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**COUNTERACTING WORKPLACE OSTRACISM IN HOSPITALITY WITH
PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT**

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HIGHLIGHTS

- This study examines the effect of workplace ostracism on hospitality employees' self-esteem.
- Effects on extra-role customer service are also explored.
- Partial least squares (PLS) estimation method was employed to test the hypotheses and to analyze the mediation and moderation effects involved.
- 340 workers volunteered to participate in the study and completed and returned the survey.
- Findings underscore the relevance of empowering hospitality employees to counteract work-related problems, such as workplace ostracism.

1. INTRODUCTION

The hospitality industry is notorious for seasonal overwork, lack of recognition, and low decision latitude at the bottom of the hierarchical pyramid - conditions that habitually affect work climate and performance negatively (Zhao et al., 2013). Hospitality is also a high-stress sector, since it involves emotional labor: no matter what their feelings, staff must always try to display positive attitudes when serving customers (Chu et al., 2012; Lee and Ok, 2012). Unexpected contingencies also arise during service delivery, and the uniqueness of each situation due to people's diversity sometimes puts hotel employees under too much pressure. Such difficult situations when serving customers can cause dysfunctional or counterproductive work behaviors (Ferris et al., 2009).

For these reasons, maintaining positive interpersonal relationships among members of an organization is not always easy in a sector like hospitality, which also requires working at "anti-social times" and changing shifts (Tongchaiprasit and Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). Stressful work-related conditions in hotel settings can cause deterioration of interpersonal relations among the workforce, affecting the quality of work performed and leading potentially to internal conflicts. Some hospitality employees are likely to display negative conduct at work, especially towards co-workers, for example, by ostracizing them.

Ostracism is "a dark phenomenon within organizations" (Zhu et al., 2017: 63) that affects workplace behaviors. Workplace ostracism occurs when some coworkers exclude others from social interaction, sometimes leaving the room when they enter, avoiding eye contact or even to refusing to speak with them. Ostracized individuals are often ignored by their coworkers, who sometimes even refuse to greet them. Being the target of workplace ostracism diminishes the individual's self-esteem (Ferris et al., 2015; Williams, 2007).

Research has demonstrated that employees with low self-esteem are less likely to engage in prosocial or helpful behaviors (Ferris et al., 2008) and thus more likely to provide worse service to customers than co-workers with a better self-image (Akgunduz, 2015; Wu et al., 2011). Reduction in service quality can be especially harmful for service organizations such as hotels, where delivering outstanding customer service sometimes implies employees *going the extra mile* through unsolicited service behaviors or attention that exceed customers' expectations (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Garg and Dhar, 2016). Low self-perception resulting from being ostracized may decrease these employees' motivation to excel when performing, making them less inclined to invest discretionary effort in their work—and thus to engage in *extra-role customer service*.

Despite the seriousness of these consequences, knowledge of the impact of workplace ostracism on the hospitality industry is still very limited (Zhao et al., 2013). Only a few studies have investigated the effects of workplace ostracism in hotels (e.g., Leung et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2017), and all investigations to date have been conducted in China. Given the cultural differences between Westerners' and Easterners' self-regard, and the contextual influences on behavior (Sedikides et al., 2003), this study responds to the call for further research on ostracism of hospitality employees in a dissimilar culture (Zhu et al., 2017). It adds knowledge to the nascent literature on workplace ostracism by examining the effects of ostracism on Spanish hotel workers. To

the authors' knowledge, this is the first research conducted in Spain to measure workplace ostracism and extra-role customer service among hospitality workers.

To comprehend the repercussions of workplace ostracism in hospitality settings, this study aims at disentangling how certain work contexts affect customer-contact employees—self-perception and thus their performance—positively or negatively when serving customers. One of its main goals is to identify a boundary condition that would weaken the impact of workplace ostracism on self-esteem. The study thus explores the moderating role of psychological empowerment in this relationship. Psychological empowerment is a cognitive state that employees experience when they perceive that they can perform their tasks with autonomy and competence, and that their job is meaningful (Spreitzer, 1995). Psychological empowerment has been recognized by both researchers and practitioners as a powerful tool to motivate and engage employees, as it enhances their self-efficacy and self-concept. Empowerment has also been highlighted as a key driver of quality service in hospitality, where employee proactivity, resolution, and prompt action are often required (Namasivayam et al., 2014).

The purpose of the present study is fourfold: 1) to contribute to the nascent literature on workplace ostracism by examining this type of social exclusion in hotel settings; 2) to explore whether empowering customer-contact employees can help to mitigate the detrimental effects of ostracism on their self-concept; 3) to uncover the linkages between workplace ostracism and performance, testing self-esteem as a possible mediator of that relationship; and 4) to help hospitality managers to minimize the occurrence and impact of workplace ostracism by providing a better understanding of the phenomenon and its effect on hotel workers' behavior.

In addition to empirically testing workplace ostracism in a Western-country context, this investigation makes several important theoretical contributions to the existing knowledge base in the following ways. First, the results not only show strong negative associations of workplace ostracism with self-esteem, confirming prior research findings (Ferris et al., 2015; Williams, 2007), but also provide evidence for the negative indirect impact of workplace ostracism on hospitality workers' performance. Since hotels' profitability depends on essential employee attitudes and behaviors, developing and empirically testing a model that attempts to explain what affects employees' self-esteem—and, in turn, influences their performance—can be interesting for both practitioners and researchers. Second, drawing on the ability of PLS software utilities to specify composite constructs, this study explores and conceptualizes psychological empowerment as a second-order construct, reflective at first-order level and composite at second-order level. The study thus develops this construct further, as Peterson (2014) recommends. Third, this study makes a unique contribution to the ostracism literature by identifying a boundary condition under which workplace ostracism is less detrimental to employees' self-esteem: when they feel empowered by their managers. This moderated mediation model then establishes a broad framework for future inquiry that could advance understanding of the mechanisms underlying the association between workplace ostracism and self-esteem. Finally, the results provide practical steps for managers interested in counteracting negative events in the workplace that can deteriorate service delivery.

Understanding the degree to which workplace ostracism can subvert employees' self-esteem—and, in turn, affect the final service provided to customers—is crucial for hospitality managers and human resource staff so that they can take actions to prevent such negative repercussions. Practitioners may also find valuable the knowledge that hospitality employees with more autonomy and more authority on the job are less likely to be affected psychologically by social exclusion at work, as the present study demonstrates.

The following section presents an overview of the literature relevant to workplace ostracism, self-esteem, and extra-role customer service in service corporations. After the hypotheses are tested, the main results are discussed. The study concludes by highlighting its implications and limitations. Instructions on how to counteract ostracism in the workplace, as well as future research avenues, are also provided.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Workplace ostracism

Hospitality is a sector of intense and continuous interpersonal contact, where service displayed depends greatly upon the satisfactory interaction, communication, and team work of different members of the organization (involving concierges, receptionists, bellboys, chambermaids, waiters, etc.). Hotel workers frequently have to deal with mixed demands from customers and compeers. In this context, people's heterogeneity, various sociodemographic backgrounds, and unpredicted situations that arise during service delivery can create tense interpersonal relations among co-workers, especially in the face of difficulties—for example, when a front desk agent reprimands the chambermaid about the status of a bedroom after a long wait from the customer, or when a waiter delivers room service to the wrong customer due to a misunderstanding by the person who took the order. Many such job stressors can cause workplace relations to deteriorate in hotel settings. Some individuals may respond by deliberately troubling interpersonal relationships with co-workers through actions such as avoiding contact with them at work or “repeatedly and intentionally not replying to someone who attempts to converse” (Blackhart et al., 2009: 270). As Chung and Yang (2017) emphasize, the workplace has now become a social context where ostracism occurs.

