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Abstract

Drawing on the conservation of resources and job-demands resource theories, this study proposes and tests psychological distress as an underlying mechanism mediating the relationships between workplace ostracism, work engagement, and turnover intentions. Furthermore, it investigates how resilience and perceived external employability condition the aforementioned relationships. Four- and five-star full-time hotel employees provided the data for this study. The findings suggest that psychological distress mediated the relationship between workplace ostracism and turnover intention, but did not mediate the workplace ostracism-work engagement linkage. Also, workplace ostracism plummeted the work engagement of less resilient employees, and surprisingly aroused that of more resilient employees. Finally, the result did not support the argument that employees with perceived

high external employability would have stronger turnover intentions compared to those with lower external employability. This study offered new insights into the interface between workplace ostracism, engagement, and turnover intention, and relevant theoretical implications and address to managers are further discussed.

Keywords: Workplace ostracism; Psychological distress; Turnover intentions; Work engagement; Resilience; External employability.

Highlights

- The indirect effect of workplace ostracism on work engagement and turnover intention was investigated

- Psychological distress mediates the relationship between workplace ostracism and turnover intention

- Resilience moderated the relation of workplace ostracism and work engagement

- Workplace ostracism mitigated less resilient employees' engagement, it stimulated more resilient employees' engagement.

- The conservation of resources and job demands-resources provided the theoretical underpinnings

1. Introduction

The stressful and challenging environment of the hospitality setting prevents employees from delivering excellent service and also stimulates quitting cognitions (Ram, 2018). A ubiquitous but stealthy form of stressors in the workplace is ostracism, a type of interpersonal

mistreatment which erodes employees' psychological and mental health (Williams, 2007). The literature defines ostracism as "a general process of social rejection or exclusion" (Gruter & Masters, 1986, p. 150), which manifests by ignoring or excluding someone or a group by another individual or group (Williams, 2001). People's needs for social bonding can be fulfilled when they feel accepted by others. However, ostracism and social rejection prevent this need from being met (DeWall & Bushman, 2011). Excluding someone from a group can have a more detrimental impact on that person than aggression, intimidation, and pestering (Williams & Nida, 2009). It threatens the essential needs and desires of belonging or fitting in the group, self-esteem or self-respect (Wesselmann, Bagg, & Williams, 2009), and is recognized as one of the factors which decrease employees' work engagement, causes distress, and increases turnover intentions (TI) among employees (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008; Leung, Wu, Chen, & Young, 2011; Turkoglu & Dalgic, 2019).

Over three decades since the seminal work of Gruter and Masters (1986), and despite the significant pervasiveness of ostracism in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2008) and its detrimental consequences on employees and organizations highlighted by the general management literature, hospitality and tourism scholars have sparingly paid attention to this phenomenon (Hsieh & Karatepe, 2019; Zhu, Lyu, Deng, & Ye, 2017), although Mao, Liu, Jiang and Zhang's (2018) review of workplace ostracism highlights several loopholes in the body of knowledge. Few studies (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia, Braojos, & Lloréns-Montes, 2019; Hsieh & Karatepe, 2019; Zhao, Peng, & Sheard, 2013; Zhu et al., 2017) have enhanced our understanding of some outcomes of ostracism in the hotel industry. Mao et al.'s (2018) review indicated that ostracism-induced stressors might result in diminished work engagement. However, to the authors' best knowledge, only Leung et al. (2011) empirically examined this relationship.

There is a practical relevance related to the investigation of workplace ostracism in the hospitality industry. Above and beyond the pervasiveness of the phenomenon in the industry, it poses a critical threat to the quality of employees' social interactions and interpersonal relations (Ali, Usman, Pham, Agyemang-Mintah, & Akhtar, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). High quality relationships between employees can benefit hospitality organizations because they enhance social bonds that support employees from stress-driven emotional labor, and bolster collaboration and knowledge sharing, all of which are essential in managing unforeseen contingencies arising during service delivery (Ali et al., 2020; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). However the prevalence of workplace ostracism undermines such interpersonal relationships and indirectly harms the organization by disengaging employees and motivating their quitting intentions and actual turnover (Bedi, 2019; Howard, Cogswell, & Smith, 2020; Leung et al., 2011). Reports suggest that organizations with engaged employees are 21 percent more productive and 22 percent more profitable and suffer much less turnover. Yet, globally, only 13 percent of employees feel engaged (Hoisington, 2019).

Additionally, by inhibiting employees' self-esteem and social support, workplace ostracism detrimentally affects their wellbeing, an issue associated with negative outcomes like job dissatisfaction, burnout, absenteeism and turnover; thus posing a threat to the psychological integrity of employees who are key success factors to guests' satisfaction and the organization's competitiveness (Kirillova, Fu, & Kucukusta, 2020). Workplace ostracism is the least manifest type of mistreatment (Bedi, 2019), which makes it challenging to directly address. Thus, it is important to understand the mechanisms and conditions that lead ostracized employee disengagement and turnover intention to provide hospitality managers with the necessary tools to take on a concealed and inconspicuous threat.

