have proven that ostracism impends performance, as well as influences individual's mental and physical health (O'Reilly & Robinson, 2009). Additionally, studies have indicated that a threatened feeling of belonging may impact an employee's well-being and attitudes about their jobs, such as low job satisfaction and intentions to leave (Gamian-Wilk & Madeja-Bien, 2018). Employees' sense of belonging is threatened by workplace ostracism since it is a harsh and unpleasant organisational experience and is frequently viewed as a punishment (Ferris et al., 2008; Williams, 2007).

Luthans and Youssef (2007) underlined the significance of the well-being of employees as a significant factor in developing a strategy for dealing with ostracism in the workplace. It was also hypothesised that workers with high level of subjective well-being are more likely to be happier and more content with their jobs, as well as more productive and likely to achieve greater levels of success than workers who have low levels of subjective well-being (Kuykendall, Tay, & Ng, 2015).

Ostracism at the workplace may be connected to a number of attitudes, behaviours, and states of well-being related to employment (Ferris et al., 2008). A study conducted by Lima (2018) demonstrated negative correlation between ostracism and self-efficacy, and between ostracism and job satisfaction and thus concluded that employee personal efficacy negatively affected by ostracism in the workplace. O'Reilly et al. (2015) came to the conclusion that a sense of belonging that is endangered serves as a mediator between the influence of ostracism on well-being and other attitudes connected to work. A sense of belonging that is under attack typically results in a decline in self-esteem. Immediate reactions to social rejection are a direct outcome of negative affect and low self-esteem (Smart, Richman, & Leary, 2009).

In a study that compared the effects of being ostracised to those of being argued with, Zadro, Williams, and Richardson (2004) found that being ostracised has a significant impact on a person's feelings of belonging, self-esteem, and meaningful existence. According to Williams and Sommer (1997) once employees become aware that they are

being ostracised, they are placed under a significant amount of stress, which can contribute to mental and functional harm. According to Sao and Wadhwani (2018) the presence of ostracism in the workplace leads to a decrease in an employee's productivity as well as a diminished feeling of belonging in the organisation.

Tahreem et al. (2017) investigated the relationship between workplace ostracism and aspects of employee silence, using perceived self-esteem and meaningful existence as a mediator among teachers in public universities in Punjab Province. They discovered that there is a positive association between workplace ostracism and employee silence. As such, meaningful existence and self-esteem, partially mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and employee silence. In addition, the researchers found that ostracism at the workplace can have a negative impact on an individual's well-being, causing symptoms such as mental stress and exhaustion (Ferris et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2012). If the company and its representatives show little interest in, concern for, or appreciation of their employees, then those workers will likely begin to question whether they are truly valuable to the organisation. Employees who feel socially excluded from the organisation are more likely to perform poorly in the organisation (Wu et al., 2012).

In a situation where an employee believes that the management of the organisation respects their opinion, take meaningful interest in their well-being and honour their contributions (Bryan et al., 2006; Stamper & Masterson, 2002; Tyler & Blader, 2003), they are more likely to identify themselves with that same organisation and what it does. Ostracism in the workplace has a negative impact on the well-being of employees because it is an unpleasant experience (Ferris et al., 2008). Wu, Wei, and Hui (2011) demonstrated that workplace ostracism was substantially associated to employee' emotional strain, such as work tension, emotional tiredness, and depression, and that these pressures might impact their work, family, and health, including job satisfaction. Researchers have discovered that there is a linear pattern that ostracism has direct correlation with negative affect, frustration (Williams et al., 2002), sadness, nervousness (Anderson & Pulich, 2001; Colligan & Higgins, 2006), mental exhaustion and negative emotional states (Wu et al., 2012). Sarwar et al. (2019) posited that the relationship between workplace ostracism and stress, as well as the investigation of the moderator role of employee and its impact on self-efficacy, gender, work, and culture, are positively associated with stress and negatively linked with employee self-efficacy. Studies on workplace ostracism (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999

cited in Choi, 2020) have revealed that ostracism in the workplace is strongly associated with negative outcomes (e.g., stress, intention to leave the organisation, and poor physical health).

2.5. Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Perceived organisational support (POS) is defined as that feeling attributed to employees whereby, they view the amount at which the organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Other previous researches conducted proved that POS has a substantial bearing on employee well-being and job performance. Eisenberger et al. (1986); Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002); Shore and Shore (1995) contend that employees develop POS in order to satisfy their demands for self-esteem, connection, and desire to evaluate the rewards on overall effort. Moreso, whenever the employees anticipate that their performance would be rewarded, it will lead to increased level of POS. At the same time, as soon as the employees' felt contractual obligation to contribute meaningfully to the organisation towards realizing its goals increases, their emotional connection to that same organisation also increases. In previous studies Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) confirmed that one of the behavioural effects of POS is reduction in withdrawal behaviours like absenteeism and turnover. Before the 1990s, there were few research in this field, but it steadily grew reaching peak in the early 1990s. The meta-analysis, which covered approximately 70 studies carried out on POS in the 1990s. Initially, there were few studies conducted on POS; however, this changed in the early 1990s. The current count is above 700, and there are still more revelations to come. Most of the research discovered unmistakable and constant connections between POS and the hypothesised antecedents and repercussions of this phenomenon (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS has been studied by various researchers, and each has their own understanding and views, for example, Shore (1995) described POS as a normative exchange arrangement in which organisations treat their employees with dignity. In return, the workers on their part would bring about commitment and will make the organisation to accomplish their goals and objectives. This means that it is a kind of interchange whereby workers' pay their organisation in exchange of the support they feel their organisation is giving to them. To better understand POS, scholars developed a theory called Organisational Support Theory (OST).

According to OST, employees' perceptions of organisational support greatly influence their perceptions of the organisation's motivations for treating them favourably in return. This is because employees believe that the organisation is trying to help them by providing favourable treatment (Kurtessis et al., 2015). This thus kicks off employees will and desire to oblige and support the organisational goals and objectives, as well as to provide their very best effort in doing so. In addition to this, one should also anticipate that increasing efforts made on behalf of the organisation will result in a higher level of compensation (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Employees' socioemotional demands are satisfied (Kurtessis et al., 2015), when they perceived POS, this in turn leads to a better recognition and engagement to the organisation, as well as an increased level of psychological well-being.

2.5.1. Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Workplace Ostracism

Workplace ostracism has been the subject of a significant amount of research in relation to POS. However, mostly researchers in this area of study have shifted their attentions on the moderating effect of POS on employee stress (Sarfraz et al., 2019); behavioural outcomes (Chung, 2015); employee performance (Choi, 2020); employee performance and outcomes (Zhang & Kwam, 2017); work-to-family conflict (Choi, 2020) amongst others. Findings from the study conducted by Sarfaz et al. (2019) using POS as a moderator, discovered a positive relationship between workplace ostracism and stress, and POS shows a decrease on the negative consequences of workplace ostracism on nurses in Pakistan. Choi (2020) found workplace ostracism and work-to-family conflict affect female employees with low POS. In another vein, Choi (2020) suggests that there was negative correlation between workplace ostracism and organizational citizenship behaviour, and the negative association between workplace ostracism and supervisor-related in-role performance was strong for employees with decreased in POS. Similarly, Kwan et al. (2018) confirm that POS had played a major role in protecting employees' ability to manifest a negative behaviour when they perceived that they are being ostracized in the workplace.

Based on the literature available, there seems to be inadequate studies on the mediating role of POS on workplace ostracism. Most studies focused mainly on the

moderating role of POS and workplace ostracism, organizational commitment, work-to-family conflict, organizational citizenship behaviour, and other work behavioural outcomes. The mediating role of POS needs further investigation and especially in relation to workplace ostracism on well-being, antagonistic work behaviour, PsyWB and PhyWB. For this reason, this research is aimed at investigating the mediating role of workplace ostracism and the dependent variables investigated in this study.

2.5.2. Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Withdrawal Behaviours

For withdrawal behaviours, there is scanty literature on the influence of POS on withdrawal behaviours, even though there was a negative association between withdrawal behaviours and POS as established by previous studies, still some form of withdrawal and CWB can be associated to low POS by employees. Since POS is closely related to reciprocity as opined by Cropanzano et al. (2001); Eisenberger et al. (2001); Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982); Rousseau (1995); Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) all confirmed that one of the purposes and important aspects of reciprocity by the organisation includes: it enables an employee to keep positive self-image; it prevents the employee from violating the norm of reciprocity; and it ensures that employee continues to receive positive and favourable treatments from the organisation.

It was hypothesised that employees who had a high degree of POS would have a greater propensity to repay their organisation while also avoiding behaviours associated with withdrawal (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). In this same line, Eder and Eisenberger (2008) showed that tardiness was high among factory employees when POS was low. This finding is related to the previous point. Employees with high POS are believed to be committed to the organisation and to actively engage in all of the duties for which they are responsible (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008).

2.5.3. Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Antagonistic Work Behaviour

As earlier mentioned, literature on antagonistic work behaviour is scanty, for this reason, the concept will be interchangeably used with counterproductive work behaviour

(CWB). Research by Vatankhah, Javid, and Raoofi (2017) using multiple hierarchical regression analysis, found a positive relationship and that POS partially mediates CWB. In their study of employees working in banking sector in Pakistan, Khan et al. (2015) found that POS partially mediates the relationship between supervisor support and work deviance. And that these results showed high POS lessens the desire to commit CWB by the front-line employees in Pakistani banks.

On the contrary, Manu and Balu (2016) found that POS was negatively and significantly related with CWB. Findings of the mediating analyses conducted by Manu and Balu (2016) confirmed that POS was negatively related with any of the component of CWB, namely, aggression, personal and political deviance. According to Randall et al. (1999) there is a strong association between POS and antagonistic work behaviour. They suggested that people with high POS showed lower levels of antagonistic work behaviour. According to Cropanzano et al. (1997) employees may engage in antagonistic work behaviours if they have the perception that the organisation in which they are employed is not supporting their efforts nor appreciating their potential. POS and perceived job insecurity were shown to predict deviant behaviours among commercial bank employees in Nigeria (Eze et al., 2020).

2.5.4. Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Well-being

Since the emergence of POS in organisational behaviour literature, there seems to be a widely believed evidence showing that POS is important to both employers, employee and organisations, and that it is important to organisations performance and outcomes and individual well-being (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Despite scanty literature in the relationship between POS and well-being, the existing and available literature in this area confirm a strong relationship between POS and well-being. In the study they conducted once a week of POS and well-being, (Caesens, Stinglhamber, & Ohana 2016), using hierarchical regression models, found that POS predicts employees' well-being positively such as decreased in negative affect towards the group, mental strain at work and an increase in positive affect towards the organisation.