Ostracism is the extent to which a person perceives that he or she is being ignored, rejected, or excluded by others (Williams, 2007); workplace ostracism is a form of social exclusion at work. Examples of workplace ostracism behaviors include deliberately ignoring someone, withholding needed information, avoiding greeting someone, or giving someone the cold shoulder (Wu et al., 2011). Workplace ostracism has a negative impact on employees' subjective wellbeing, making them feel less worthy and even insecure about their abilities.

A person's sense of worth is highly conditioned by feeling important, beloved, respected, and appreciated by others. Korman (1970) affirms that self-esteem is a cognitive structure shaped by an individual's past history and some contemporary determinants, such as interpersonal evaluations; social influences affect self-concept. Employees' self-esteem

can therefore be influenced by individuals with whom they have had contact in the past or currently have contact, from their workmates to other social group members. Work contexts and psychological experiences at work may then shape employees' concept of their worth (Korman, 1966). The ostracized employee may understand the isolating behaviors of co-workers as an exhibition of how others judge his or her competence. Targets' self-esteem can thus be profoundly affected by lack of attention and other isolating behaviors of coworkers towards them. Being ostracized at work can thus negatively affect the appraisal one makes of oneself, leading to loss of confidence, the perception that one *must have done something wrong*, and emotional disturbance (fear, guilt, hostility).

Ostracism has detrimental effects on people's perception of their worthiness and capabilities, undermining their self-esteem. Being *given the silent treatment* by others generates high emotional arousal, cognizing potential difficulties as bigger than they really are. Although self-esteem is a relatively stable trait, individuals can experience temporary fluctuations in response to recent events and outcomes, such as perceived social approval (Blackhart et al., 2009). For example, Leary et al. (1995) affirm that self-esteem is strongly affected by perceived inclusionary status (i.e., according to the *sociometer model*, self-esteem would be a measure of social acceptance). Williams (2007) theorizes that ostracism may reduce self-esteem more than other forms of social exclusion. Hence, workplace ostracism can make individuals feel insecure about their own capacities, even undermining the effective use of the skills they have, and consequently appraising themselves as weaker, ultimately diminishing their global self-esteem. The following hypothesis can thus be formulated:

Hypothesis 1. Workplace ostracism is negatively related to self-esteem level.

2.2. Psychological empowerment: a key psychological boundary

Korman (1970) delineates how organizations cultivate certain environments that affect employees' self-perceptions. While exerting a high degree of external control can be negative, increases in the decision-making responsibility over one's job can affect employees' self-esteem positively. Empowerment, for example, reinforces the worker's self-cognition as competent for the job; increases in goal-directed behavior can motivate employees' willingness to achieve congruence with their manager's expectations.

Self-enhancement is a universal motive (Sedikides et al., 2003). Empowering employees can therefore eliminate some work-related problems by enhancing workforce self-efficacy and increasing intrinsic task motivation, positively affecting employees' self-esteem level. By empowering employees, organizations strive to communicate a powerful message to their workforce: that they are trusted and valued.

Several authors (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990) recommend defining empowerment in terms of motivational processes. Addressing the nature of empowerment as *experienced* by subordinates, they argue that the main aim of the empowering process should be improving employees' belief in their personal *self-efficacy*. Spreitzer (1995) defines empowerment as a process or psychological state represented by four cognitions: 1) *meaning* (discernment that one's work is personally

significant); 2) *competence* (belief in one's capability to perform successfully), 3) *self-determination* (perception of latitude to initiate or conduct tasks), and 4) *impact* (sense of making a difference in the organization).

Employee psychological empowerment is advocated especially for heterogeneous service sectors such as hospitality, where personnel must adapt their behaviors to the demands of each and every service encounter. In hospitality contexts, empowerment provides employees with the chance to prove themselves when serving customers by showing their talent in daily operations' decisions and to demonstrate efficient competency skills by promptly anticipating or solving customer complaints. This latitude encourages customer-contact workers to display proactive behavior contributing to betterment of their subjective wellbeing. Empowered employees are more likely to anticipate problems, demonstrate resourcefulness, maintain control in the presence of risk or uncertainty, and solve customer and organizational problems diligently and professionally by using their creative personal judgment (Karatepe, 2013; Kong et al., 2016; Menguc et al., 2013). Psychological empowerment thus encourages positive feelings of self-determination and competence among workers (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995).

The process by which employee enablement increases motivation and improves self-perception can also be explained by Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory (SDT). This theory ascertains three innate psychological needs of all individuals: the need for *autonomy* (to participate in choices without external direction), *competence* (to perceive oneself as able to accomplish different enterprises), and *relatedness* (to be part of a collective involving care and mutual respect). Work-related factors or management practices that contribute to satisfying these needs will result in "intrinsic motivation, overall wellbeing, and positive work feelings" (Gardner and Wright, 2011: 320). Whereas workplace ostracism jeopardizes the *need to belong*, empowering workers satisfies two of those three human basic needs: the needs for competence and for autonomy, by enhancing belief in self-efficacy and sense of achievement (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). As a result of empowerment, employees' self-esteem levels rise, making it possible to develop a variety of coping processes to prevent employees from suffering ostracism in the workplace. Seibert et al. (2011) indicate that the relationships among employees tend to be more people-oriented and based on sharing when empowerment is implemented.

For Spreitzer (1995), employees who perceive themselves as empowered feel less constrained and more motivated, and they are more likely to expect success. Similarly, highlight the positive effect of self-determination on self-esteem. Because psychological empowerment serves as a psychological reward that makes workers feel valued—at least by the management that empowers them—despite the isolating behaviors of some colleagues, workplace ostracism is expected to affect employees to a lesser degree when they attain this positive psychological state. It can thus be hypothesized that psychological empowerment positively affects employees' psychological wellbeing and mitigates the negative impact of ostracism on their self-esteem. In consideration of the above discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2. Psychological empowerment moderates the relation between workplace ostracism and self-esteem, such that the relation is weaker when psychological empowerment is high.

2.3. Self-esteem and performance

Rosenberg (1965) defines self-esteem as an overall evaluation of one's personal worth or value; for Korman (1966), it is a person's characteristic evaluation of oneself and what one thinks of oneself as an individual. A person's degree of self-acceptance notably affects his/her capability to cope with stressful situations, ability to form relationships, and work proficiency. People with high self-esteem tend to feel confidence in what they do and normally have a positive perception of their own competences and skills. Moreover, such people use their self-perceived needs differently from those who think relatively poorly of themselves.