Accordingly, the paramount aim of the present study is to extend to the hospitality narrow body of knowledge on workplace ostracism in a threefold articulation, by proposing and testing a model using the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory as the theoretical groundwork. The first objective of this study is to extend the current literature examining the relationship between workplace ostracism, work engagement, and turnover intention as behavioral tendencies and attitudinal outcomes. To date, the link between workplace ostracism, turnover intention, and work engagement has been empirically established (e.g. Bedi, 2019; Leung et al., 2011, Turkoglu & Dalgic, 2019; Wu, Liu, Kwan, & Lee, 2016), few of which in the hospitality sector. These studies explained that ostracized employees undergo social exclusion, which jeopardizes their basic needs for control, self-esteem and meaningfulness, and later on curtail their work engagement and encourage their intent to quit.

Yet, the underlying mechanisms through which workplace ostracism influences individuals' engagement and intention to quit remains understudied and the scarce studies examining this stream (e.g. Lyu & Zhu, 2019; Turkoglu & Dalgic, 2019) have called for more scholarly attention. To this end, we propose psychological distress, a state of ill-being that is induced by the dampening effects of successive uncontrolled stressors, as an underlying mechanism explaining the impact of workplace ostracism on work engagement and turnover intention. Mao et al. (2018) underscored that affective and emotional channels could elucidate the mean by which ostracism influences attitudinal outcomes, in line with Ferris et al.'s (2016) findings of the mediating role of anxiety in the indirect effect of workplace ostracism on counterproductive work behaviors. Anxiety is a component of psychological distress (see Alwerthan, Swanson, & Rogge, 2018; Macedo et al., 2018), which Wu, Yim, Kwan, & Zhang (2012) found to have a positive association with workplace ostracism. In other words, ostracism is emotionally cumbersome to employees and is associated to their anxiety, sadness and depressive moods (Mao et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2012),

states that greatly contribute to their psychological distress. Moreover, the hospitality literature underscored that psychological distress is associated to emotional exhaustion, and to protect their emotional and psychological resources, employees often disengage and withdraw (Anasori, Bayighomog & Tanova, 2020; Park & Min, 2020). Psychological distress, therefore, appears to be a potential underlying mechanism through which ostracism undermines employee engagement and influences their turnover intentions.

Second, contingent factors related to how people cope with their ostracism experience have not been examined adequately (Chen, DeWall, Poon, & Chen, 2012). That is, how individuals' heterogeneity determines the ability to withstand ostracism. As human beings' characteristics are diverse, personality, and other distinctive characteristics and capacity to deal with this phenomenon define the extent to which one may deal with, or be affected by social rejection. Resilience as a component of psychological capital might help individuals to cope better with rejection and ostracism (Waldeck, Tyndall, & Chmiel, 2015). Resilience comprises a set of personal capital, capabilities, and abilities to adjust to stressful conditions and difficulties and to overcome challenging circumstances (Hsu et al., 2013). Studies showed that resilience is negatively associated with neuroticism and positively related to agreeableness, underscoring that resilient employees are less likely to suffer from negative moods and emotions and, therefore, can better cope with or recover from daily mistreatment (Oshio, Taku, Hirano, & Saeed, 2018; Yang, Lu, & Huang, 2020). Moreover, resilient employees, including in the hospitality sector, have been found to be more engaged in their work than their less resilient colleagues (Dai, Zhuang, & Huan, 2019; Malik & Garg, 2020; Tsaur, Hsu, & Lin, 2019). Hence, resilience may weaken the negative association of workplace ostracism with work engagement because resilient employees are less likely to suffer emotional and psychological erosion, can bounce back from challenges and stressful encounters and thus may dispose of more emotional resources to engage in their work. In

contrast, less resilient employee may be prey to emotional demands arising from the stress-induced ostracism and may subsequently be driven towards disengagement as a resource conservation mechanism. Thus, the second objective of this study is to investigate the moderating role of resilience in the relationship between workplace ostracism and work engagement.

Third, this study also sheds light on the potential role of perceived external employability on workplace ostracism–turnover intention linkage. External employability describes a situational cue wherein an employee believes to possess unique – or at least necessary – human capital that significantly increases his/her chances of employment outside the organization (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). The employability paradox underlines that external employability threatens organizations (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011). For instance, studies have revealed that it undermines employee attachment (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011), and can indirectly induce actual turnover through quitting cognitions (Nelissen, Forrier, & Verbruggen, 2017). Despite the extensive scholarly attention on turnover intention in the hospitality industry, the role of current employee's perceived mobility coupled with hindrance stressors such as ostracism has quite interestingly been overlooked. Rothwell and Arnold (2007) conceptualized two forms of employability, internal and external. An employee with perceived internal employability may believe to have significant skillsets that can facilitate a shift or a position change within the organization, especially if avoiding contact with the ostracizers. On the other hand, perceived external employability, the emphasis of the current study, may underline more latent quitting intention because of the opportunity to leave the organization. Although the perception of external employability stems from a self-assessment of personal abilities, it may also relate to the opportunity to exploit those abilities outside the organization. In this vein, studies indicated that while perceived external employability was negatively related to turnover intentions, there was no

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significant association between internal employability and turnover intention (Baranchenko, Xie, Lin, Lau, & Ma, 2020; Nelissen et al., 2017; Lu, Sun, & Du, 2016). The current study postulates that the negative relationship of workplace ostracism with turnover intention may be strengthened by an employee's perceived external employability. In other words, perceived external employability may strengthen the psychological detachment that an ostracized employee may be going through, encouraging motivations to quit.