Furthermore, Yáñez and Jiménez-Figueroa (2011) in their study of prison employees in Chile, the results of the study confirmed a significant and a positive relationship between POS, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction.

2.6. Research Models, Research Questions and Hypotheses

In their quest to find answers to what causes people to ostracize others, and the effects ostracism has on individual behaviour and well-being, especially at workplace, researchers have propounded theories to find answers to the antecedents and outcomes of ostracism. Gamian-Wilk and Madeja-Bien (2018) adopted the Socio-Meter Theory. This idea was borne out of Baumeister and Leary's (1995) findings which confirms the influence that a person's desire to be part of a group has on their actions, feelings, and ideas. This suggests that for a human being to have healthy psychosomatic well-being and self-confidence, it is necessary for them to have a respect, acceptance, and dignity (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). To analyse the antecedents of ostracism, some researchers focused on Reciprocity Theory (Blau 1964). Blau (1964) predicted that victims of ostracism may reduce their helping behaviour to counter violations and reciprocity (Fiset, Al Hajj, & Vongas, 2017).

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) provides an explanation of the actions or behaviours of individuals participating in varying exchanges with one another while operating within a common organisation (Serenko & Bontis, 2016). The evolution of the SET sheds light on the many behaviours carried out by individuals within a common group in which other members who are appreciated and liked by the rest of the members also supply the same value to the other participants. It is known as a kind of an exchange that goes in an opposite direction due to the fact that participants in this process engage with other members of the community, and it is also based on expectations from those in the community (Molm et al., 2007).

To give something to an individual stimulates the act of exchange on the receiver's behalf. Many different behaviours have been observed with the assistance of SET, and this theory can be an important model to be applied in studying workplace behaviour for the purpose of comprehending the various forms of human behaviour, such as employees'

organisational commitment, positive work behaviour, withdrawal behaviour, antagonistic work behaviour, and employees' mental well-being (Shah & Hashmi, 2019).

Over the years, researchers have adopted different paradigms from real-life experiments of ball-throwing game among participants (William & Sommer, 1997), to cyberball game (Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000). However, one important thing about the results of such studies is that almost all the studies conducted using these paradigms have or shared two major features; first, they are consistent with (William's, 1997), definition of ostracism as they all involved a prolonged periods of rejection and exclusion during which the participants have little or no choice on how they will respond to the feelings of ostracism. Secondly, the mechanisms and the variables used to analyse the impacts of these paradigms (aggression, anxiety, depression, anti-social behaviour among others) originated from William's (1997, 2001) model of ostracism (Pharo, 2011).

Based on his personal experience, William (2009) developed a more comprehensive model on workplace ostracism called Temporal Needs Threat Model (TNT Model). TNT Model was born out of factual examples and discoveries of a variety of experiments, interviews, and diary studies. Ostracism, according to TNT Model, it has a direct impact on the following four essential human needs: meaningful existence, a sense of belonging, self-esteem, and a sense of control. When a person's feeling of belonging is put in jeopardy, their self-esteem typically suffers as a result, and when self-esteem is low, an individual is more likely to react defensively when confronted with threats to their existence (Smart, Richman, & Leary, 2009).

Ostracism is broken down into four categories by the TNT Model: clarity of the causal relationship, modality, motive, and the quantity of the action. It is possible for an individual to be socially ostracised in the form of face-to-face interactions or being neglected or ignored in front of other people. Finally, it is possible for ostracism to take the form of cyber ostracism, in which a person's emails or phone calls are not responded to, as well as other forms of social network communications that are rejected or ignored. According to Williams (2009) each of these components serves as the foundation for the modality dimension.

The second dimension of the model i.e. the motive dimension includes at least five reasons why people engage in ostracism: when someone ignores another unintentionally probably because the former is preoccupied or busy with other tasks, this is regarded as "not ostracism"; "role prescribed" ostracism involves avoiding having a conversation with other passengers in a bus or not having a free conversation with clients or waiter; "defensive ostracism" involves intentionally using ostracism for self-protection against negative treatment or rejection; others have used ostracism as a form of punishment for deviant workers; this type of ostracism is referred to as "punitive ostracism." Finally, ostracism can refer to the sensation or perception of being invisible by an individual or a target; this type of ostracism is known as "oblivious ostracism." The perspective of the target is related to the practise of oblivious ostracism.

The degree to which ostracism is experienced is referred to as the quantity dimension. That is, the degree of the behaviour, which can range from relatively mild cases of ignoring to severe manifestations of rejection (Williams & Zadro, 2005). The causal clarity dimension describes a circumstance in which an individual is pondering (not sure) if he or she is ignored or excluded; in other words, it is an expectation as to whether you are ignored or rejected by other people. These four dimensions constitute the various aspects of ostracism, and each can produce different possible consequences (Williams & Zadro, 2005). The evolution of these four dimensions gives an important clue in understanding the different stages of ostracism and its impact on employee's positive and negative behaviour, as well as employees' well-being. Nevertheless, the core of William's (2009) model assumes and emphasizes on fundamental needs threat and reactions to ostracism (Hartgerink, et al., 2015).

Wesselmann, Williams, and Hales (2013) maintained that responses to ostracism could be immediate, short, and long term. They stated further that some individuals can show immediate responses when ostracism occur. In short term, individual may use cognitive and behavioural coping mechanisms to try and overcome the feeling of being ostracized, and in the long term, individual may tend to manifest some behaviours (depression, anxiety, isolation, among others) if they fail to cope with the situation. In this regard, frustration will persist, and the consequences could be depression, unworthiness, alienation, withdrawal, and antagonistic behaviours, etc.

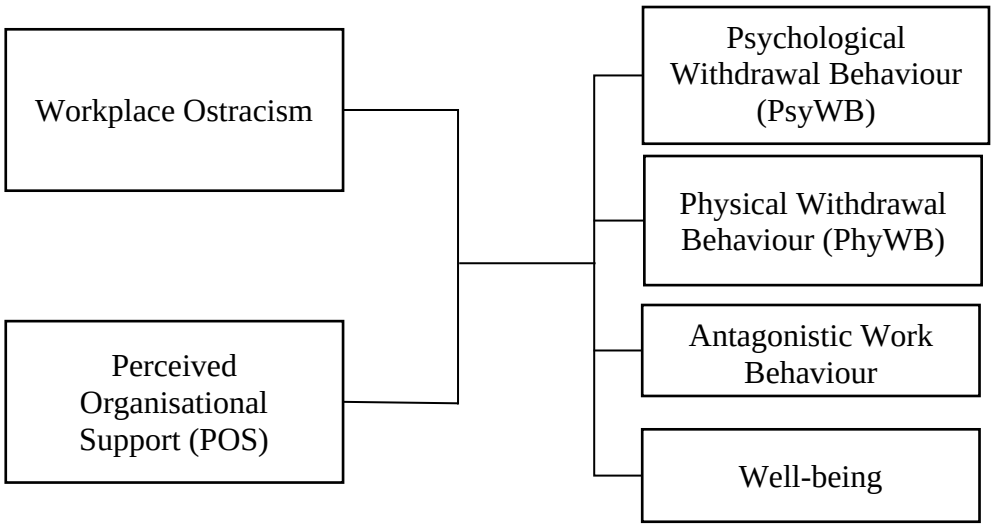
Williams (2007) however, classified the responses/reactions to ostracism into three, namely, to gain affiliation (tend-and-befriend), to retaliate (fight), and to avoid being ostracized (flight). In this regard, each individual reacts to ostracism based on their psychological differences. For example, some victims may try to ignore the feelings or compromise such feelings because they want to remain within the group or in some cases because they needed to belong and gain recognition or affiliation. Others may retaliate or react negatively to such experience/feeling either by attacking or manifest some negative or counter-productive behaviours. While in some cases other victims may decide to leave the group or the organisation because they could not cope with such experiences. This could be because of lack of coping strategies or due to some psychological/ personality reasons. These behaviours are found to be linked with employees' lack of commitment, withdrawal behaviour, and antagonistic work behaviour (Williams, 2002, 2007, 2009; Williams & Nida, 2011).

Based on the literature, research models, research questions and hypotheses are presented below.

RQ1. Do demographic traits (gender, marital status, work experience, and employment status) of employees make any difference in terms of workplace ostracism?

RQ2. Do workplace and POS significantly predict PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being?

Figure 2.2. shows the independent variables; workplace ostracism and POS and how they affect the dependent variables (PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being).



Figures 2.2. Research Model-1

(Hierarchical regression analysis for workplace ostracism and POS on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being).

The influence of the independent variable (workplace ostracism) on the identified dependent variables can be mediated by POS which is defined as the extent or degree to which an individual believes that the organisation, they are working with is concerned about their welfare and considers them to be an integral part of the organisation (Eisenberger, Huntington, & Sowa, 1986). Choi (2020) stated that POS is a vital variable in coping with workplace ostracism. In this vein, the final research question of the study is given below.

RQ3a. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB (RQ3a), PhyWB (RQ3b), antagonistic work behaviour (RQ3c), and well-being (RQ3d)?

Sub research questions and hypotheses are as follows:

RQ3a. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB?

The hypotheses to answer the above research question (RQ3a) are as follows:

H1a. Workplace ostracism has positive relationship with PsyWB.

H2a. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.

H3a. POS has negative relationship with PsyWB.

H4a. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PsyWB.

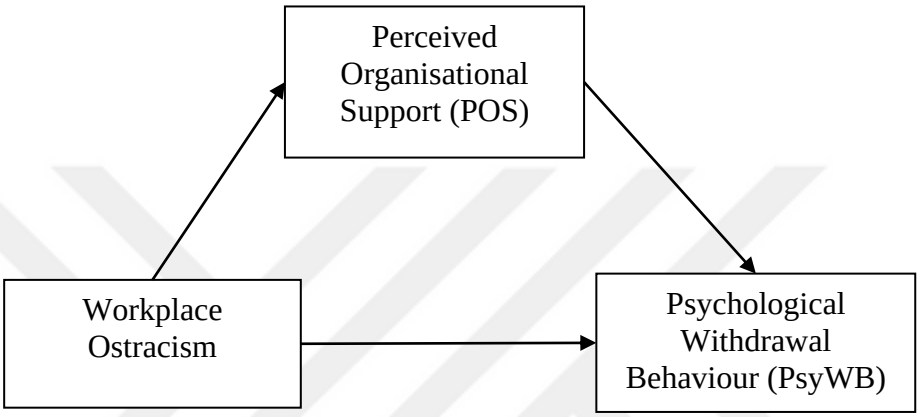


Figure 2.3. Research Model-2_2

RQ3b. Does POS mediate the relationship between Workplace ostracism and PhyWB?