In line with Korman (1966), individuals with high self-esteem who occupy certain job roles should have a great degree of interaction-orientation. When dealing with customers, individuals with a high sense of personal adequacy may be more prone to engaging in self-initiated actions that approach customer service in a more proactive and forward-thinking way. Korman's (1970: 31) theory of work behavior strongly emphasizes self-evaluation and self-perception, demonstrating how "the self-concept of an individual in relation to the task at hand is a determinant of the outcome which he will seek to attain and the outcomes which will satisfy him." Perceived self-efficacy results in successful and superior performance: when people judge themselves capable and skilled enough to accomplish their tasks, they are more likely to display positive behaviors and outperform at work. Those with a strong sense of efficacy normally try harder to master the challenges. Hence, psychological wellbeing has been outlined as an antecedent of extra-role customer service behaviors (Namasivayam et al., 2014)

Extra-role customer service consists of engaging in a set of behaviors to meet or exceed guests' expectations in service encounters, often going *beyond the call of duty* in serving customers (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997). As Zhu et al. (2017: 62) outline, "most of the effective service behaviors cannot be prescribed in advance" or standardized. In contemporary hospitality organizations, therefore, excellence in serving customers sometimes involves employees *departing from the script*, doing everything necessary to satisfy the customer's needs and quickly to provide efficient solutions to service recovery. For Rank et al. (2007: 366), proactive customer service performance is a self-started "persistent service behavior that goes beyond explicitly prescribed performance."

Not all employees have the same predisposition to putting discretionary effort and time into job activities, doing more than what is expected. Rather, behavioral roles tend to be consistent with the individual's sense of self. Individuals are thus motivated to perform a job in a manner consistent with the self-image with which they approach that job situation (Korman, 1970, 1966). Several empirical studies (e.g., Akgunduz, 20015; Chang et al., 2012; Ferris et al., 2015) indicate that self-esteem can impact one's performance to a large extent. The following hypothesis is thus proposed:

Hypothesis 3. Self-esteem is positively related to extra-role customer service.

2.3.1. The mediating role of self-esteem

“Individuals working in organizations are exposed to various structures, events, processes, social interactions, and management practices affecting their individual feelings, interpretations, degree of commitment,” and performance (Gardner and Wright, 2011: 319). Rich et al. (2010) demonstrate that work-contextual factors strongly affect employees’ experience of work and psychological fulfillment. In fact, an employee’s ability to handle job demands effectively and attain high job performance depends on the interplay of various individual features and contextual factors.

Research has demonstrated that workplace ostracism undermines target employees’ self-esteem (Chung and Yang, 2017; Ferris et al., 2015). Since the worker’s self-image has been severely damaged, workplace ostracism is likely to be negatively related to employee work outcomes. Nevertheless, Balliet and Ferris (2013: 298) find mixed results regarding the effects of ostracism on performance in prior studies: “ostracism leads people to become less prosocial, more prosocial, or ... prosocial behavior is unaffected by workplace ostracism.”

Initial empirical evidence from Ferris et al. (2008) shows that workplace ostracism correlates negatively with job performance. Further, Wu et al. (2011) postulate that workplace ostracism is likely to undermine employee job performance for several reasons: first, workplace ostracism depletes psychological resources, as the time and energy that targets of ostracism spend managing their interpersonal problems is not oriented toward their core job tasks. Second, it can be more difficult for ostracized employees to access critical work-related information and resources, which are often embodied in social ties. Such situations may downgrade their job performance, as the authors demonstrate among workers at two petroleum and gas companies in China.

Further, isolation from others at the workplace and lack of a sense of belonging to their colleagues affect ostracized workers’ self-concept and work behavior. Korman (1970) determines that self-perception and related conduct can vary as a result of the influence of external sources, such as others’ behaviors towards oneself. Any form of social rejection causes “a significant shift toward a more negative emotional estate” (Blackhart et al., 2009: 269), potentially demotivating employees to give their best when serving clients and thus constraining their extra-role customer service behavior. Moreover, the isolated individual may dwell on the reasons for being ostracized and feel inferior to coworkers, in so doing consuming valuable resources that could be used at work (Leung et al., 2011). Finally, ostracized individuals tend to decrease their performance to match this new negative self-view, pursuing consistent negative self-verification (Ferris et al., 2015). The mediating role of self-esteem in the relationship between workplace ostracism and extra-role customer service is thus hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4. Self-esteem level mediates the relationship between workplace ostracism and extra-role customer service.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sample and procedures

In this empirical study, data were gathered over a three-month period (from July to September 2015) by approaching hotel workers in three major tourist cities in Spain at their workplaces. The data were drawn from a convenience sample composed of full-time customer contact employees who had regular interactions with customers (concierges, reservations agents, receptionists, reservations managers, and front desk managers). The frequent and intense contact with customers was the main requisite for including these hospitality employees in the sample.

A paper-based self-completion survey was distributed in person to employees who had agreed to participate in the study. Each survey packet included a cover letter explaining the main aims of the study and informing the participants that any data they provided would be treated confidentially and that no personal data would be reported. 340 workers volunteered to participate in the study and completed and returned the survey in a closed envelope collected personally by the research team at each hotel location.

In this non-probability convenience sample, subjects were also selected based on their ease of access, proximity to the research team, and willingness to collaborate in the study (Garg and Dhar, 2016; Kong et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016). The sample is quite representative, however, of the diversity of the hospitality industry in terms of star-rating (11 one-star, 21 two-star, 105 three-star, 145 four-star, and 47 five-star hotels) and management strategy (39.5% independently managed, 60.5% belonging to hotel chains) (Mansour and Tremblay, 2016).

Eleven questionnaires were discarded due to non-completion or missing data, following the *listwise deletion* procedure outlined by Hair et al. (2010). Of the 329 respondents who provided usable surveys, 193 were male (58.7%) and 62% had completed university education. The majority of the survey participants were non-managers (76.6%). Of the respondents, 24.9% were 26-30 years old, and 25.5% aged 31-35. The mean organizational tenure was 6 years ($SD= 7.36$ years), and most employees (64.7%, $n= 213$) had an indefinite term contract.

3.2. Measures

This study adopted multi-item scales from the literature (see Table A1 in Appendix). Response options ranged from 1, “strongly disagree,” to 7, “strongly agree.” Conventional translation and back-translation (Brislin, 1986) were performed by two Spanish bilingual academics and two bilingual professionals independently to ensure equivalence of meaning and translation accuracy.

3.2.1. Workplace ostracism

Workplace ostracism was assessed with the 10-item workplace ostracism scale developed by Ferris et al. (2008). Ostracism was measured as a reflective first-order construct. Cronbach's alpha was .90.

3.2.2. Self-esteem level

Rosenberg's (1965) instrument for evaluating individual self-esteem was employed. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each statement regarding their self-esteem. Previous studies identified a single common factor in this scale (Gray-Little et al., 1997). Self-esteem is thus a single construct, specified as composite in this research.

3.2.3. Extra-role customer service

Extra-role customer service was measured as a reflective first-order construct through the scale developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale in this study was .85.

3.2.4. Psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment was assessed with Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item scale determined by four dimensions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Psychological empowerment in this research is conceived as a reflective construct at first-order level and composite at second-order level.