To address these objectives, the next section presents the theoretical underpinning of the proposed research hypotheses, followed by the method implemented to carry out the study and obtained results. Discussion and implications are further examined.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

The COR theory posits that people work towards preserving their existing resources that are valued (conservation) and obtain new ones (acquisition), which includes cognitive, emotional, or physical assets that employees utilize to confront stress-arousing events and/or meet personal and professional objectives (Bedi, 2019; Hobfoll, 2001). Moreover, it further contends that stress will arise when individuals undergo a threat of or actual loss of resources or lack of resource gain, which will make them more likely to lose further resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Accordingly, an employee experiencing a depleting feeling of belongingness, which results from social exclusion, will have his/her (emotional) resources substantially drained. Therefore to preserve the residual ones, resource-poor employees will curtail their work engagement and performance efforts, and exhibit depersonalization (Leung et al., 2011, Wright & Hobfoll, 2004).

Scholars have extensively used the COR theory as a theoretical perspective to investigate and explain the influence of workplace ostracism (Deci, 2019). Workplace ostracism in contrast to other forms of conspicuous and direct impairing behaviors is latent, thus making it harder to directly address and reprimand. It subsequently subjects victims into an incessant exposure that exhaust their supporting and motivating resources (Leung et al., 2011). Ostracized employees in this context will engage their protective mechanisms to preserve the remaining resources. Yet, the very protective strategies necessitate an investment of residual resources and energies, and that endeavor *per se* may be also stressful; it results that employees with limited resources to protect against future losses become more vulnerable to a resources loss spiral, more prone to anxiety, and less attuned to positive work attitudes (Leung et al., 2011; Wright & Hobfoll, 2004).

2.2. Workplace ostracism

Ostracism is the elimination of constructive attention, and it is conceptually dissimilar from active practices of incivility, such as bullying, harassment, or abuse (Balliet & Ferris, 2013; Robinson, O'Reilly, & Wang, 2013). Ostracism significantly undermines one's need to belong, and such constant psychological need depletion might cause weakness and dejection (Williams & Nida, 2011). Among the four fundamental needs according to Williams (2001) — (i) need for control, (ii) need for a meaningful existence, (iii) need to belong, and (iv) self-esteem — the need to belong has attracted scholars' attention in its capacity to inform on what individuals can do after social rejection (Baumeister, Brewer, Tice, & Twenge, 2007; Stenseng, Belsky, Skalicka, & Wichstrøm, 2014).

Workplace ostracism defines an employee's perception of being excluded or ignored by others at work (Ferris et al., 2008). There are numerous signs of ostracism in the workplace which include but are not limited to giving the silent treatment to the ostracized employees, avoiding eye contact, ignoring the ostracizee's greetings, isolation from social

contact (Ferris et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2017). It is *de facto* an integral part of a broader family of interpersonal mistreatments which include bullying, abuse, undermining, and incivility and reflects the "darker" spectrum of organizational behavior (Bedi, 2019; Leung et al., 2011; Robinson et al., 2013). Within this darker spectrum, workplace ostracism is the least apparent and overt type of mistreatment, which makes it challenging for the management to frontally address.

At the individual level, studies suggest that ostracized employees display conformity and engage in pro-social behaviors in an attempt to gain back acceptance from other group members (e.g. Derfler-Rozin, Pillutla, & Thau, 2010; Williams & Sommer, 1997; Xu, Huang, & Robinson, 2015). Other studies argue that workplace ostracism victims instead exhibit anti-social behaviors (e.g. aggressive behavior, counterproductive work behaviors, lowered citizenship and helping behaviors, and diminished performance) (Chung & Yang, 2017; Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015; Mao et al., 2018; Yang & Treadway, 2018) as retaliation or to regain back personal control over the environment (Leung et al., 2011). Hsieh and Karatepe (2019) noted that is particularly problematic for service organizations when employees display negative behaviors because the overall service process is at risk, which can lead to customers' grievances and negative word-of-mouth.

Ostracized employees undergo a considerable amount of personal and social resources erosion that they strive to control and halt. However, the subtlety and ambiguity of workplace ostracism contribute in avoiding perpetrators' identification and punishment (Robinson et al., 2013), making it difficult to clamp down on by the management, and therefore protracts the efforts of the victims who in shortage of resources supply, engage in withdrawal or retaliatory behaviors. Moreover, workplace ostracism cues a distinction between the victim and the rest of the group, which diminishes the feeling of belongingness and erodes the sense of

assimilations to and congruence with the organization (Wu et al., 2016). The target in this circumstance suffers from low self-esteem, becomes detached, and feels demotivated.