The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:

H1b. Workplace ostracism has positive relationship with PhyWB.

H2b. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.

H3b. POS has negative relationship with PhyWB.

H4b. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PhyWB.

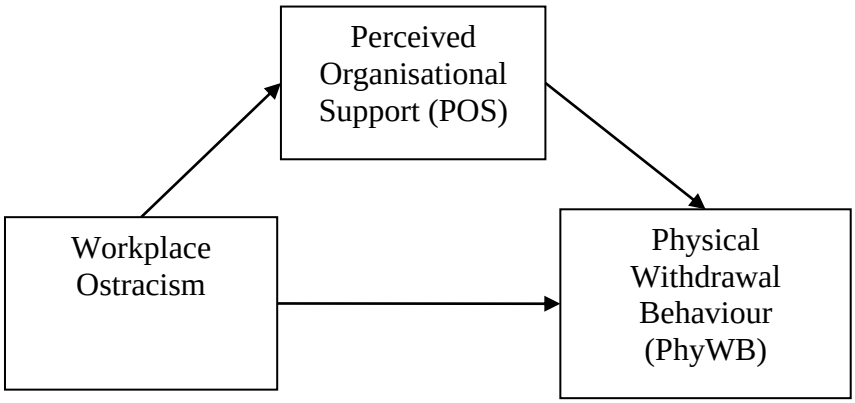


Figure 2.4. Research Model-2_3

RQ3c. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour?

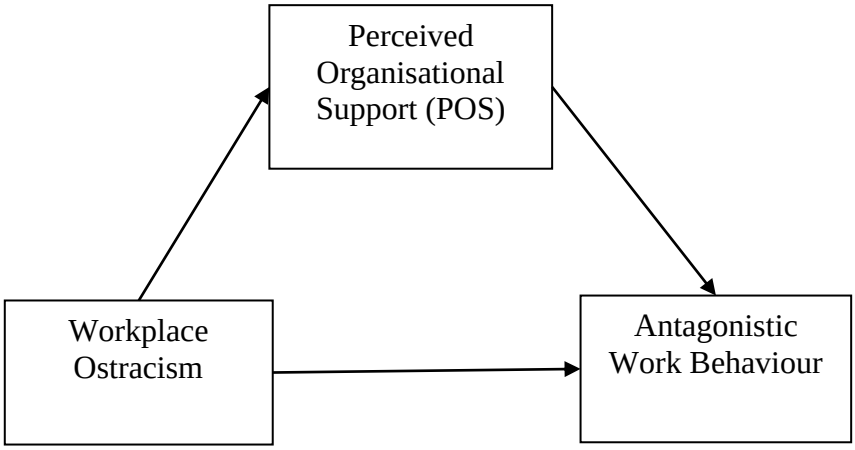
The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:

H1c. Workplace ostracism has positive relationship with antagonistic work behaviour.

H2c. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.

H3c. POS has negative relationship with antagonistic work behaviour.

H4c. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour.



Figures 2.5. Research Model-2_4

RQ3d. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being?

The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:

H1d. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with well-being.

H2d. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.

H3d. POS has positive relationship with well-being.

H4d. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and well-being.

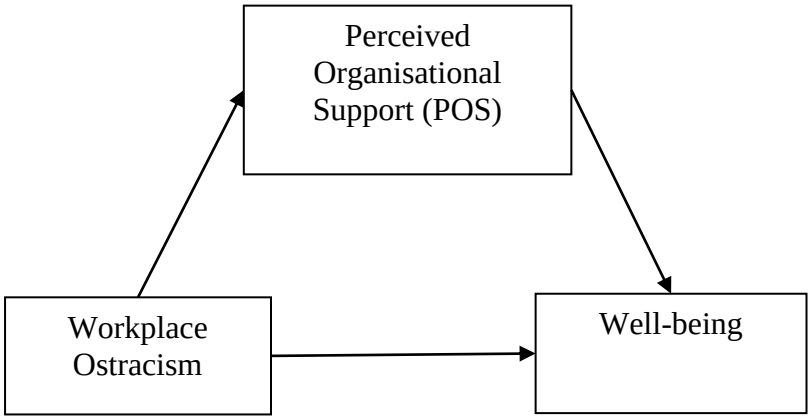


Figure 2.6. Research Model-2_5

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter is concerned with materials and methods adopted to carry out the research. It identified and explained the type of research design adopted, population and sampling size, sampling method, method of data collection, data collection tool and scales.

3.1. Research Design

The research adopted survey research method with quantitative approach. Survey research designs are procedures in quantitative research in which the researcher administer a questionnaire to a selected sample in order to obtain their attitudes, opinions, behaviours, or characteristics of the population (Tanny, 2018), as related to the effect of workplace ostracism and POS (independent variables) on dependent variables (PhyWB, PsyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being). The original scales were used to collect data for the study, in other words, no translation was made because English language is widely used and understood by Nigerians. After the collection of the data, the researcher statistically analyses the data to describe trends about responses to questionnaire items and to test the formulated research hypotheses.

3.2. Population and Sample

The data for the study was obtained from the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC). According to NNPC, there are 5000 employees working in the organisation around the country. These includes part-time and full-time employees working in all branches of the organisation in the country. Based on this, 536 employees were selected (Alreck & Settle, 2003), who are working in the oil and gas companies located in Lagos and Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja, Nigeria with emphasis on those employees who have experienced ostracism at least once or multiple times in their respective workplaces (no translation of the scales was used). It equally comprised the managers, supervisors, senior officers, and junior officers with work experiences beginning from 1 year to 20 years and above. The respondents were randomly selected using simple

random sampling technique. This implies that each employee had equal chance of representation in the study.

3.3. Data Collection Method

Data was collected through questionnaire. The researcher administered 536 copies of questionnaire to the randomly selected employees with the aid of two research assistants. Questionnaire was emailed to the employees. Permissions were sought from the Directors and Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) of these organisations having explained to them the purpose of the research. Permissions were granted and the research assistants helped by going to the organisations to explain further about the purpose of the research and the contents of the questionnaire to the respondents while their cooperation was sought. A total of 320 valid questionnaires were retrieved from participants.

3.4. Data Collection Tool

The first section was designed to cover items on demographic data (gender, marital status, employment type, and experience). The second section covered the validated scales (Workplace Ostracism Scale, Perceived Organisational Support Scale, Psychological Withdrawal Scale, Physical Withdrawal Scale, Antagonistic Work Behaviour Scale, and Well-Being Scale) which are used to test the research questions and hypotheses of the study.

3.4.1. Workplace Ostracism Scale

Workplace ostracism was measured using a ten-item scale developed by Ferris et al. (2008). These items were measured using seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always), where participants are asked to report on various examples of workplace ostracism that they have experienced. A sample item includes “Others left the area when you entered”. As a result of the factor analysis, one item was removed from the scale, and workplace ostracism was measured with nine items in this study. Cronbach’s alpha score was 0.93 for this study.

3.4.2. Perceived Organisational Support Scale (POS)

POS was measured using shortened nine-item version of the measure developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). These items were measured using five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to measure the extent at which employees feel supported by their organisation. A sample item includes “The organisation strongly considers my goals and values”. As a result of the factor analysis, two items were removed from the scale, and POS was measured with seven items as opposed to the nine items. Cronbach’s alpha score for this scale was 0.93.

3.4.3. Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour (PsyWB) Scale

PsyWB was measured using an eight-item of Lehman and Simpson’s (1992) On-the-Job Behaviours Scale’s psychological withdrawal behaviour sub-dimension. Items were measured using seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). A sample item includes “Thought of being absent”. Cronbach’s alpha score for this scale was 0.86.

3.4.4. Physical Withdrawal Behaviour (PhyWB) Scale

PhyWB was measured using a four-item of Lehman and Simpson’s (1992) On-the-Job Behaviours Scale’s physical withdrawal behaviour sub-dimension. Items were measured using seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). A sample item includes “Left work early without permission”. Cronbach’s alpha score for this scale was 0.80.

3.4.5. Antagonistic Work Behaviour Scale

Antagonistic work behaviour was measured using a five-item of Lehman and Simpson’s (1992) On-the-Job Behaviours Scale’s antagonistic work behaviour sub-dimension. Items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). A sample item includes “Disobeyed supervisor’s instructions”. Cronbach’s alpha score for this scale was 0.82.

3.4.6. Well-being Scale (WEMWBS)

Well-being was measured using a fourteen-item of the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (WEMWBS) developed by Tennant et al. (2007). These items were measured using five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), where participants were asked to report how they feel lately. A sample item included “I’ve been feeling optimistic about the future.” Cronbach’s alpha score was 0.94 for this study.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This section is divided into three main sections; the first section includes initial data analysis and data screening which covers data response rate, missing values, outlier test results, normality test results, factor analyses, and reliability analyses. The second section includes descriptive statistics where the researcher aims to describe the data based on the demographic information of the respondents, one way ANOVA and independent t-test. The third section covers correlation analyses, and hierarchical regression analyses, and the final section covers the mediation analyses. The first three sections use Statistical Package for Social Science software (SPSS version 20) to analyse the data, while the last section uses Hayes Process Macro.

4.1. Initial Data Screening

This sub-section analyses response rate, missing values, outlier and normality tests, factor analyses, and internal consistency of the scales.

4.1.1. Response Rate

From the questionnaires that were distributed to the intended respondents, the response rate of 59.7% was obtained and analysed. The response rate was calculated by using the Neumann (2014) response rate formula. Response rate usually vary, however Baruch (1999) suggested that a response rate of more than 35% is accepted and reasonable to carry out other analysis. The response rate of 59.7% shows how well the sample size selected reflects the population of interest of the researcher.

Total response rate = (Total number of responses/total number in sample) x 100%

Total response rate = (536/320) x 100%

Total response rate = 59.7%

4.1.2. Missing Values

Due to the nature of online setups of questionnaire, the researcher obtained zero missing values; this is because all the questions were marked as compulsory questions hence the respondents could not proceed to the next questions until they finished the previous questions. The researcher analysed the frequency distribution to re-confirm if there were any missing values and the results shows that there were no missing values.

4.1.3. Outlier Test

The outlier test was done to screen the extreme values in the data set. The concept of outlier and how to handle it has been discussed by various authors. For instance, in 1941, Winsor came up with a proper treatment of outlier, whereby he suggested that the sample that have outlier should not be rejected but changing the values and replace the outlier value to the nearest observation. He called this process as “Winsorization of outliers”. This process was applied by Tukey (1962) in the study he conducted. However, the researcher used Mahalonobis distance test to define, identify and deal with outliers. Test results indicated that there was no outlier.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) once Mahallanobis distance (D2) is calculated, it is divided to degree of freedom (df) to identify the potential outliers. If the value of D2 is in the range of 3.5-4 for sample size greater than or equal to 100, the data is considered as, has no problem of outliers (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, according to Byrne (2010) if the standard residual in the distribution is in range of ± 3, then the data is considered as has no outlier problem.