In composite constructs, measures are the ingredients of the construct, as they jointly contribute to the meaning of the conceptual construct" (Rigdon et al., 2014). Composite measures are endogenous ("the indicator causality is from indicators to the construct"), and conceptually unchangeable ("indicators do not have the same content") (Braojos-Gómez et al., 2015: 447).

3.2.5. Control variables

Previous studies suggest that employee demographics such gender and age are associated with employees' extra-role customer service (Garg and Dhar, 2016; Karatepe, 2013). These factors were therefore included as control variables: gender (0= male, 1= female), age (1= 20 years or younger, 2= 21–25 years, 3=26–30 years, 4=31–35 years, 5= 36–40 years, 6= 41–45 years, 7= over 46 years), together with job position (0= non-managerial, 1= managerial).

3.4. Data-analysis strategy

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software, version 22, and the statistical software package SmartPLS 3.2.3. Professional (Ringle et al., 2015) were used to analyze the data collected from the questionnaire. The variance-based SEM technique and partial least squares (PLS) estimation method were used firstly to confirm the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments, and then to test the hypotheses and analyze the mediation effects involved in the proposed model. PLS estimation method was chosen because it is particularly suitable for assessing models that combine composite and reflective constructs (Henseler et al., 2014). The bootstrapping algorithm with 5000 subsamples was performed to evaluate the level of significance of weights, loadings, and path coefficients (e.g., Barroso et al., 2010).

The PLS estimation method is appropriate in this study for the following reasons: first, PLS is a “full-fledged SEM method” of estimation that can conduct exact “test of model fit” and provides consistent estimations (Henseler et al., 2016: 3). Second, the constructs self-esteem and empowerment at second-order level are identified as composite, and PLS is particularly suitable for estimating models combining composite and reflective constructs (Henseler et al., 2014; Peng and Lai, 2012). Third, PLS is better suited when estimating complex models (i.e., with moderating effects or multidimensional constructs) than are covariance-based SEM techniques and primarily appropriate for studies where theoretical knowledge is relatively scarce (Chin, 2010).

To define the minimum sample size required to test the theoretical postulates, a statistical power analysis was completed. Assuming a desired statistical power level of 0.80, four predictors (i.e., the number of links received by the construct self-esteem), and a confidence level of 0.95, the minimum required sample size to estimate the model is 84 (Cohen, 1992); since the final sample consists of 329 hotel workers, this number is more than sufficient to achieve statistical power.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

Table 1 provides the mean values, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables measured in the study. As presented in the table, the correlations between the variables were determined via the Pearson product-moment correlation co-efficient. The results show that extra-role customer service correlated significantly and positively with self-esteem ($r = .32$, $p < .001$) and psychological empowerment ($r = .43$, $p < .001$), while self-esteem correlated significantly and negatively with workplace ostracism ($r = -.24$, $p < .001$).

Table 1: Correlation matrix

4.2. Measurement model evaluation

Table A1 (in the appendix) displays the details of the measurement model evaluation at first- and second-order level. Reflective and composite constructs were assessed differently, as recommended by Peng and Lai (2012).

Reliability, convergent and discriminant validity of the reflective constructs (*ostracism*, *extra-role customer service*, and the dimensions of *psychological empowerment*) were tested first. Reliability was evaluated through the construct composite reliability and its indicator loadings. Indicators with a loading lower than 0.70 were dropped (e.g., OST2, OST3, OST6). The remaining indicator loadings and composite reliability exceed the recommended value of 0.70 (Chin, 2010). Convergent validity was tested by examining the constructs’ average variance extracted (AVE) values, which are well above the recommended threshold of 0.50. Further, in line with Fornell and Larcker's (1981) approach, the constructs’ discriminant validity was evaluated by examining whether the square root of the construct AVE was greater than the horizontal and vertical correlation

among constructs—and it was (see main diagonal of Table 1). Moreover, the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of correlations (Henseler et al., 2015) (see Table 2) and evaluation of the cross-loadings among constructs were also assessed, reconfirming the existence of discriminant validity across constructs.

Table 2: Discriminant validity evaluation based on the heterotrait-monotrait ratio

The loadings and significance level of the composite constructs (*self-esteem*, and *psychological empowerment at second-order level*) were carefully examined, as well as the weights and their level of significance when checking for multi-collinearity (Cenfetelli and Bassellier, 2009). For Petter et al. (2007), multi-collinearity is only a problem if the variance inflation factors (VIFs) are below 5; since VIF values range from 1.22 to 1.67, multi-collinearity is not a problem in the composite constructs in this study. A composite indicator/dimension should be retained if its weight and/or loading is/are significant (Cenfetelli and Bassellier, 2009). Evaluation of the measurement model shows that only the weight of one dimension of empowerment (*impact*) was not significant. Since this dimension's loading was significant, however, that dimension was retained, as recommended by Braojos-Gómez et al. (2015). Overall, all analyses indicate good measurement properties for the proposed model.

When a model has multidimensional constructs, it must be estimated using a two-step approach (Chin, 2010): in the first step, the first-order constructs (including the dimensions of empowerment) are freely correlated to obtain the latent variable scores. In the second step, the latent variable scores of the dimensions are used as the manifest variables of the multidimensional construct empowerment.

4.3. Hypothesis test results

The proposed model was tested by performing a consistent PLS estimation and analyzing effect size (f^2) for the hypothesized relationships (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015), path coefficients, level of significance, and R^2 values.

Figure 1: Research model and results of test of hypotheses

Figure 1 presents the results of the test of hypotheses and Table 3 the effect size for every relationship included in the model. Beta coefficients around 0.20 are considered economically significant, and R^2 values higher than 0.20 indicate good explanatory power (Chin, 2010). The main path coefficients of the model range from -0.13 ($p < .01$) to 0.35 ($p < .001$), and the variance explained by the endogenous variables (self-esteem and extra-role customer service) is 0.33 and 0.12, respectively. f^2 values less than 0.02, greater than 0.15, and greater than 0.35 indicate weak, medium, or large effect size of adding a link between an exogenous and endogenous variable (Cohen, 1992). The f^2 values of the relationships of the study model range from 0.03 to 0.13, as Table 3 shows.

Table 3: Effect size analysis

The empirical analysis thus provides support for H1, H2, and H3 at 0.01, 0.01, and 0.001 confidence levels, respectively. As anticipated by Hypothesis 1, workplace ostracism negatively impacts self-esteem level ($\beta = -0.16, p < .01, f^2 = 0.03$), but this negative relationship is mitigated in the presence of psychological empowerment ($\beta = -0.12, p < .01, f^2 = 0.03$), as Hypothesis 2 predicted. Self-esteem positively contributes to the development of extra-role customer service ($\beta = 0.35, p < .001, f^2 = 0.13$) among the sampled hospitality employees, confirming Hypothesis 3. None of the control variables has a significant effect on extra-role customer service; the results are the same before and after including the control variables, which gives robustness to the analysis.

Moreover, the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) has a value of 0.04, well below the threshold of 0.08, which suggests that the proposed model fits the data very well (Henseler et al., 2015; Henseler et al., 2014). Overall, the analysis suggests good structural properties of the proposed model.