2.3. Workplace ostracism, work engagement and turnover intention: the mediating effect of psychological distress

Work engagement is a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). Absorbed employees are volitionally immersed into and display an intense focus on their work so much that detaching from it becomes difficult; vigorous employees possess a considerate reserve of energy and mental resources that they do not withhold while performing their respective tasks, even much when facing adversity; dedicated employees feel enthused, proud and inspired by their work, and usually express a sense of significance towards their tasks.

Moreover, the well-being literature suggests that vigor and dedication which are the two core dimensions of work engagement, and emotional exhaustion and cynicism which are the core dimension of burnout are respective antipodes of two underlying bipolar dimensions labeled as energy and identification (González-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002). In other words, vigor is the diametric opposite of emotional exhaustion in the energy continuum, while dedication is the antipode of cynicism in the identification continuum. Engaged employees identify to their organization and therefore invest their resources by putting up unwavering efforts aimed at contributing to the welfare of their organization.

A significant body of hospitality research found that hindrance stressors wear out employees' engagement (e.g. Karatepe, Rezapouraghdam, & Hassannia, 2020; Karatepe, Yavas, Babakus, & Deitz, 2018; Jung & Yoon, 2019; Yousaf, Rasheed, Hameed, & Luqman,

2019). Within the realm of workplace mistreatment, Wang and Cheng (2020) and Leung et al. (2011) found respectively that co-worker incivility and workplace ostracism thwarted hotel employee work engagement, while Qian et al. (2019) demonstrated that ostracized employees reported burnout symptoms. Moreover, meta-analyses illustrate that ostracized employees are low in engagement, belongingness, and wellbeing while they show higher cynicism and emotional exhaustion (Bedi, 2019; Howard et al., 2020)

Workplace ostracism burdens targeted employees with a significant and vicious emotional toll that emboldens their perceptions of job demands. Moreover, it threatens ostracized employees' sense of identification and motivation which are critical to work engagement. Ostracized employees are less engaged because their feeling of discrimination from the group and the resulting emotional strain contribute to their emotional exhaustion and cynicism toward their organization. They subsequently feel less enthused in their work and restrain from exerting high efforts because their self-concept is detached from the organization.

In this study, we propose that the influence of workplace ostracism on work engagement is not proximal. Rather, it impacts work engagement through various underlying mechanisms such as psychological distress. Work attitudes and behaviors usually result from internal cognitive and emotional processes that occur idiosyncratically, from social and interpersonal interactions at the workplace. Workplace ostracism *per se* can be considered as a source of resource depletion in terms of lack of support from coworkers which conveys a callous and contemptuous form of treatment towards the target (Lyu & Zhu, 2019). These form of painful and distressing experiences undermine an ostracized employee psychological wellbeing by exacerbating the perceived stress (Chung, 2018), which facilitates their overall

state of psychological distress characterized by sadness, depressive moods, anxiety, and negative affectivity (Mao et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2012).

Consistent with the COR theory, distressed employees are generally in a low supply of resources and are more likely to experience further losses to become emotionally exhausted (Anasori et al., 2020). We could expect that since work engagement requires a full load of resources, an ostracized and subsequently distressed employee would be in shortage of much-needed resources and, therefore, will instead withhold the scarce available resources for another purpose like maintaining an emotional balance. We thus posit that workplace ostracism indirectly relates to a target employee work engagement by exacerbating this latter psychological distress.

H1. Psychological distress mediates the relationship between workplace ostracism and work engagement.

In this same vein and consistent with the tenet of conservation, an ostracized and psychologically distressed employee would nurture quitting intentions from the perceived nefarious workplace in an attempt to halt the depletion process. The ultimate aim would be to preserve the remaining emotional and psychological resources from further depletion by moving out of the organization. Turnover intention, an employee's willingness to leave the organization, represents the last stage of the withdrawal cognition sequence (Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, & Kim, 2014). Past studies in the hospitality literature have documented that high level of occupational stressors is associated with higher turnover cognitions (Huang et al., 2018; Karatepe et al., 2018; Kim, Im, & Hwang, 2015; O'neill & Davis, 2011; Pan & Yeh, 2019; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016).

Among various forms of work stressors, Hwang et al. (2014) indicated that unfair treatment was the most prominent contributor to turnover intention, followed by a lack of

support. Moreover, recent meta-analyses (Bedi, 2019; Howard et al., 2020) suggested that employees who experience incivility and mistreatment, workplace ostracism included, are more open to seek alternative work opportunities elsewhere, or even enact the move outside the organization. Earlier we discussed that ostracism threatens employees' self-esteem, the need to belong, and the need for a meaningful life. Consequently, victims suffer from an emotional imbalance and drained social resources that subject them to greater psychologically distressing states but also frustrate their organizational identification. Park and Min (2020) outline that the negative emotional charges of job stressors elicit negative responses associated with job distress. To shield their psychological and emotional resources from further loss, they disengage and withdraw themselves from their work (Park & Min, 2020).