As shown in Table 4.1, D2 is in between 0.029 and 18.029 and the degree of freedom is 6. The Mahallanobis distance = 3.005 (18.029/6) indicates that there is no problem of outliers in the data for further analyses.

Table 4.1. Assessment of Outliers

	Min.	Max.	Mean	Sd	n
Predicted Value	2.8308	5.5666	4.6825	.54299	320
Std. Predicted Value	-3.410	1.628	.000	1.000	320
Std. Error of Predicted Value	.065	.282	.103	.043	320
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.8744	5.5662	4.6841	.54082	320
Residual	-2.24188	1.94111	.00000	1.14942	320
Std. Residual	-1.944	1.683	.000	.997	320
Stud. Residual	-1.949	1.687	-.001	1.001	320
Deleted Residual	-2.25363	1.95023	-.00161	1.15823	320
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.958	1.692	-.001	1.002	320
Mahal. Distance	.029	18.029	1.994	3.338	320
Cook's Distance	.000	.015	.003	.003	320
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.057	.006	.010	320

4.1.4. Normality Test

Saunder et al. (2007) defined normality distribution as the symmetric distribution whereby the data appears in a bell-shaped form. The researcher used Shapiro-Wilk test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to check for normality and the results shows the data are normally distributed as the *p*-values of the Shapiro Wilk and Kolmogorov Smirnov tests were above 0.05 as appeared in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	df	*p*
Workplace Ostracism	0.216	320	0.154
Perceived Organisational Support	0.162	320	0.183
Psychological Withdrawal	0.145	320	0.182
Physical Withdrawal	0.156	320	0.194
Antagonistic Behaviour	0.246	320	0.258
Wellbeing	0.183	320	0.165

4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analyses

In this section confirmatory factor analyses are conducted for workplace ostracism, POS, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being scales.

4.2.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Workplace Ostracism Scale

According to the results of the first factor analysis, it is seen that factor load of item 10 was below 0.20, and the item loaded in the second factor. Therefore, item 10 was removed from the scale, and factor analysis was reconducted. Table 4.3 presents KMO and Barlett's Test for 9-items Workplace Ostracism Scale.

Table 4.3. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Workplace Ostracism

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2315.770
	df	36
	Sig.	0.000

According to Table 4.3 KMO's sampling adequacy value was 0.842. The value of KMO along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = 0.000$, this shows that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis results for 9-item version of the scale indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the variable by 64.45%. Factor loadings vary between 0.63 and 0.88.

4.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Perceived Organisational Support Scale

According to the results of the first factor analysis, it is seen that factor load of items 5 and 7 were below 0.20, and items loaded in the second factor. Therefore, items 5 and 7 were removed from the scale, and factor analysis was reconducted. Table 4.4 presents KMO and Barlett's Test for 7-items POS Scale.

Table 4.4. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Perceived Organisational Support

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2012.842
	df	21
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.4 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test results for POS scale. It measures the sampling adequacy, the chi-square, and the significance of the scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was 0.862. The value of KMO along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = 0.000$, as such, the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis results for 7-item version of the scale indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the variable by 69.91%. Factor loading vary between 0.60 and 0.94.

4.2.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour Scale

Table 4.5 explains the factor analysis for PsyWB scale, data was collected using all the 8 items in the original scale. The results of the chi-square and the significant value were explained.

Table 4.5. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.744
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1298.377
	df	28
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.5 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test results for PsyWB scale. It measures the sampling adequacy, the chi-square, and the significance of the scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was 0.744. The value of KMO along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at $p = 0.000$, as a result of this, the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Confirmatory factor

analysis results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the variable by 50.44%. Factor loadings vary between 0.53 and 0.79.

4.2.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Physical Withdrawal Behaviour Scale

Table 4.6 explains the factor analysis for PhyWB scale, data was collected using all the 4 items in the original scale. The results of the chi-square and the significant value were explained.

Table 4.6. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Physical Withdrawal Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.698
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	540.741
	df	6
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.6 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test results for PhyWB scale. It measures the sampling adequacy, the chi-square, and the significance of the scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was 0.698. The value of KMO along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at p = 0.000, this shows that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the variable by 63.05%. Factor loadings vary between 0.50 and 0.90.

4.2.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Antagonistic Work Behaviour Scale

Table 4.7 explains the factor analysis for Antagonistic Work Behaviour Scale, data was collected using all the 5 items in the original scale. The results of the chi-square and the significant value were explained.

Table 4.7. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Antagonistic Work Behaviour

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.696
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	710.859
	df	10
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.7 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test results for antagonistic work behaviour scale. It measures the sampling adequacy, the chi-square, and the significance of the scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was 0.696. The value of KMO along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at p = 0.000, this shows that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the variable by 58.47%. Factor loadings vary between 0.58 and 0.79.

4.2.6. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Well-being Scale

Table 4.8 explains the factor analysis for Well-being Scale, data was collected using all the 14 items in the original scale. The results of the chi-square and the significant value were explained.

Table 4.8. KMO and Bartlett's Test for Well-Being

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.847
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4737.407
	df	91
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.8 presents the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test results for well-being scale. It measures the sampling adequacy, the chi-square, and the significance of the scale. According to the table, the KMO's sampling adequacy value was 0.847. The value of KMO along with the Bartlett's test of sphericity are seen to be significant at p = 0.000, this shows that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis results indicate that the scale consists of a single factor that explains the variable by 59.42%. Factor loadings vary between 0.54 and 0.89.

4.3. Reliability Analyses

To check whether the scales were reliable or not, Cronbach alpha values were calculated for each scale. As shown in Table 4.9, Cronbach alpha scores for all scales was higher than 0.70. Sekaran and Bougies (2016) argues that the closer the Cronbach alpha is to 1, the better the reliability of the scale.

Table 4.9. Reliability Scores of Research Variables

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha Value (α)
Workplace Ostracism	9	0.93
Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	7	0.93
Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour	8	0.86
Physical Withdrawal Behaviour	4	0.80
Antagonistic Work Behaviour	5	0.82
Well-Being	14	0.94

4.4. Distribution of the Sample by Demographic Characteristics

4.4.1. Gender

Table 4.10 shows the descriptive statistics for gender. The results indicate that on average the number of male respondents exceeds the number of females. The percentage of male respondents is equal to 71.9% followed by female with 28.1%.

Table 4.10. Gender Descriptive Statistics

Gender	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	230	71.9%
Female	90	28.1%
Total	320	100.%

4.4.2. Marital Status

Table 4.11 shows the frequency distribution for marital status. The data shows that 62.5% were married followed by 37.5% were single.

Table 4.11. Marital Status Descriptive Statistics

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage %
Single	120	37.5%
Married	200	62.5%
Total	320	100%

4.4.3. Employment Type

The employment type of the respondents was categorized into two, those working as full time and those working as part time employees. The mean value shows that on average the respondents were full time employees which are equal to 90% while the part time were 10% as shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. Employment Type Descriptive Statistics

Employment	Frequency	Percentage %
Full time	288	90.0%
Part time	32	10.0%
Total	320	100%

4.4.4. Work Experience

The descriptive statistics for work experience shows that 49.4% of the respondents have 1-5 years of working experience, followed by 35.3% who have 6-10 years of working experience, then 15.3% were 11 and above years of working experience, respectively.

Table 4.13. Work Experience Descriptive Statistics

Work Experience	Frequency	Percentage%
1-5	158	49.4%
6-10	113	35.3%
11 and above	49	15.3%
Total	320	100%

4.5. Comparison Tests

In this section t-test for independent groups and variance analyses are conducted to test the following research question of this study.

RQ1. Do demographic traits (gender, marital status, work experience, and employment status) of employees make any difference in terms of workplace ostracism?

4.5.1. t-Test Results for Independent Groups

t-test was carried out to test the independent groups and variance used in this study. The analyses are presented in the tables below.

4.5.1.1. t-Test Results Between Workplace Ostracism and Gender

t-test was carried out to test whether gender, marital status, and employment type significantly differ regarding workplace ostracism. Results are presented in Table 4.14, Table 4.15, and Table 4.16.

Table 4.14. t-Test Results Between Workplace Ostracism and Gender

	Gender	n	Mean	sd	df	*t*	sig.
Workplace Ostracism	Female	90	2.10	1.42	318	4.731	0.000
	Male	230	1.54	0.66			

As shown in Table 4.14, there is a significant difference between female and male employees regarding workplace ostracism [$t_{(318)}$=4.731, p=0.00]. Females ($\overline{X}$ = 2.10) perceive more workplace ostracism compared to males ($\overline{X}$ = 1.54).

4.5.1.2. t-Test Results Between Workplace Ostracism and Marital Status

Table 4.15 provides the *t*-test results for marital status regarding workplace ostracism. The mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, *t*-value and the significant value are given below.

Table 4.15. t-Test Results Between Workplace Ostracism and Marital Status

	Marital Status	n	Mean	sd	df	*t*	sig.
Workplace Ostracism	Married	200	1.44	0.58	318	6.462	0.000
	Single	120	2.12	1.29			

As shown in Table 4.15, there is a significant difference between married and single employees regarding workplace ostracism [$t_{(318)}$=6.462, p=0.00]. Single employees ($\overline{X}$ = 2.12) perceive more workplace ostracism compared to married employees ($\overline{X}$ = 0.58).

4.5.1.3. t-Test Results Between Workplace Ostracism and Employment Type

Table 4.16 provides the *t*-test results for employment type regarding workplace ostracism. The mean, standard deviation, degree of freedom, *t*-value and the significant value are explained below.

Table 4.16. t-Test Results Between Workplace Ostracism and Employment Type

	Employment Type	n	Mean	Sd	df	*t*	sig.
Workplace Ostracism	Full Time	288	1.65	0.84	318	2.936	0.004
	Part Time	32	2.17	1.69			

Table 4.16 presents *t*-test statistics between employment type and workplace ostracism. As shown in the table, there is a significant difference between part-time and full time employees regarding workplace ostracism [$t_{(318)}$=2.936, p=0.004]. Part-time employees ($\overline{X}$ = 2.17) perceive more workplace ostracism than full-time employees ($\overline{X}$ = 1.65).

4.5.2. One-Way ANOVA Result for Work Experience

ANOVA result for work experience (in years) regarding workplace ostracism is given in Table 4.17. The mean and standard deviations of the groups are provided in the table. It was indicated that the highest mean for the groups were observed in the group of 1-5 years of working experience. Furthermore, the *F*-value and the p-value are given in the table below.