4.3.1. Mediation analysis

The mediation effect of self-esteem implicit in the proposed model was further explored by examining the significance of the indirect effect involved. Analyzing this mediation model can also be useful to check whether the results of the other hypotheses remain the same after adding the direct effects link in the model (Henseler et al., 2016). The direct relationship between ostracism and extra-role customer service was thus also explored in the model. Although this relationship was not significant, as Table 4 illustrates, the indirect effect was, suggesting that workplace ostracism negatively affects extra-role behavior through self-esteem and confirming H4. According to the typology of mediations in Zhao et al. (2010), this effect is the *indirect-only* type of mediation, since the mediated effect ($a \times b$) exists but there is no direct effect. This indirect effect of ostracism \rightarrow self-esteem \rightarrow extra-role behavior ($\beta = -0.057, p < .01$) underpins the results obtained in the other hypotheses and reaffirms recent research findings, such as those of Ferris et al. (2015), which highlight self-esteem level as an important mediating mechanism—wherein lowered self-esteem is responsible for the effect of workplace ostracism on various outcomes, such as performance.

Table 4: Indirect effect analysis

4.4. Common method bias

Since all measures were self-reported, the possibility of common method bias was evaluated by adopting a series of procedural measures before collecting the data (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Yüksel, 2017). First, “to reduce the cause and effect of respondents knowing what was being tested,” independent and dependent variables were not presented in the order hypothesized in the questionnaire, and “the titles of the variables and dimensions were excluded in the survey” (Hsiao et al., 2015: 50; Terglav et al., 2016). Second, only established scales were used, and different instructions and filler items were included to create psychological separation between the sets of variables

(Alfes et al., 2013). Third, a survey pre-test was performed to avoid ambiguity. Further, respondents were assured that there was no right or wrong answer to the survey questions. Finally, the respondents were provided with an envelope in which to place the completed survey, which had then to be sealed to protect anonymity and confidentiality of the responses, and to prevent social desirability bias.

Moreover, the research model combines composite and reflective constructs. According to Rönkkö and Ylitalo (2011, p.1) “[f]ormative indicators are assumed to be error-free, and thus incompatible with data that can contain common method variance”. Composite measures (like those in the study model) thus rarely suffer from common method variance.

Additionally, common method variance was statistically examined in three different ways to ensure that it was not an issue in this study: Firstly, the correlations between variables are examined. Common method bias is detected through high correlations between variables ($r > 0.90$) (Bagozzi et al., 1991; Pavlou and El Sawy, 2006). The correlation matrix in this study does not indicate any exceptionally correlated variables, as the highest correlation among principal constructs is $r = 0.542$. Secondly, a full collinearity test based on variance inflation factors (VIFs) was performed following Kock and Lynn (2012), and Kock (2017). VIF values greater than 3.3 indicate pathological collinearity, which may warn of possible common method bias (Kock and Lynn, 2012). Table 5 shows that the maximum VIF value in the research model is 1.588, confirming that the results can be considered as free of common method bias.

Table 5. Full collinearity VIF

Thirdly, common method bias was tested following the latent marker variable approach (Chin et al., 2013; Rönkkö and Ylitalo, 2011), which compares the base model with a PLS marker variable model: 1) Servant leadership was included as the marker variable in the survey questionnaire. 2) Correlations vary from -0.225 to 0.399, showing that no marker item (of servant leadership) is strongly associated with the study items. 3) The method variance correlation was estimated by computing the mean correlation between study items and marker items. Since the mean correlation is larger than 0.05 (0.071), the results of the base model and the PLS marker variable model can be compared. 4) The PLS marker variable model was calculated by adding the method factor construct (servant leadership) as a predictor of the endogenous variables in the base model. 5) The results of the base model and the PLS marker variable model are very similar, as Table 6 shows, indicating that the data do not suffer from common method variance.

Table 6. Comparison with the marker variable model

4.5. Test of robustness

The robustness of the structural model was tested in two ways. First, the measurement model was triangulated by considering every construct as reflective at first and second-order level (see Table 7). The results show that the relationship between workplace

ostracism and self-esteem is not supported; nor is the moderation effect of psychological empowerment on this relationship. Moreover, reliability and convergent validity tests yield invalid measurement properties for the alternative model. Loadings, composite reliabilities, and AVE values for the constructs of self-esteem and empowerment do not reach the threshold standards. In addition, the SRMR value of 0.097 demonstrates worse fit of the alternative model relative to the proposed model.

Table 7: Test of robustness

Second, two alternative models were estimated to further check robustness of the proposed structural model (referred to as *base model* in Table 7). In a first alternative model, psychological empowerment moderates the relationship between self-esteem and extra-role customer service. Even though the alternative model has a fairly equal SRMR (0.047) compared to the proposed model, the empirical analysis shows that psychological empowerment does not moderate the relationship between self-esteem and extra-role customer service. In a second structural alternative model, workplace ostracism mediates the relationship between psychological empowerment and self-esteem. Estimation of this second alternative model grants robustness to the idea that psychological empowerment serves as a resource to reduce exposure to ostracism and increase self-esteem. The results show that psychological empowerment improves self-esteem directly, and indirectly by reducing workplace ostracism.

Overall, these tests suggest that the proposed base model is the best explanation of the data.

5. DISCUSSION

The analyses provide support for all four proposed hypotheses. Prior research (Chung and Yang, 2017; Wu et al., 2011) demonstrates the negative impact of workplace ostracism on organization-based self-esteem—belief in one’s worth specific to an organizational context. This research obtains similar negative associations with the hospitality worker’s *general self-esteem level*, illustrating how “social pain” (Ferris et al., 2008) affects the individual’s overall self-worth negatively (Ferris et al., 2015; Williams, 2007). As Korman (1966) argues, such rejection at work strongly influences employees’ concept of their worth.

One of the main purposes of the study was to go beyond previous studies by testing whether workplace ostracism’s destructive effects on hospitality workers’ self-esteem can be mitigated by empowering them. The study findings indicate that the negative relationship between workplace ostracism and an individual’s self-esteem is moderated by psychological empowerment, such that the connection between ostracism and self-esteem is less negative when employees are more empowered. Ostracized workers feel emotions of displeasure and loss of control (Williams, 2007) that can be counteracted by giving employees more autonomy and reinforcing their competences by empowering them. Drawing on Ryan and Deci’s (2000) SDT, and considering the enhanced self-efficacy that empowerment normally generates (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995), it seems reasonable to conclude that the self-esteem of hospitality workers being

ostracized is less likely to be negatively affected by social exclusion when they feel more psychologically empowered. Korman (1970) anticipated the benefits to workers' self-esteem when they are given more responsibility to make decisions in their jobs. Empowerment practices can be a powerful tool for enhancing the ego. Finding this boundary condition of psychological empowerment in the ostracism – self-esteem relationship makes this research novel and interesting, advancing knowledge in the emerging ostracism literature.

Further, based on structural equation modelling, self-esteem is positively related to extra-role customer service. Workers with low self-esteem levels are less likely to engage in prosocial or helpful behaviors, and the reverse is true for workers with high esteem (Ferris et al., 2008). Ostracism seems to deplete the resources hospitality workers need to provide superior service (Leung et al., 2011). When the individual's identity is threatened by this form of social exclusion, he or she seems to feel discouraged from putting extra effort into daily tasks and performs at a lower level (Chung and Yang, 2017; Wu et al., 2011). These feelings affect customer orientation in hotels, as Zhu et al. (2017) remark. This conclusion shares similarities with the results of previous research that analyzes the relationship between employees' self-esteem and performance in service settings (Akgunduz, 2015; Zhao et al., 2013).