We argue in this sense that employees that undergo but fail to contain the strain overload do not only resolve to relinquish their efforts but actively engage in extreme withdrawal cognition. For instance, Hsieh and Karatepe (2019) recently outlined that workplace ostracism exacerbated restaurant employees' job tension and this latter prompted their propensity to be late for work or to leave early. From another perspective, Turkoglu and Dalgic (2019) found that organizational identification mediated the relationship workplace ostracism- turnover intention. Their study highlighted that workplace ostracism diminished employees feeling of integration to the organization and as a result, prompted their desire to separate from it. Likewise, Lyu and Zhu (2019 revealed that ostracized are less embedded in their job which in turn aggravated their intention to leave their organization. In the light of this empirical evidence and the above discussion, this study posits that workplace ostracism indirectly promotes turnover intention by subjecting employees to a great deal of psychological distress instigated by less social resources, stigmatization, detachment, and

overall ill-being, which in turn will motivate them to quit. This prompts the following hypothesis:

H2. Psychological distress mediates the relationship between workplace ostracism and turnover intention.

2.4. The moderating role of psychological resilience

Resilience is an idiosyncratic capacity to bounce back from stressful encounters that one uses to preserve psychological or physical wellbeing and thrive under undesirable conditions (Hsu et al., 2013). Research has shown that more resilient individuals demonstrate higher emotional and mental strength when they encounter difficulty and are more likely to perform better when they experience stressors. Hsu et al. (2013) highlighted that those with higher resilience showed a greater tendency to reduce the undesirable effect of social rejection through a protective and adaptive coping style. In this vein, Niu, Sun, Tian, Fan, and Zhou (2016) revealed that the reported depression of individual low in resilience was significantly stronger in magnitude compared to those who were more resilient.

In the service industry, studies have documented that resilient employees are better equipped to handle and recover from workplace stressors, subsequently increasing their engagement, job performance (Darvishmotevali & Ali, 2020; Kašpárková, Vaculík, Procházka, & Schaufeli, 2018) and mitigate their emotional exhaustion (Anasori et al., 2020). These findings are congruent with the COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001) that low-resource individuals are more susceptible to resource loss, in contrast to resourceful individuals who can better prevent future losses. These findings are equally backed by the extension of the Job Demands-Resources model, which stipulates that employees use their resources to alleviate the toll of job demands (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007).

Accordingly, the current study proposes that ostracized employees can tap into their psychological resilience to weaken the magnitude of cognitive and psychological resources loss generated by workplace ostracism. However, the coping abilities and the subsequent effect on work engagement are contingent on each employee's resilience capital. Resilient employees are endowed with traits that enable them to withstand and overcome adversity, which will have a minimal adverse influence on their well-being and allow them to display relatively decent and positive outcomes. However, when they do not possess enough resilience, the hardship of stressors experience dampens their well-being, making it significantly likely to exhibit subpar standards and performances. In other words, less resilient employees will have their work engagement significantly sapped compared to those who are more resilient. Therefore, we hypothesize:

H4. Psychological resilience weakens the relationship between ostracism and work engagement so that the engagement of employees with low resilience is lower than the engagement of employees with high resilience.

2.5. The moderating role of perceived external employability

Employees with higher employability have capabilities, competencies, and knowledge that are transferable across various jobs and duties. Thus they are highly proficient within the employment market (De Cuyper, Mäkikangas, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Witte, 2012). The literature highlighting the impact of employability on turnover intention is somewhat mixed. For example, on the one hand, Virga et al. (2017) found that employees with a high level of employability had a stronger intention to quit their job. On the other hand, De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Mäkikangas (2011) did not find a significant effect of employability on turnover intention, while Acikgoz, Sumer, and Sumer (2016) stressed that perceived employability was not significantly related to turnover intention. However, Acikgoz et al.

(2016) also revealed that specific conditions, such as affective organizational commitment, could affect the significance of this relationship. Specifically, their study underscored that low affective commitment and perceived employability reinforced quitting intention.

These inconsistent findings may be rooted in the holistic conceptualization of perceived employability. Rothwell and Arnold (2007) empirically distinguished internal from external employability, with the latter associated with an employee perception of ease of job mobility in the external job market. Studies later revealed that internal employability and turnover intention were not significantly related, in contrast, perceived external employability had a significant negative association with turnover intentions (Baranchenko et al., 2020; Nelissen et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2016). Employees with high external employability have the conviction of owing solid human capital (knowledge, skills, and abilities) to easily secure a position outside their current organization. Studies (e.g. Rodrigues, Butler, & Guest, 2020; Nelissen et al., 2017; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011) that adopted this perspective yielded consistent findings, suggesting a lowered attachment to the organization and augmented quitting intentions cognitions from employees perceiving high external employability. In line with these scholars and the precise objectives of the present study, we adopted perceived external employability for parsimony, rather than the more holistic construct of employability.

It is hardly arguable that ostracized employees develop less affection and subsequently commitment to their organization. For instance, Yam, Raybould, and Gordon (2018) revealed that more than 70 percent of their participants considered that friendship at work and being part of an affective work team environment were essential to their embeddedness and emotional attachment to their employer, above and beyond human resources management related practices. Those two factors however contrast with isolation,

exclusion, or avoidance that characterizes ostracism felt by an individual at the workplace. While we concord with existing findings that an ostracized employee will be prone to develop TI, we propose that the cognitive process of quitting will be precipitated, or at least matured, by an idiosyncratic feeling of being able to control and impact upon the external job market (De Cuyper et al., 2012). This perceived ability is a personal resource (Rodrigues et al., 2020), which makes an employee feel highly competent to find another job in another organization. The COR theory (Hobfoll, 2001) suggests that individuals use their available resources to prevent future resource depletion and seek additional resources gain.