Table 4.17. One-Way ANOVA for Work Experience

	Working Experience	n	Mean	Sd	*F*	*p*
Workplace Ostracism	1-5 years	158	1.77	0.91	1.432	0.240
	6-10 years	113	1.69	1.17		
	11 years and above	49	1.50	0.54		

The ANOVA result indicates that working experience does not significantly differ regarding workplace ostracism [F=$_{(1.432)}$, p=0.240].

4.6. Correlation Analyses

Before the regression analyses firstly Pearson correlation coefficients among research variables were calculated. The coefficients are shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. Correlation Coefficients Among Research Variables (N=320)

Research Variables	M	Sd	1	2	3	4	5
1. Workplace Ostracism	1.70	0.97					
2. POS	4.92	1.40	-0.13*				
3. Psychological Withdrawal	2.83	1.26	0.42**	-0.17**			
4. Physical Withdrawal	2.21	1.28	0.25**	-0.08	0.77**		
5. Antagonistic Work Behaviour	2.20	1.24	0.48**	-0.15**	0.75**	0.84**	
6. Well-Being	4.00	0.87	-0.38**	0.41**	-0.21**	-0.12*	-0.22**

**p<0.05, **p<0.01*

According to Table 4.18 workplace ostracism was positively and significantly related with PsyWB (r=0.42, p<0.01), PhyWB (r=0.25, p<0.01), and antagonistic work behaviour (r=0.48, p<0.01). There was negative correlation between workplace ostracism and POS (r=-0.13, p<0.05), and well-being (r=-0.38, p<0.01). POS was negatively and significantly correlated with PsyWB (r=-0.17, p<0.01), antagonistic work behaviour (r=-0.15, p<0.01). On the other hand, POS was positively and significantly correlated with well-being (r=0.41, p<0.01). There was no significant correlation between POS and PhyWB.

4.7. Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test the following research question.

RQ2. Do workplace ostracism and POS significantly predict PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour and well-being?

In the first stage of the model, workplace ostracism was included, and in the second stage of the model, POS was included in the regression analyses. Thus, the predictive levels of workplace ostracism and POS, which are considered as predictor variables, on the criterion variables were examined. Regression analyses were performed for three

dependent variables examined in the study. The results are presented in this section. Since there was no significant relationship between PhyWB and POS in the correlation analyses, hierarchical regression analysis was performed only on PsyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being variables.

Table 4.19 shows the effects of workplace ostracism and POS on PsyWB.

Table 4.19. Hierarchical Regression Results for PsyWB

Predictor Variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*B*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Step								
Workplace Ostracism	0.55	0.06	0.42	8.264	0.00	0.42	0.18	
$F_{(1.318)} = 68.290$ $p = 0.000$								
2. Step								
Workplace Ostracism	0.53	0.06	0.41	7.96	0.00	0.44	0.19	0.01
POS	-0.11	0.04	-0.12	-2.37	0.02			
$F_{(1.317)} = 37.457$ $\Delta F_{(1.317)} = 5.629$ $p = 0.018$								

POS: Perceived Organisational Support

In the first hierarchical regression analysis, workplace ostracism was first included in the model. workplace ostracism (β = 0.42; p = 0.000) seems to predict PsyWB significantly. In the first stage, it is seen that the model explains 18% variance and it is significant [$F_{(1.318)} = 68.290$; p = 0.000]. In the second stage, POS variable was entered into the model. Although the predictive power of workplace ostracism decreased after POS was added to the model, workplace ostracism (β = 0.41; p = 0.000) was still a significant predictor. It is seen that POS negatively and significantly predicts PsyWB and explains 1% variance by itself. It is seen that the model tested in the second stage is significant [$F_{(1.317)} = 5.629$; p = 0.018]. According to the results of the regression analysis, workplace ostracism and POS explained 19% variance on PsyWB. Findings of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that employees experiencing workplace ostracism will be able to engage in PsyWB when their POS decrease.

Table 4.20 shows the effects of workplace ostracism and POS on antagonistic work behaviour.

Table 4.20. Hierarchical Regression Results on Antagonistic Work Behaviour

Predictor Variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Step								
Workplace Ostracism	0.62	0.06	0.48	9.774	0.00	0.48	0.23	
$F_{(1.318)} = 95.526$ $p = 0.000$								
2. Step								
Workplace	0.60	0.06	0.47	9.50	0.00	0.49	0.24	0.01
Ostracism	-0.08	0.04	-0.09	-1.83	0.07			
POS								
$F_{(1.317)} = 49.789$	$\Delta F_{(1.317)} = 3.348$		$p = 0.068$					

POS: Perceived Organisational Support

In the second hierarchical regression analysis, workplace ostracism was first included in the model. workplace ostracism ($\beta = 0.48$; $p = 0.000$) seems to predict antagonistic work behaviour significantly. In the first stage, it is seen that the model explains 23% variance and it is significant [$F_{(1.318)} = 95.526$; $p = 0.000$]. In the second stage, POS was entered into the model. Although the predictive power of workplace ostracism decreased after POS was added to the model, workplace ostracism ($\beta = 0.47$; $p = 0.000$) was still a significant predictor. However, POS is not a significant predictor of antagonistic work behaviour ($\beta = -0.09$; $p = 0.07$). Therefore, in the second stage of the model, workplace ostracism and POS did not significantly predict antagonistic work behaviour [$F_{(1.317)} = 3.348$; $p = 0.068$]. Findings indicate that; employees experiencing workplace ostracism may engage in antagonistic work behaviour. POS has no significant effect on antagonistic work behaviour.

Table 4.21 shows the effects of workplace ostracism and POS on well-being.

Table 4.21. Hierarchical Regression Results on Well-being

Predictor Variables	*B*	*S.E B*	*B*	*t*	*p*	*R*	R^2	ΔR^2
1. Step								
Workplace Ostracism	-0.35	0.05	-0.38	-7.365	0.00	0.38	0.15	
$F_{(1.318)} = 54.238$ $p = 0.000$								
2. Step								
Workplace Ostracism	-0.30	0.04	-0.34	-6.98	0.00	0.53	0.28	0.13
POS	0.22	0.03	0.37	7.59	0.00			
$F_{(1.317)} = 60.777$ $\Delta F_{(1.317)} = 57.654$ $p = 0.000$								

POS: Perceived Organisational Support

In the third hierarchical regression analysis, workplace ostracism was first included in the model. workplace ostracism (β = -0.38; p = 0.000) seems to predict well-being negatively and significantly. In the first stage, it is seen that the model explains 15% variance and it is significant [$F_{(1.318)}$ = 54.238; p = 0.000]. In the second stage, POS was entered into the model. Although the predictive power of workplace ostracism on well-being decreased after POS was added into the model, and workplace ostracism (β = -0.34; p = 0.000) was still a significant predictor. It is seen that POS positively and significantly predicts well-being and explains 13% variance by itself. It is seen that the model tested in the second stage is significant [$F_{(1.317)}$ = 5.7.654; p = 0.000]. According to the results of the regression analysis, workplace ostracism and POS explained 28% variance on well-being. Findings indicate that; as the perception of workplace ostracism decreases and the discernment of POS increases, the well-being of the employees increases.

4.8. Mediation Analyses

Mediation analyses were carried out using Hayes Macro processing Model 4 to test the final research question of the study given below.

RQ3. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB (RQ3a), PhyWB (RQ3b), antagonistic work behaviour (RQ3c), and well-being (RQ3d)?

4.8.1. Mediating Effects of POS between Workplace Ostracism and PsyWB

RQ3a. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB?

- The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:
- H1a. Workplace ostracism has positive relationship with PsyWB.
- H2a. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.
- H3a. POS has negative relationship with PsyWB.
- H4a. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PsyWB.

The model for testing the above hypotheses is shown in Figure 4.1. The model shows the mediating role of POS in the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB. According to the mediation analysis, workplace ostracism explained PsyWB directly and positively (b= 0.53, t=7.96, p<0.001; 95% CI [0.40-0.66]), supporting H1a. workplace ostracism explained POS significantly and negatively (b= -0.19, t=-2.26, p<0.05; 95% CI [-0.35- -0.02]), supporting H2a. In addition, POS directly and negatively explained PsyWB (b= -0.10, t=-2.37, p<0.05; 95% CI [-0.19- -0.02]), supporting H3a. The indirect effects related to the mediation model are given in Table 4.22. According to the results, the indirect effect of POS on the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB is significant (b= 0.02, SE= 0.01, CI [0.00- 0.05]). Therefore, POS plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB. Therefore, H4a is supported.

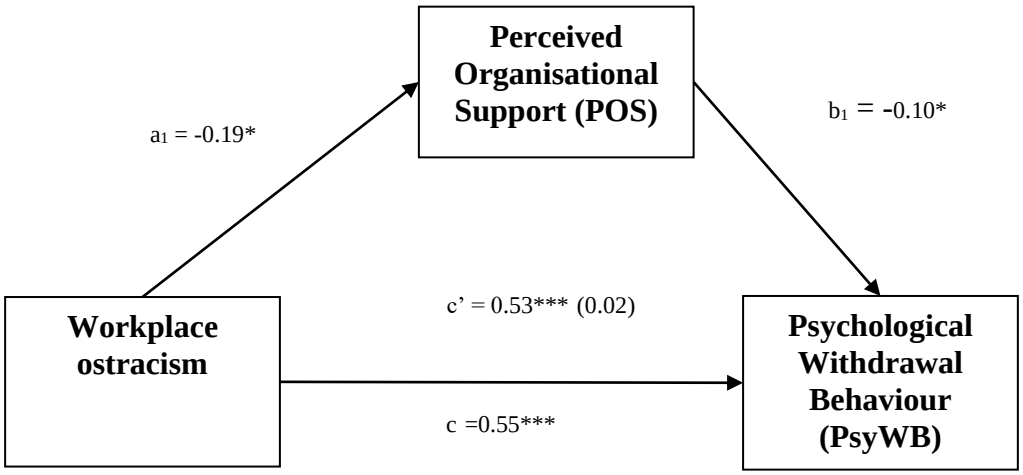


Figure 4.1. Mediating Effect of POS between Workplace Ostracism and PsyWB

(Unstandardized coefficients are shown in figure 4.1 where c′ represents direct effect, c represents total effect and indirect effect is given in parentheses) *p<0.05, ***p<0.001.

4.8.2. Mediating Effects of POS between Workplace Ostracism and PhyWB

RQ3b. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PhyWB?

- The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:
- H1b. workplace ostracism has positive relationship with PhyWB.
- H2b. workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.
- H3b. POS has negative relationship with PhyWB.
- H4b. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PhyWB.