In addition, this study sheds light on how self-esteem is positioned as a key mediating mechanism accounting for the effects of ostracism on behavior, enriching current knowledge (Chung and Yang, 2017; Wu et al., 2011). The study invokes “the notion that individuals seek to verify their self-perceptions by behaving in a way that is consistent with those self-perceptions,” as in Ferris et al. (2015: 279). According to the results, when employees experience social isolation, they feel emotionally down and perceive themselves as less valued; this experience makes them feel unable to cope with service demands, worsening customer service.

This study advances understanding of the pervasive influence of exclusion through ostracism at work in a Western country. The findings thus hold great significance for academics and practitioners alike.

5.1. Theoretical implications

The need for studies that focus on disentangling how work contexts affect favorable work attitudes and behaviors has been highlighted, as well as the need for studies on how to promote psychological wellbeing of service employees (Paek et al., 2015; Seligman et al., 2005). To develop “healthier organizations” (Jáimez and Bretones, 2011), interest has shifted to understanding the boundary conditions under which the undermining role of negative experiences at work can be minimized or, better yet, reversed to ameliorate individual performance. The present study contributes to this research stream by illuminating how different work situations can raise or undermine employee self-esteem. The findings also provide a better understanding of some of the factors that help hotel workers to engage in extra-role customer service, such as self-esteem (Chang et al., 2012) and psychological empowerment (Garg and Dhar, 2016).

This study has three main theoretical contributions. First, as Ferris et al. (2008) state, the concept of ostracism has been neglected in mainstream organizational psychology

research. In filling this gap, the current study extends research on workplace ostracism by offering an additional account to understand the relationship between workplace ostracism and employee self-esteem. Since the effects of ostracism are examined on a sample of Spanish hotel workers, the cultural context of the current study improves researchers' understanding of the phenomenon of ostracism in a different cultural setting. Additionally, the empirical demonstration that ostracism influences employee performance indirectly via self-esteem is an interesting finding.

Second, and in accordance with Peterson (2014), researchers have not placed careful consideration of the relationship between the dimensions and the higher-order construct of empowerment. Empowerment has been inconsistently conceptualized as “a superordinate construct (i.e., empowerment is manifested by its dimensions), an aggregate construct (i.e., empowerment is formed by its dimensions), or rather as a set of distinct constructs” (Peterson, 2014: 53). Since reflective and formative measures differ in the direction of causality assumed in the relationship between a construct and its measures, empirical studies can yield very different results depending on the conceptualization of the construct. For Peterson (2014), the nature of empowerment as a higher-order multidimensional construct has received insufficient study. To develop this construct further, drawing on the ability of PLS utilities to specify composite constructs, this study explores and conceptualizes psychological empowerment as a second-order construct, reflective at first-order level and composite at second order level.

Third, an important theoretical contribution of this investigation is the empirical finding that increases in empowerment can counteract the detrimental impact of ostracism on self-esteem. Employees with more autonomy and more authority on the job are less likely to be psychologically affected by social exclusion at work. The moderating role of psychological empowerment in the ostracism– self-esteem relationship remains unexplored to date.

All of these findings make a substantial contribution to the ostracism and hospitality literatures.

5.2. Practical implications for the hotel industry

The findings of this study underscore the relevance of empowering hospitality employees to counteract work-related problems, such as workplace ostracism. More specifically, it was found that employees who feel they have latitude and power to make decisions feel a stronger sense of personal accomplishment and tend to cope better with the negative effects of experiencing ostracism at work. Supervisors at all hierarchical levels in hospitality are thus strongly advised to adopt empowering leadership styles. Managers exhibit empowering leadership when they not only distribute responsibility towards the base of the hierarchical pyramid but also share knowledge, information, and power with their subordinates, enhancing employee autonomy, responsibility, and self-development (Namasivayam et al., 2014). Since positive feedback, recognition, and rewards are other ways to increase employee morale, it is very important for supervisors to understand the extent to which their behaviors influence their employees' feelings of empowerment.

Psychological empowerment is, in sum, a powerful stimulator of psychological wellbeing, which helps employees to respond better to negative events at work, as it helps to satisfy the basic needs of competence and autonomy. Furthermore, management should bear in mind that “Generation Y employees (...) expect autonomy to accomplish the job via empowerment” (Kong et al., 2016: 2554).”

This research also reveals that the positive psychological state that high self-esteem provides fosters employees’ engagement in more extra-role efforts. Service organizations primarily based in customer-service, such as hotels, must thus be conscientious about taking care of the emotional health of their *internal customers* in order subsequently to achieve a competitive advantage. This research highlights how interventions aimed at developing employee self-esteem will likely result in enhanced customer service in hospitality contexts.

Different ways of understanding work, combined with the stressful working conditions that characterize service settings, may cause friction and problems among co-workers, resulting in some employees being ostracized. To adapt to 21st-century requirements, teams should perhaps be reskilled to embrace diversity and handle complexity better in the workplace. As Lee and Ok (2012: 1110) suggest, “hospitality organizations may consider implementing emotional intelligence training or development programs to foster employees’ emotional competence.” More attention should be placed on developing positive psychological capital among customer-service workers, through training not only in technical skills but also in personal abilities related to self-awareness, self-control, and self-motivation, thereby qualifying these workers to appraise certain work situations more positively.

Service companies should also screen continuously to detect conflicts or negative feelings at work, and take prompt actions when such issues arise. Zhao et al. (2013) recommend that managers provide training, counselling, and mentoring to employees with poor political skills, while also developing and improving explicit norms and regulations to restrict the excluders, such as clearing reporting channels. Lee and Ok (2012: 1110) outline that “for employees to keep their emotional resources charged, management should listen to their employees, particularly when they have concerns about work,” and encourage employees and managers to share experiences and skills with each other. In line with these authors and with Li et al. (2017), emotional intelligence and mindfulness training programs could be good solutions for increasing representatives’ skills in empathy and respect toward self and others, and to teach employees how to handle negative emotions and stressful situations at work.

Organization theorists have focused on recovery experiences that enable employees to restore their energy resources to come to terms better with stress and work problems. Recently, Lee et al. (2016) revealed the key role of dimensions of recovery experiences in enhancing the level of organizational self-esteem. “These recovery experiences make it possible for the workforce to not only return to their pre-stressor levels, but also maintain their levels of subjective wellbeing” (Lee et al., 2016: 1). Employers should proffer professional aid or stronger organizational support for employees, facilitating recovery experiences, especially in stressful business situations such as hotels. Examples of recovering experiences that can help employees to preserve their psychological and

subjective wellbeing include fostering the practice of relaxation exercises during working hours, allowing employees to take days off to permit some psychological detachment from work, encouraging enjoyment of leisure and relaxing activities during free time.