From these premises, we posit that employees with higher external employability will have a stronger intention to leave their job when they endure workplace ostracism. This is because they might be more tenured (therefore experienced for the position) or they believe to have valuable, tacit, and transferable skills set that can be used elsewhere. In other words, external employability as a personal resource will accentuate or prompt an ostracized employee intention to leave the current job with the expectation of a better employment environment. Therefore, we postulate that:

H4. Perceived external employability strengthens the relationship of workplace ostracism with turnover intention so that the intention is stronger when perceived external employability is high than when it is low.

3. Method

3.1. Sample and procedure

This empirical study gathered data from four- and five-star hotel employees in North Cyprus. At the time of the study, there were 22 five-star and 5 four-star hotels with a cumulated bed

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capacity of 17,240, which is more than 2/3 of the total accommodation establishments capacity based on the statistics from the Ministry of Tourism and Environment (MTE, 2020). The seasonality of tourism in North Cyprus peaks in July and August and extends till late November, when the average occupancy rate plunges below 50 percent (MTE, 2020). The resulting impact on the economy in this sector heavily affects the workforce, substantially waned from part-time employees during low periods. The present study, therefore, used a judgmental sampling to include only full-time employees whose organizational life experience spans broader and more consistently than part-time employees (Bayighomog & Arasli, 2019; Karatepe et al., 2018). This study also focused on four- and five-star hotels because they are assumed to be leading the industry in terms of upscale standards and service quality (Hsieh & Karatepe, 2019). This translates into more work demands and intense interpersonal interactions from their employees, subjecting them to more occupational stressors (Huang, van der Veen, & Song, 2018; Hwang et al., 2014).

The sample consisted of full-time employees, such as waiters, receptionists, housekeepers, security, and kitchen personnel. The Management of 15 five-star and 2 four-star hotels agreed to participate in the study, although some did not allow the research team to personally distribute the surveys to employees. Nonetheless, the participants received surveys in sealable envelopes accompanied by a cover letter informing them that their participation was voluntary; their answers were solely used for research purposes on a confidential and anonymous manner, and will not be evaluated on a right or wrong basis. These ex-ante procedures were observed to control for threats of common method variance and social desirability bias (Karatepe et al., 2020; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

The sample size adequacy was determined by conducting a statistical power analysis using G*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). To achieve a minimum power of

0.80 (Cohen, 1988) at the 95 percent confidence level, for an anticipated medium effect size, the results of a correlation/regression power analysis of multiple regression with 10 predictors (workplace ostracism, psychological distress, resilience, external employability, the 2 interaction terms workplace ostracism*resilience and workplace ostracism*external employability, and the 4 control variables) revealed a minimum sample of 118 participants was sufficient to detect large effect sizes. 400 self-administered surveys were distributed and 321 usable ones remained after the screening, yielding a response rate of 80.28 percent (321/400). Table 1 provides exhaustive details of the participants' demographic profile

[Insert Table 1 here]

3.2. Measures

The measures used in this study were withdrawn from the existing literature. The survey was initially drafted in English then translated into Turkish using the translation and back translation procedure (McGorry, 2000). The 10-item scale from Ferris et al.'s (2008) was employed to measure workplace ostracism. A sample statement was "Others at work shut you out of the conversation", rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale from "never" (1) to "always" (7). The 10-item Hopkins Symptoms Checklist (HSCL – 10) was adopted from Kleppang and Hagquist (2016) to measure employee psychological distress. Participants were asked to report the frequency of 10 symptoms (e.g. "Feeling hopeless about the future") on a 4-point scale from "Not at all" (1) to "Extremely" (4). Resilience was assessed using six items from Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007). A sample item such as "I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to" was measured on a 6-point anchor from "Strongly agree" (6) to "strongly disagree" (1).

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9 (UWES-9) (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) was employed to operationalize work engagement. Each item (e.g., "I am enthusiastic

about my job") was rated in terms of its frequency of occurrence from 0 (Never) to 6 (Daily).

Three items were taken from Kim, Poulston, and Sankaran (2017) and adapted to

operationalize turnover intention on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5

(strongly disagree). A sample statement was "I am seriously thinking of quitting my job".

Finally, six items from Rothwell and Arnold (2007) were employed to measure perceived

external employability. Responses were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1

(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly disagree). An indicative item was "I could easily get a

similar job to mine in almost any organization".