The model for testing the above hypotheses is shown in Figure 4.2. The model shows the mediating role of POS in the relationship between workplace ostracism and PhyWB. According to the mediation analysis, workplace ostracism explained PhyWB directly and positively (b= 0.33, t=4.52, p<0.001; 95% CI [0.19-0.47]), supporting H1b. workplace

ostracism explained POS significantly and negatively (b= -0.19, *t*=-2.26, *p*<0.05; 95% CI [-0.35- -0.02]), supporting H2b. Whereas, POS did not predict PhyWB significantly (b= -0.05, *t*=-0.93, *p*=0.35; 95% CI [-0.14- 0.05]), rejecting H3b. The indirect effects related to the mediation model are given in Table 4.22. According to this, the indirect effect of POS on the relationship between workplace ostracism and PhyWB is insignificant (b= 0.01, SE= 0.01, CI [-0.01- 0.03]). Therefore, POS did not mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PhyWB. H4b is rejected.

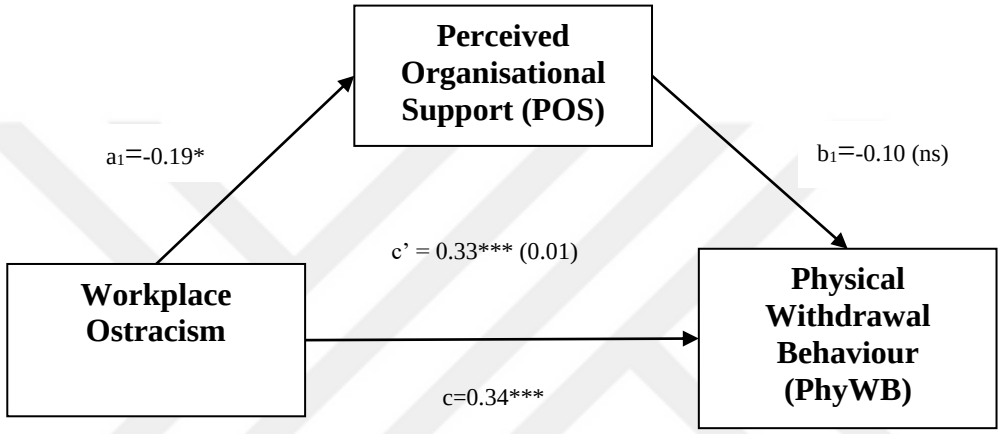


Figure 4.2. Mediating Effect of POS between Workplace Ostracism and PhyWB

(Unstandardized coefficients are shown in figure 4.2 where c′ represents direct effect, c represents total effect and indirect effect is given in parentheses) *p<0.05, ***p<0.001.

4.8.3. Mediating Effects of POS between Workplace Ostracism and Antagonistic Work Behaviour

RQ3c. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour?

The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:

- H1c. Workplace ostracism has positive relationship with antagonistic work behaviour.
- H2c. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.
- H3c. POS has negative relationship with antagonistic work behaviour.
- H4c. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour.

The model for testing the above hypotheses is shown in Figure 4.3. The model shows the mediating role of POS in the relationship between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour. According to the mediation analysis, workplace ostracism explained antagonistic work behaviour directly and positively (b= 0.60, t=9.50, p<0.001; 95% CI [0.47-0.73]), supporting H1c. workplace ostracism explained POS significantly and negatively (b= -0.19, t=-2.26, p<0.05; 95% CI [-0.35- -0.02]), supporting H2c. Whereas, POS did not predict antagonistic work behaviour significantly (b= -0.08, t=-1.83, p=0.08; 95% CI [-0.16- 0.01]), rejecting H3c. The indirect effects related to the mediation model are given in Table 4.22. According to this, the indirect effect of POS on the relationship between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour is significant (b= 0.01, SE= 0.01, CI [0.00- 0.04]). However, since POS did not predict antagonistic work behaviour, POS is not a significant mediator between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour, rejecting H4c.

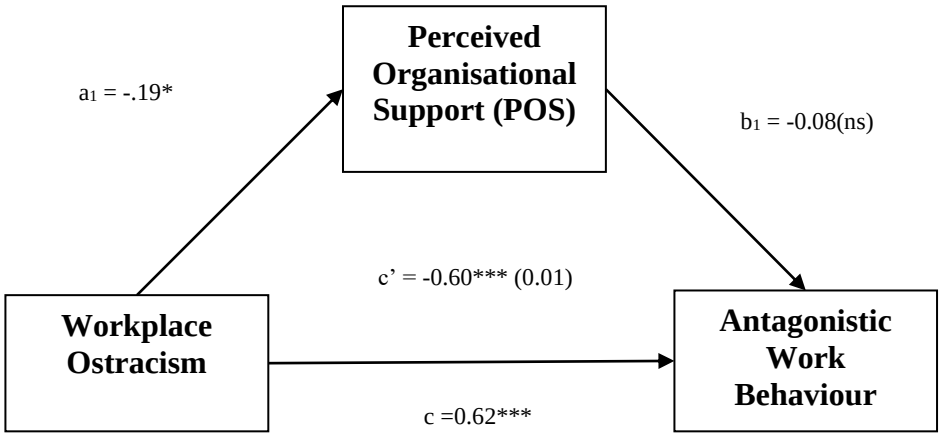


Figure 4.3. Mediating Effect of POS between Workplace Ostracism and Antagonistic Work Behaviour

(Unstandardized coefficients are shown in figure 4.3 where c′ represents direct effect, c represents total effect and indirect effect is given in parentheses) *p<0.05, ***p<0.001.

4.8.4. Mediating Effect of POS between Workplace Ostracism and Well-being

RQ3d. Does POS mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being?

The hypotheses to answer the above research question are as follows:

- H1d. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with well-being.
- H2d. Workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS.
- H3d. POS has positive relationship with well-being.
- H4d. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and well-being.

The model for testing the above hypotheses is shown in Figure 4.4. The model shows the mediating role of POS in the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being. According to mediation analysis, workplace ostracism explained well-being directly and negatively (b= -0.30, t=-6.98, p<0.001; 95% CI [-0.39- -0.22]), supporting H1d. workplace ostracism explained POS significantly and negatively (b= -0.19, t=-2.26, p<0.05; 95% CI [-0.35- -0.02]), supporting H2d. In addition, POS directly and positively explained well-being (b= 0.22, t=7.59, p<0.001; 95% CI [0.16- 0.28]), supporting H3d. The indirect effects related to the mediation model are given in Table 4.22. According to this, the indirect effect of POS on the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being is significant (b= -0.04, SE= 0.01, CI [-0.07- -0.01]). Therefore, POS plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being. H4d is also supported.

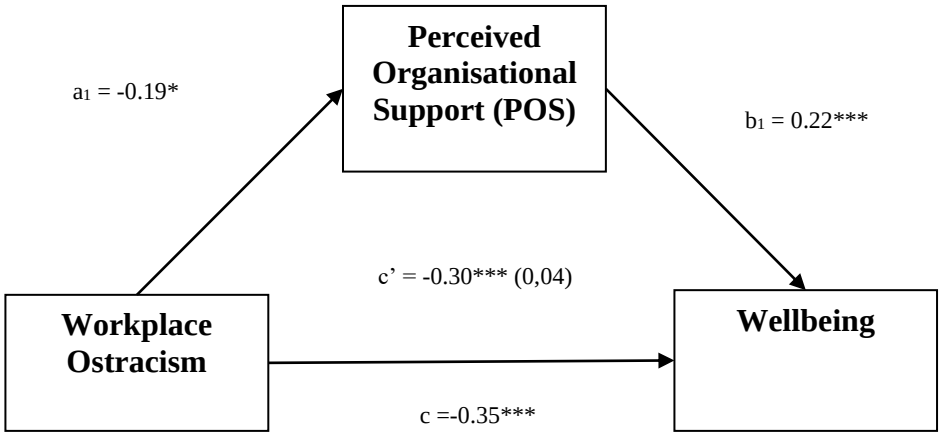


Figure 4.4. Mediating Effect of POS between Workplace Ostracism and Well-being

(Unstandardized coefficients are shown in 4.4 figure above where c′ represents direct effect, c represents total effect and indirect effect is given in parentheses) *p<0.05, ***p<0.001.

Table 4.22. Indirect Effects of the Mediation Models

Paths	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Workplace Ostracism → POS → PsyWB	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.05
Workplace Ostracism → POS → PhyWB	0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.03
Workplace Ostracism → POS → Antagonistic Work Behaviour	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.04
Workplace Ostracism → POS → Well-being	-0.04	0.01	-0.07	-0.01

(SE: standard error; LLCI: lower-level confidence interval; ULCI: upper-level confidence interval).

The summary table regarding whether the hypotheses regarding Model 2 are accepted or not is shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23. Summary of Model 2 (hypotheses)

Hypotheses	Decision
H1a. Workplace ostracism has a positive relationship with PsyWB.	Accepted
H2a. Workplace ostracism has a negative relationship with POS.	Accepted
H3a. POS has a negative relationship with PsyWB.	Accepted
H4a. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PsyWB.	Accepted
H1b. Workplace ostracism has a positive relationship with PhyWB.	Accepted
H2b. Workplace ostracism has a negative relationship with POS.	Accepted
H3b. POS has a negative relationship with PhyWB.	Rejected
H4b. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PhyWB.	Rejected
H1c. Workplace ostracism has a positive relationship with antagonistic work behaviour.	Accepted
H2c. Workplace ostracism has a negative relationship with POS.	Accepted
H3c. POS has a negative relationship with antagonistic work behaviour.	Rejected
H4c. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour.	Rejected
H1d. Workplace ostracism has a negative relationship with well-being.	Accepted
H2d. Workplace ostracism has a negative relationship with POS.	Accepted
H3d. POS has a positive relationship with well-being.	Accepted
H4d. POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and well-being.	Accepted

5. DISCUSSION

This research was designed to explain the effects of workplace ostracism, and POS on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. In addition, the researcher examined the mediating role of POS on the relationship between the independent variable workplace ostracism and the dependent variables (PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being).

Ostracism is widely considered in the extant literature as social exclusion and contextual dependence. According to Robinson, O'Reilly, and Wang (2013, p. 207) "recognizing the significance of the greater social environment has the key implication that what someone sees as ostracism in one context may be insignificant to another person". Using the survey questionnaire technique, the study investigated the effects of workplace ostracism on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being mediated by POS.