This study provides useful findings for managers and HR managers in the hospitality industry who seek to prevent negative situations at work. Hotel managers can and should take actions to minimize the effects of the negative work situations that damage self-esteem among employees, indirectly affecting performance. *How?* The answer is simple: Make employees feel better about their jobs and about themselves at work by satisfying one of the most basic psychological needs: sense of achievement, self-realization.

5.3. Limitations and future research

This paper is not free of limitations, which can be seen as opportunities for future research.

The primary limitation of this study is its use of self-report questionnaires intended to measure employees' perceptions (Alfes et al., 2013). In spite of its usefulness in measuring these perceptions, self-report data can be biased by a number of methodological issues. However, in this research, several precautionary steps were taken following recommendations by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Yüksel (2017), and statistical analyses confirm that common method is not an issue in this research, as explained in Section 4.4. Researchers are encouraged also to collect data from managers and co-workers to evaluate frontline employees' extra-role customer service and workplace ostracism, thereby reducing the risk of common method bias, as do Ferris et al. (2015).

Moreover, Bester et al. (2015: 11) warn that "self-report measures are subjective in nature and are influenced by how an employee feels at a specific point in time"; thus, "these feelings might not be an accurate reflection of the entire system at the given time." Considering the cross-sectional research design, causal inferences cannot be reliably drawn from the findings. Although it is theoretically reasonable to posit that ostracism affects self-esteem and that self-esteem level conditions customer service, researchers are encouraged to circumvent this cross-sectional limitation by "employ[ing] longitudinal or cross-lagged panel designs" (Ferris et al., 2008: 1362). Longitudinal analyses would help to assess issues of causality, as well as the strength and duration of the proposed relationships.

Another limitation of this study is its use of a convenience sample, with participants selected according their accessibility. This sampling technique hinders generalization from the results to the general population. As Kong et al. (2016) suggest, future studies should use probability sampling methods to obtain representative samples.

Further, other individual and organizational moderators may be important for understanding the relationships between workplace ostracism and extra-role customer service and their outcomes. For example, research on contingences of self-worth reveals that domains in which goals are linked to self-worth differ widely from person to person (Crocker et al., 2003). Integrating a moderating variable such as *importance of performance to self-esteem* in the proposed model (Ferris et al., 2015) could be an interesting avenue of future research. Moreover, although ostracism understandably has

an immediate negative impact on individuals, subsequent coping responses could be sensitive to situational and individual difference factors (Williams, 2007). Future research should examine different contextual and personal factors, such those related to positive psychological capital, to fully understand these coping responses.

Finally, it could also be interesting to analyze the relationships studied in various tourism and hospitality settings cross-nationally.

5.4. Conclusions

Since hospitality jobs are high-customer-interaction, ensuring that employees feel good in their workplace is especially crucial to providing good service. The psychological wellbeing of the workforce can make a real and positive difference to business outcomes. Events that affect employees' self-esteem can influence directly or indirectly the quality of the service they provide.

In this study, individual self-esteem is shown to be a predictor of extra-role customer service. Moreover, it is determined that workplace ostracism negatively affects self-esteem. The study findings also demonstrate that employees' psychological empowerment acts as a moderator that weakens the negative impact of workplace ostracism on self-esteem. The moderated-mediation model tested provides interesting results for hospitality scholars and practitioners, and contributes to expanding research on workplace ostracism in hotels.

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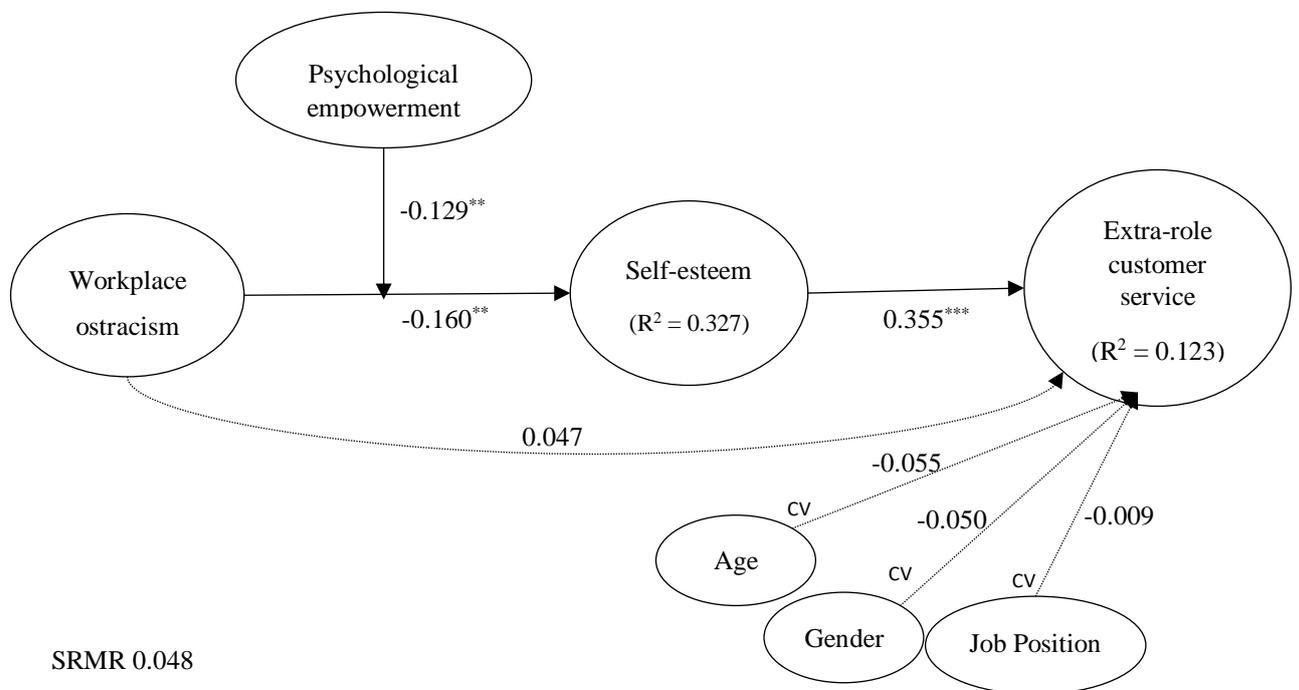
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FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 1. Research model and results of test of hypotheses



(* $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$)

Table 1: Correlation matrix

	1	2	3	4	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	5	6	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. Workplace ostracism	0.791										1.715	1.061
2. Self-esteem	-0.242 ^{***}										5.802	1.060
3. Extra-role customer service	-0.046	0.323 ^{***}	0.850								6.274	0.864
4. Psychological empowerment	-0.288 ^{***}	0.542 ^{***}	0.432 ^{***}								5.556	0.993
4.1. Meaning	-0.135 ^{**}	0.253 ^{***}	0.281 ^{***}	0.467 ^{***}	0.951						5.553	1.518
4.2. Competence	-0.207 ^{***}	0.517 ^{***}	0.366 ^{***}	0.951 ^{***}	0.318 ^{***}	0.899					6.383	0.760
4.3. Self determination	-0.248 ^{***}	0.327 ^{***}	0.217 ^{***}	0.603 ^{***}	0.367 ^{***}	0.380 ^{***}	0.928				5.435	1.457
4.4. Impact	-0.201 ^{***}	0.252 ^{***}	0.157 ^{**}	0.465 ^{***}	0.329 ^{***}	0.222 ^{***}	0.563 ^{***}	0.927			4.855	1.641
5. Age	0.095 [*]	0.039	-0.047	0.072	0.099 [*]	0.094 [*]	-0.072 [†]	-0.067			4.020	1.642
6. Gender	0.080 [†]	0.002	-0.052	-0.024	0.018	-0.042	-0.010	0.047	0.196 ^{***}		0.53	0.500
7. Position	0.006	0.030	0.009	0.001	-0.018	-0.007	0.027	0.044	-0.108 [*]	-0.026	0.230	0.424

(* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$)

(Note: Diagonal row presents in boldface the square root of the AVE for each first-order construct to discriminant validity evaluation based on the Fornell and Larcker criterion)

Table 2: Discriminant validity evaluation based on the heterotrait-monotrait ratio

	Workplace ostracism	Extra-role customer service	Meaning	Competence	Self-determination	Impact	Age	Gender	Position
Workplace Ostracism									
Extra-role customer service	0.066*								
Meaning	0.157**	0.303***							
Competence	0.243***	0.424***	0.343***						
Self determination	0.290***	0.235***	0.395***	0.413***					
Impact	0.231***	0.168**	0.352***	0.245***	0.617***				
Age	0.100*	0.064*	0.104*	0.098*	0.075†	0.070†			
Gender	0.090*	0.055†	0.019	0.052†	0.022	0.049	0.196***		
Position	0.042*	0.033	0.019	0.059**	0.032	0.046	0.108*	0.026	

(* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$). (The HTMT ratio is lower than 0.85 for each pair of constructs, indicating the presence of discriminant validity)

Table 3: Effect size analysis

Relationship	f^2 value	Effect size
Hypothesized relationship	f^2 value	Effect size
Workplace ostracism → Self-esteem	0.031	Weak
Workplace ostracism* P. Empowerment → Self-esteem	0.036	Weak
Self-esteem → Extra-role customer service	0.134	Medium
Control variables	f^2 value	Effect size
Age → Extra-role customer service	0.003	Very weak
Gender → Extra-role customer service	0.003	Very weak
Job position → Extra-role customer service	0.000	Zero

Table 4: Indirect effect analysis

Relationship	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Ostracism → Extra-role customer service	0.047	-0.057* (H4)	-0.010

(* $p < 0.05$)

Table 5: Full collinearity VIFs

Variables	Workplace ostracism	Self-esteem	Extra-role customer service	Psychological empowerment	Age	Gender	Position
VIF	1.117	1.483	1.222	1.588	1.076	1.047	1.014

Table 6: Comparison with the marker variable model (CMV)

Beta coefficient	Base model	Marker variable model
Ostracism → Self-esteem	-0.160**	-0.146**
Ostracism*Empowerment → Self-esteem	-0.129**	-0.106**
Self-esteem → Extra-role customer service	0.355***	0.326***
Ostracism → Extra-role customer service	0.047	0.055
Control variables		
Age → Extra-role customer service	-0.055	-0.050
Gender → Extra-role customer service	-0.050	-0.055
Position → Extra-role customer service	-0.009	-0.008
R²		
Self-esteem	0.327	0.325
Extra-role customer service	0.123	0.119

Table 7: Test of robustness

Beta coefficient	Base model	Triangulation test	First alternative model	Second alternative model
Ostracism → Self-esteem	-0.160**	-0.203	-0.252***	-0.123*
Ostracism*Empowerment → Self-esteem	-0.129**	-0.116		
Self-esteem → Extra-role customer service	0.355***	0.413***	0.170**	
Ostracism → Extra-role customer service	0.047	0.077	0.113*	
Self-esteem*Empowerment → Extra-role customer service			0.023	
Empowerment → Ostracism				-0.313***
Empowerment → Self-esteem				0.489***
Control variables				
Age → Extra-role customer service	-0.055	-0.063	-0.082 [†]	
Gender → Extra-role customer service	-0.050	-0.052	-0.036	
Position → Extra-role customer service	-0.009	-0.013	-0.002	
R²				
Self-esteem	0.327	0.339	0.063	0.292
Extra-role customer service	0.123	0.162	0.234	
Ostracism				0.098
Value SRMR	0.048	0.097	0.047	0.061
Effect size analysis				
Ostracism → Self-esteem	0.031	0.053	0.068	0.019
Ostracism*Empowerment → Self-esteem	0.036	0.028		
Self-esteem → Extra-role customer service	0.134	0.186	0.025	
Ostracism → Extra-role customer service	0.002	0.006	0.015	
Self-esteem*Empowerment → Extra-role customer service			0.001	
Empowerment → Ostracism				0.109
Empowerment → Self-esteem				0.305
Age → Extra-role customer service (control variable)	0.003	0.004	0.008	
Gender → Extra-role customer service (control variable)	0.003	0.003	0.002	
Position → Extra-role customer service (control variable)	0.000	0.000	0.000	

([†] $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$)

APPENDIX

Table A1: Measurement model evaluation at first- and second-order level

Construct/indicator	Composite reliability	AVE	Loading	VIF	Weight
Ostracism (Ferris et al., 2008)	0.892	0.626			
OST1. Being ignored by some work colleagues			0.701***		
OST4. Sitting alone in a crowded lunchroom at work			0.712***		
OST5. Being avoided by some work colleagues at work			0.832***		
OST7. Being excluded from conversations at work			0.840***		
OST8. Being refused to be talked to at work			0.863***		
Self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965)					
SEL3. Inclination to conceive oneself as a failure (<i>R</i>)			0.685***	1.356	0.322**
SEL4. Able to do things as other people			0.716***	1.246	0.381***
SEL6. Positive attitude towards oneself			0.826***	1.307	0.526***
SEL8. Wish to feel more self- respect (<i>R</i>)			0.517***	1.288	0.141*
Extra-role customer service (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997)	0.912	0.722			
EXTR1. Assisting customers even beyond job requirements			0.776***		
EXTR2. Helping customers beyond expected or required			0.895***		
EXTR3. Going above the call of duty when serving customers			0.868***		
EXTR4. Going out of the way to satisfy customers			0.855***		
Psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995)					
<i>Meaning</i>	0.966	0.904	0.560***	1.240	0.185**
POWMEA1. Importance of work			0.941***		
POWMEA2. Meaningful work activities			0.948***		
POWMEA3. Work meaningful to me			0.963***		
<i>Competence</i>	0.927	0.808	0.929***	1.222	0.773***
POWCOM1. Confidence about my ability			0.918***		
POWCOM2. Self-assured about my capabilities			0.947***		
POWCOM3. Necessary skills mastered			0.828***		
<i>Self determination</i>	0.949	0.862	0.621***	1.672	0.232**
POWDET1. Autonomy			0.932***		
POWDET2. Deciding how to go about doing my work			0.947***		
POWDET3. Independence			0.906***		
<i>Impact</i>	0.948	0.860	0.465***	1.503	0.070
POWIMP1. Large impact in my department			0.910***		
POWIMP2. Control			0.931***		
POWIMP3. Influence			0.941***		

(*R* =reverse-scored) (**p* < 0.05, ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001)

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