4. Results

4.1. Measurement model

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed that the model had a good fit to

the data: $\chi^2/df = 1.481$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.962, Tucker-Lewis Index

(TLI) = 0.962, Incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.959, root mean square error of approximation

(RMSEA) = 0.039 and standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) = 0.044. These

statistics met the recommended cutoff criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and provided support for

the appropriateness of the model in this research. Table 2 depicts standardized factor loadings

(SFLs) and their *t*-values, average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR), and

Cronbach's alpha of each latent construct. The SFLs were significant and exceeded 0.5 (Hair

et al., 2010), except one item of resilience and three items of external employability that were

dropped during the CFA due to unsatisfactorily low loadings. The AVE estimates were

greater than 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) and ranged between 0.56 and 0.69. These criteria

provided sufficient support for convergent validity.

[Insert Table 2 here]

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The discriminant validity was strongly demonstrated as (1) each AVE square root was greater than each pair of latent constructs' correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and (2) scrutiny of the correlation matrix (Table 3) shows that the highest correlation is 0.396 which is far below 0.85, while none of the correlations' confidence interval straddled 1 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Finally, all latent constructs met the reliability requirements as all CR and alpha values exceeded the 0.7 thresholds (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally, 1978).

[Insert Table 3 here]

Because this study collected data from the same source, the likelihood of common method variance (CMV) threat remains (Podsakoff et al., 2012). To control for CMV, we conducted a series of CFA and compared competing models. As displayed in Table 4, the proposed 6-factor model was superior in fit to the 4-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ (9) = 1217.3, p < 0.01), while the single-factor model was significantly worse ($\Delta\chi^2$ (15) = 4577.06, p < 0.01). Furthermore, the result of Harman's test outlined that the first emerging factor explained only 22.16% of the variance. Therefore, CMV did not pose a serious threat to this study.

[Insert Table 4 here]

4.2. Test of mediation hypotheses

A structural equation model (SEM) was estimated to test the mediation hypotheses and following the recommendations of Hayes and Scharkow (2013) and Zhao, Lynch Jr, and Chen (2010), we performed a 95% bias-corrected confidence interval with 10,000 bootstrap replications to gauge the significance of the indirect paths. A confidence interval that does not straddle zero indicates a significant indirect effect. The structural model showed a good fit to the data as indicated by the relevant indices: χ^2 (477) = 696.619, p < 0.01, χ^2/df = 1.46, CFI = 0.973, TLI = 0.971, IFI = 0.974, RMSEA [90% CI] = 0.038 [0.032, 0.044] and SRMR = 0.048. It also explained respectively 10.8%, 15.8%, and 1.3% of the variance in psychological distress, turnover intention, and work engagement. Workplace ostracism was

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significantly associated with psychological distress ($\beta = 0.287$, $t = 4.612$, $p < 0.001$), which in turn was significantly associated with turnover intention ($\beta = 0.398$, $t = 6.069$, $p < 0.0\ 01$) but not with work engagement ($\beta = -0.114$, $t = -1.905$, $p = 0.057$) as depicted in Figure 1. Psychological distress did not appear to mediate the relationship between workplace ostracism and work engagement because the indirect effect failed to be significantly different from zero ($ab = -0.045$, $SE_{boot} = 0.027$, 95% BC CI [-0.105, 0.000]). Thus Hypothesis 1 was not supported. On the contrary, the indirect effect of workplace ostracism on turnover intention via psychological distress was significantly different from zero ($ab = 0.142$, $SE_{boot} = 0.037$, 95% BC CI [0.077, 0.223]), providing support for Hypothesis 2. A post hoc analysis did not reveal any significant change in the estimated paths when demographic variables were controlled for, however, only education was significantly associated with psychological distress ($\gamma_{edu} = 0.16$, $t = 2.84$, $p < 0.01$)

[Insert Figure 1 here]

4.3. Test of moderation hypotheses

Hierarchical moderated regressions were estimated to test hypotheses 3 and 4 (see Table 5). Workplace ostracism, resilience, and perceived external employability were initially mean-centered before calculating the product term for each proposed moderating effect. The interaction term workplace ostracism*resilience (Model 3) was significant ($\beta = 0.19$, $t = 3.675$, $p < 0.001$) and explained a significant 3.7% increase in the total variance of work engagement ($R^2 = 0.17$, $F(1, 317) = 21.624$, $p < 0.001$) above and beyond the main effects. This interaction term also indicated a small effect size (Cohen's $f^2 = 0.04$). Overall, the results supported Hypothesis 3. Contrary to our expectation, the interaction term of workplace ostracism*perceived external employability (Model 6) failed to be significant ($\beta = 0.081$, *n.s.*). Thus, H6 was not supported.

Next, we probed the significant interaction effect with the Johnson-Neyman technique (Johnson & Neyman, 1936) using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018). This procedure "solves for the values of M for which the effect of X on Y becomes or ceases to be significant" (Carden, Holtzman, & Strube, 2017, p. 2) and is less arbitrary than the conventional pick-a-point approach (Carden et al., 2017; Hayes, 2018). As depicted in Figure 2, two regions of significance of the effect of workplace ostracism on work engagement emerged at the values of (1) resilience ≤ 3.06 ($\beta = -0.13$, $t = -1.967$, $p = 0.05$, 95% CI [-0.26, 0.00]) and (2) resilience ≥ 4.49 ($\beta = 0.20$, $t = 1.967$, p = 0.05, 95% CI [0.00, 0.40]). Precisely, workplace ostracism was associated with lower work engagement at a medium to a low level of resilience (i.e., resilience ≤ 3.06). In contrast, it was associated with higher work engagement at a relatively higher level of resilience (i.e., resilience ≥ 4.49). No significant effect was identified at the resilience level between 3.08 and 4.48.