The study gives an interesting insight into the results of the t-test between the demographic characteristics and workplace ostracism. For example, there was a significant difference in terms of gender and workplace ostracism. The data shows that there is a significant difference between female and male employees regarding workplace ostracism, females perceive more workplace ostracism compared to males. This result is similar to Zimmermann, Adrienne, and Xu (2016) who found that women perceived more workplace ostracism than their male counterparts among members of the faculty in the higher institution they studied. The reason for this finding might be that according to Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) Nigeria is a male dominating country, and that most Nigerian working environment are gender specific. Another finding revealed that there is a significant difference between married and single employees regarding workplace ostracism. Single employees perceive more workplace ostracism compared to married employees. This finding is also similar to Keuskamp, Ziersch, and Anthony (2011) in their study on bullying found that single, divorced and widowed reported more bullying than married employees in Australia. And since the topic for this research is closely related to bullying, we can conclude that the reason for the difference is similar to the findings of Keuskamp, Ziersch, & Anthony (2011). For employment type, the difference between part-

time and full-time employees regarding workplace ostracism is significant. Part-time employees perceive more workplace ostracism than full-time employees.

Findings of the correlation analyses indicate that there is a positive and significant association between workplace ostracism and PsyWB. This is similar to previous literature such as O'Reilly et al. (2015) confirmed that ostracism has a longer lasting psychological consequence for workers, it may undermine people's sense of identity, sense of worth and can lead people to be frustrated and psychologically withdrawing and can even lead to various degrees of health issues. Additionally, workplace ostracism in this study showed a significant and positive association with PhyWB. This finding was earlier established by Sao and Wadhwani (2018) who noted that ostracized employees who are shunned have a high likelihood of either quitting the job or remaining and becoming absent from the work emotionally and psychologically.

Findings of the correlation analyses also revealed that there was a positive and significant association between workplace ostracism with antagonistic work behaviour. Studies of Ferris et al. (2015); Tariq and Amir (2019); and Yang and Treadway (2016) suggested that an increase in employees participating in counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) and a decline in an employee's effectiveness on their job or task has been proposed to be a result of ostracism in the workplace. In another development, workplace ostracism was found to correlate to POS negatively with. This finding is parallel to previous findings such as Kwan et al. (2018) confirm that POS had played a major role in protecting employees' ability to manifest a negative behaviour when they perceived that they are being ostracized in the workplace. Also, workplace ostracism was negatively related to well-being.

There was a negative correlation between POS and PsyWB. This finding contradicts Eder and Eisenberger (2008) who found that tardiness was high when POS was low among manufacturing employees. Employees with high POS are motivated to continue to be devoted to the organisation and to fully engage in the tasks that they have within it. Similarly, POS was negatively and significantly associated with antagonistic work behaviour. This finding is not similar to Randall et al. (1999) who suggested that people with high POS showed lower levels of antagonistic work behaviour.

This study found that there was a positive and significant correlation between POS and well-being. This finding is consistent with Caesens, Stinglhamber, and Ohana (2016) POS was found to predicts employees' well-being positively such as a decrease in negative affect and an increased in positive affect.

The first hierarchical regression analyses showed that workplace ostracism was a positive and a significant predictor of PsyWB. In the second stage, when POS was entered into the model the predictive power of workplace ostracism on PsyWB decreased. This implies that employees experiencing workplace ostracism will be able to engage in PsyWB when their POS decrease. This conclusion is comparable to the one that Eder and Eisenberger (2008) discovered, where they discovered that among factory personnel, tardiness was high when POS was low. And a high POS stimulates workers to maintain their commitment to the organisation and to actively engage in the obligations they have been given there. The second hierarchical regression analysis showed that workplace ostracism was found to predict antagonistic work behaviour significantly. However, in the second step when POS was added into the model, the predictive power of workplace ostracism decreased, and POS did not predict antagonistic work behaviour significantly. This implies that employees experiencing workplace ostracism may engage in antagonistic work behaviour. This is similar to the studies of Ferris et al. (2015); Tariq and Amir (2019); and Yang and Treadway (2016), confirmed that workplace ostracism encourages and increases CWB, and it reduces the job or task performance of an employee thereby affecting the organisation efficiency, productivity, and effectiveness.

The third hierarchical regression regarding the effect of workplace ostracism and POS on well-being implies that when employee's perception of workplace ostracism decreases and the discernment of POS increases, their well-being increases. This finding is similar to Kurtessis et al. (2015) which confirm a positive association between POS and well-being.

H1a of the study (workplace ostracism has positive relationship with PsyWB) is supported, workplace ostracism explained PsyWB directly and positively. This result is similar with Gamian-Wilk and Madeja-Bien (2018) who found that the need to belong can lead to psychological disengagement as a result of workplace ostracism. The need to belong is inherent to human nature (William & Nida, 2011), and ostracism impacts this

need, causing psychological and physical withdrawal by the victim. In his study of workplace bullying among employees in Nigeria, Obiechina (2021) found a significant relationship between psychological distress and workplace bullying. The result as shown in this study indicated that ostracism can positively contributes to psychological and physical withdrawal in Nigerian context too.

The consequences of ostracism may also depend on the intensity and the expectations on other individuals. According to Gamian-Wilk and Madeja-Bien (2018) withdrawal is possible when ostracism is persistent, and the connection is not viewed as valued, and prospects for relationship restoration are low. Research in Nigerian context shows more psychological withdrawal than physical withdrawal by employees this is due to the fact that unemployment is high, and jobs are difficult to find (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012), and the wages are also considered as little by most employees in Nigeria.

It is widely chronicled that workplace ostracism causes negative workplace outcomes including increased psychological distress, depression, anxiety, and decreased workplace performance (Wu et al., 2012). Those negative workplace attitudes affect the performance of the employees and their productivity (Mao et al., 2018). Using emotional intelligence as a mediator, Koay (2018) found a positive and a significant association between workplace ostracism and cyberloafing (a component of psychological withdrawal behaviour). Numerous negative workplace behaviours, such as information hoarding, concealment, and other CWB, have been found to have substantial correlations in previous research.

H4a of the study (POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and PsyWB) has been supported. According to the analysis, the indirect effect of POS on the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB is significant. Therefore, POS plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between workplace ostracism and PsyWB.

H1b of the study (workplace ostracism has positive relationship with PhyWB) is supported. workplace ostracism explained PhyWB directly and positively, supporting H1b. This result is similar to the study of Mahfooz et al. (2017) who examined the significant association between workplace ostracism and turnover intention and found out that burnout has a mediating role in this relationship. In another development, Sao and Wadhwani

(2018) noted that ostracized employees have a high likelihood of withdrawing or staying and remain absent emotionally and mentally from the organisation. According to Hitlan and Noel (2009) the higher a worker's sense of workplace ostracism, the greater their propensity to quit; and the higher an employee's perception of ostracism from colleagues in the workplace, the greater their propensity to leave the work. However, felt ostracism from relative leadership, or mistreatment from a colleague has a much bigger impact on employee turnover (Li & Zhang, 2019).

H1c of the study (workplace ostracism has positive relationship with antagonistic work behaviour) is supported. Findings revealed that workplace ostracism explained antagonistic work behaviour directly and positively, supporting H1c. It is widely noted that workplace ostracism positively relates to antagonistic work behaviour and CWB (Yang & Treadway, 2018). Confirming the hypothesis, our results indicate that there is a significant and positive relationship between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour. As employees process the information around their environment with their perception (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), perceived ostracism may lead to antagonistic work behaviours (Yang & Treadway, 2018).

H1d of the study (workplace ostracism has negative relationship with well-being) is supported. workplace ostracism explained well-being directly and negatively. Similarly, Wang et al. (2020) found that cyber ostracism has negative influence on both psychological and emotional well-being of the victims. This is not consistent with extant literature. Substantial evidence suggests the negative consequences of ostracism on well-being of the victims. Ostracism is a ubiquitous form of experience, depletes a victim’s well-being by eroding the fundamental needs of belongingness and meaningfulness in the universe (Lau, Moulds & Richardson, 2009). Ostracism may occur in different ways such as face-to-face, on Internet, among others. Evidence indicates that ostracism occurred in whichever ways affects victim’s well-being. For example, Smith, Morgan, and Monks (2017) found that cyber ostracism is psychologically painful on a sample of students.

These findings are consistent with previous studies of Oaten et al. (2008) who found that workplace ostracism is a threat to employee’s control needs, self-esteem, substantial belongings and sensitive presence. It is also found in the investigation carried out by Liu (2015) that workplace ostracism could make employees feel marginalized and do great

harm to their psychological and physiological well-being. O'Reilly et al. (2015) found that workplace ostracism could frustrate employee's sense of belonging, self-esteem and could lead to depression and health problems. Li and Zhang (2019) also maintained that workplace ostracism affects the employee's self-control ability and mental cognitive function.

H2a, 2b, 2c, and 2d of the study (workplace ostracism has negative relationship with POS) are supported. workplace ostracism explained POS significantly and negatively. Kwan et al. (2018) discovered that POS protected the harmful impacts of workplace ostracism in both the practical and commitment dimensions. This finding is not surprising because in Nigeria, oil and gas sector is one of the favourite places people prefer to work. Regardless of the mistreatment, employees may be willing to continue working than to complain of mistreatment. Additionally, most studies on POS and workplace ostracism sampled academicians, manufacturing workers, prison employees, nurses, and other employees. This study sampled oil and gas employees, working on either full-time or part-time basis.

H3a of the study (POS has negative relationship with PsyWB) is supported. In addition, POS directly and negatively explained PsyWB. In view of this, previous studies found that POS lessened withdrawal behaviour (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Even though there is scanty literature on the influence of POS on withdrawal behaviours. Previous researchers postulated that there was a negative association between withdrawal behaviours and POS, still some form of withdrawal and CWB can be associated with low POS by employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002).

Since POS is closely related to reciprocity as opined by the researchers (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Rousseau, 1995; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997), that meeting the commitments of the organisation experienced by the norm of reciprocity serves three purposes: it enables an employee to keep a positive self-image; it prevents the employee from violating the norm of reciprocity; and it ensures that the employee continues to receive positive and favourable treatment from the organisation. It was hypothesised that employees who had a high degree of POS would have a greater propensity to repay their organisation and would be less likely to engage in behaviours indicative of withdrawal (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). In this vein,

Eder and Eisenberger (2008) found that tardiness was high when POS was low among manufacturing employees. High POS motivates employees to remain committed and fully engaged with their responsibilities in the organisation (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008).

H3b (POS has negative relationship with PhyWB) is rejected. The mediation analyses conducted showed POS did not predict PhyWB significantly. According to the results, the indirect effect of POS on the relationship between workplace ostracism and PhyWB is insignificant. Therefore, POS did not mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and PhyWB. H4b is rejected (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

This result is not consistent with previous studies like Gulati, Upmaniyu, and Kulshrestha (2015) whose findings suggested that better treated employees by their organisations are less likely to leave their organisation.

H3c of the study (POS has positive relationship with antagonistic work behaviour) is rejected. POS did not predict antagonistic work behaviour significantly. Previous studies revealed that there was a positive relationship between POS and antagonistic work behaviour, such as Cropanzano et al. (1997) confirmed that employees may engage in antagonistic work behaviour if they have the perception that the organisation in which they are employed is not supporting their efforts nor appreciating their potential. Reduced POS and perceived job insecurity were found to predict deviant behaviours among commercial bank employees in Nigeria (Eze et al., 2020).

H3d of the study (POS has positive relationship with well-being) is supported. POS directly and positively explained well-being. Findings from this study indicates that the relationship between POS and well-being were positive and significant. This finding is similar to Hrebiniak (1974) who suggested that employees who believe that their organisation cares about their emotions and values their performance are more likely to develop a positive attitude toward their organisation as well as their psychological and emotional well-being. This, in turn, allows the employee to be committed and loyal to the organisation they work for.

H4d of the study (POS plays a mediating role between workplace ostracism and well-being) is supported. According to the mediation analysis, the indirect effect of POS

on the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being is significant. Therefore, POS plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between workplace ostracism and well-being. This finding is similar to Caesens, Stinglhamber, and Ohana (2016) using hierarchical regression models, found that POS positively predicts employees' well-being. Eisenberger and Stinglhamber (2011) found that employees with high POS experience their working in more favourable ways and have more positive mood at work. Yu et al. (2019) in testing the moderating role of self-esteem between POS and subjective well-being found that when self-esteem was higher, POS had a greater effect on subjective well-being.

6. CONCLUSION

Even though ostracism may seem subtle in the workplace, its negative consequences may not be wholly understood. This study attempted to investigate the effect of workplace ostracism on PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being mediated by POS. Similarly, the study concludes that POS has partial mediation role on PsyWB as well as on well-being. Most of the findings in this study revealed similar results as earlier postulated by previous studies. Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed that POS was negatively and insignificantly related to workplace ostracism. Even though this was hypothesized, but extant literature showed a significant and positive correlation between workplace ostracism and POS. Among such studies include Choi (2020); Chung (2015); Sarfaz et al. (2019) Zhang and Kwam (2017) among others.

Many issues were raised in the course of this study, consequently, it was discovered that people differ in terms of their understanding and how they express their feelings. It was also discovered that the way people interpret issues also differ with one another. Some are very sensitive while others are neutral. These differences should also be considered by the managers, supervisors and the chief executives of organisations. This research concludes by explaining that POS did not predict antagonistic work behaviour. However, the mediation analysis conducted revealed that POS is not a significant mediator between workplace ostracism and antagonistic work behaviour.

On the other hand, POS was discovered to have a significant mediating role in the relationship that exist between workplace ostracism and well-being. In this regard, the study concluded that the effects of workplace ostracism on employees' behaviour as well as employees' well-being is indispensable. The success of every organisation is dependent on employees' well-being. In other words, employees' well-being is key to achieving organisational goals and objectives and ultimate to success of both small, medium and large organisations. For these reasons, managers, supervisors and all stake holders of organisations being small or big should take into consideration the well-being of their employees and their interactions with one another. This will allow the managers,

supervisors and all stake holders involved to understand and come up with better solutions to addressing the problems associated with felt mistreatment by the employees.

6.1. Contributions of the study

The issue of workplace ostracism has not been adequately studied in Nigeria hence, the contribution of this study remains paramount. There exist also, paucity of literature in the area of workplace ostracism mainly in the Nigerian oil and gas sector. As a result of the lack of sufficient literature in field of workplace ostracism in Nigerian work environment, the researcher concludes that the field has not been given adequate attention particularly in the oil and gas sector. This makes the work a novel and interesting research. It is believed that the study will contribute immensely to the existing literature as regards to workplace ostracism, POS, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. In addition, the study gave an insight on how people act and respond to issues related to how they feel and relate with their employers and co-workers.

Relatedly, majority of the research conducted on workplace ostracism did not capture sufficiently the type of variables used in this study. Worthy to note, the literature available in Nigeria were mostly on bullying and sexual harassment. Hence, this study has become the first to investigate employees' perception on workplace ostracism, POS, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being.

The theoretical contributions particularly the mediating role of POS in the relationship between workplace ostracism, and antagonistic work behaviour of employees are inherently interesting particularly in Nigerian context. This study gave impetus on organisational behaviour research specifically on the negative outcomes of workplace ostracism.

6.2. Implications for the Study

The empirical findings from this study will contribute to future research and will provide useful and meaningful data that would enable expansion in their research area. More importantly, the study of workplace ostracism and its negative consequences from a

culturally and ethnically diverse context like Nigeria, will benefit other researchers in Africa and beyond.

Nonetheless, this research is limited to the employees of oil and gas sector in Nigeria which included companies such as the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC), Department of Petroleum Resources (DPR), Pipelines and Product Marketing Company (PMCA), and some independent oil companies. In other words, the study only sampled a variety of employees working in the oil and gas companies in Nigeria. This does not include employees working in multinationals company such as Shell, ExxonMobil, Total and other companies responsible for the exploration of the crude oil in Nigeria.

6.3. Recommendations for Future Research

Using questionnaire alone in the study may not give us clear understanding and good results we are expecting, especially when measuring issues related to perception of mistreatment by employees. Interview could be employed in order to understand people's perception in issues related to ostracism and whether they feel supported or not by the organisations.

This study only examined one mediating variable (perceived organisational support) in the relationship between workplace ostracism, PsyWB, PhyWB, antagonistic work behaviour, and well-being. It is advisable for future researchers to examine the antecedents and consequences of ostracism by adding more variables either as mediators or moderators to the domain such as inclusion of neuroticism (Leung et al., 2011) and psychological capital (Zheng et al., 2016). It is worth investigating whether the type of job or the nature of one’s job (let’s assume schoolteachers in Nigeria) can mediate the effects of workplace ostracism on withdrawal behaviours, antagonistic work behaviours and well-being.

Future research should also investigate whether personality traits or cultural background are related to ostracism and whether individual’s perception about ostracism is different from the broader meaning of the concept. Also, research should investigate the perception of male, and female when ostracized and how gender differences affect perceived organisational support, withdrawal behaviours, antagonistic work behaviours and well-being.

This study was carried out in Nigeria which is a multi-ethnic and multi religious nation. The cultural and ideological differences in the country should be considered by future researchers. These differences cut across the different geopolitical regions in the country. Because of the diverse religious and ethnic configurations, these differences also affect the way people think and the way they observe things around their environment. The information gathered in the course of this study may vary if it would be conducted on one single ethnic, historical and religious subjects. Comparative study could also be carried out to determine whether these differences are linked to historical, ethnic or religious backgrounds.

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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Survey Instrument

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD student currently carrying out research on the effect of workplace ostracism and perceived organisational support on physical withdrawal behaviour, psychological withdrawal behaviour, and well-being. Therefore, I humbly request that you provide objective responses to the items raised in this questionnaire. Be rest assured that any information provided through this medium will be treated with the utmost confidentiality.

Thanking you for your anticipated cooperation.

Section A

1. Gender Female [ ] Male [ ]

2. Marital Status Single [ ] Married [ ]

3. Employment Status Full time [ ] Part time [ ]

4. Experience (in years) 1-5 [ ] 6-10 [ ] 11 and above [ ]

Section B

Workplace Ostracism Scale

With respect to your feelings about the organisation for which you are working, please indicate how often have you experienced each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Constantly	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Managers/supervisors/co-workers ignored you at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Your co-workers left the area when you entered.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Your greetings have gone unanswered at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. You involuntarily sat alone in a crowded lunchroom at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Managers, supervisors or co-workers have avoided you at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. You noticed your co-worker(s) would not look at you at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Co-worker(s) have shut you out of the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Others refused to talk to you at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. Others at work treated you as if you weren't there.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. You were not invited or asked if you wanted anything when co-workers went out for a coffee break.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Psychological Withdrawal Behaviour Scale (On-The-Job Behaviours Scale)

With respect to your feelings about the organisation for which you are working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Constantly	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Thought of being absent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Left work situation for unnecessary reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Daydreamed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Spent work time on personal matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Put less effort into the job than should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Thought of leaving current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Let others do your work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Physical Withdrawal Behaviour Scale (On-The-Job Behaviours Scale)

With respect to your feelings about the organisation for which you are working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Constantly	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Left work early without permission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Taken longer lunch or rest break than allowed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.Taken supplies or equipment without permission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.Fallen asleep at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Antagonistic Work Behaviour Scale (On-The-Job Behaviours Scale)

With respect to your feelings about the organisation for which you are working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Constantly	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Reported others for breaking rules or policies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Filed formal complaints.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Argued with co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Disobeyed supervisor’s instructions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Spread rumours or gossip about co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Well-being Scale

Please indicate how you feel lately on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree)

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. I've been feeling optimistic about the future.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I've been feeling useful.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I've been feeling relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I've been feeling interested in other people.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I've had energy to spare.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I've been dealing with problems well.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I've been thinking clearly.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I've been feeling good about myself.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I've been feeling close to other people.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I've been feeling confident.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I've been able to make up my own mind about things.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I've been feeling loved.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I've been interested in new things.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I've been feeling cheerful.	1	2	3	4	5

Perceived Organisational Support Scale

With respect to your feelings about the organisation for which you are working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5 using the scale below.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. The organisation strongly considers my goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Help is available from the organisation when I have a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The organisation really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The organisation is willing to extend itself to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The organisation shows very little concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The organisation cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX 2. Ethics Committee Approval Form

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEVAZIT UNIVERSITY (EIB) BOARD OF DIRECTORS

PROJECT APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University..... .... .

.....

Faculty/Institute SOCIAL SCIENCE INSTITUTE

academicians / students of the department MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

in, The effects of Workplace Ostracism on Employees' Commitment, Positive Work Behaviors, Withdrawal Behaviors, Antagonistic Behaviors and Well-being

....research has been evaluated. *(Section Bmust be filled in by the applicant)*

The project was found to be ethically appropriate. ☒

The project needs to be developed ethically. ☐

The project is not ethically appropriate. ☐

AYBU BOARD OF DIRECTORS DECISION To be filled by the Ethics Committee	
Research code (Year Research sequence no).	2020 – 303
Date when the application form reaches the Ethics Committee	
Ethics Committee Decision meeting date and decision no.	2020 – 16
Place	Yildirim Beyazit University, Esenboga Complex
Participants	Our members who signed on the form attended the meeting.