[Insert Table 5 here]

[Insert Figure 2 here]

5. Discussion

Under the framework of the Conservation of Resource theory and the Job Demands-Resources model, the foremost objective of the present study was to shed light on possible mechanisms and conditions elucidating the effect of workplace ostracism on employee's work engagement and turnover intention. The results obtained from a field study data provided mixed support to the hypotheses.

First, the empirical evidence suggested that workplace ostracism significantly inhibited employee work engagement and increased quitting intentions. That is, workplace ostracism is a relational stressor that depletes feelings of belongingness. In response to this

threat, an ostracized employee develops withdrawal cognitions and attitudes that act as a defensive mechanism against further exhaustion of emotional resources, which are already being depleted to offset the resulting emotional imbalance. It is congruent with the COR theory's core tenet of resources retention and protection (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018), and previous findings (Howard et al., 2020; Hsieh & Karatepe, 2019; Leung et al., 2011; Turkoglu & Dalgic, 2019; Zheng et al., 2016).

Second, the findings also suggest that workplace ostracism stimulates turnover intention through the mediating effect of psychological distress. That is, the state of emptiness arising from ostracism's uncontrolled emotional and psychological demands is a factual facilitator of quitting intentions. Carpenter & Berry (2014) argued that employees would ultimately resort to this alternative when they feel emotionally sapped off. In this same vein, recent studies empirically sustained this argument as they found that ostracism facilitated psychological distress (Waldeck, Tyndall, Riva, & Chmiel, 2017), but also occupational stress, which in turn subsequently determined nonattendance and turnover intention (Hsieh & Karatepe, 2019; Vui-Yee & Yen-Hwa, 2019).

In contrast to our expectations, the findings from our sample did not support the mediating role of psychological distress in the relationship between workplace ostracism and work engagement. It was in part due to the non-significant influence of psychological distress on employee work engagement at the 95% confidence level. We argued that feelings of dysphoria, anxiety, and loss of confidence could undermine their engagement at work, owing to anterior research highlighting that job induced stressors such has hindrance stressors (e.g., Olugbade & Karatepe, 2019) and abusive supervisor (e.g., Lyu, Zhu, Zhong, & Hu, 2016) hindered employees' engagement. It is perhaps because as an outcome of stress (Bourbonnais, Comeau, Vezina, & Dion, 1998; Regehr, LeBlanc, Barath, Balch, & Birze, 2013),

psychological distress connotes a state of mental illness or ill-being that could desensitize

employees from engaging in their job, due in fact to limited or depleted psychological

resources. However, one may still need some resources to invest even to exhibit job attitudes

like work (dis)engagement, while it may not necessarily be the case for (withdrawal)

intentions. This may hence explain the contrasting mediation results involving turnover

intention and work engagement.

Moreover, the findings supported the moderating impact of resilience on the

relationship between ostracism and work engagement. Specifically, the results suggest that as

they experience more ostracism, less resilient employees are more vulnerable to the stress toll

which significantly cripples their engagement. On the contrary, employees with greater

resilience appear to be thriving as they are even more engaged even as workplace ostracism

increases. As recommended by the conservation of resources (COR) theory, those with higher

resources and psychological capital can better mitigate the loss of their resources and bounce

back from stressful events (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Thus, employees benefiting from a

more significant resilience capital reported an improved engagement in their jobs despite

stressful work conditions, in contrast to employees with weaker resilience. This is because

more resilient people effectively withstand and control resources loss, and can strive in the

face of adversity (Hsu et al., 2013; Waldeck et al., 2015).

The workplace ostracism literature indicates that workplace ostracism may also lead

to positive outcomes from employees, specifically when they attempt to regain social

acceptance by showing more compliance towards the group (Mao et al., 2018). It appears that

resilient employees, thanks to their great supply of such idiosyncratic resources, can better

repress the overload of stress to exhibit greater engagement. Perhaps this tendency may not

just be due to dispositional attributes, but also an active process to regain acknowledgment, acceptance, and integration from other group members.

Finally, we proposed external employability as the moderator that strengthens the effect of ostracism on turnover intention. This was rooted in the premise that external employability would amplify an ostracized employee's intention to seek a less cumbersome position outside the organization to prevent further psychological distress. In contrast to this sentiment, external employability in the current study did not appear to inflate the intention to quit significantly. This is because the nefarious effect of social exclusion and the resulting ill-being is sufficient enough to trigger turnover intention (DiPietro, Moreo, & Cain, 2020), regardless of whether one can secure another position elsewhere. In fact, because turnover is quasi-prevalent in the hospitality industry (Bani-Melhem, Quratulain, & Al-Hawari, 2019; Self, Gordon, & Ghosh, 2020), employees relative ease of mobility seems therefore to hold a minor role in urging quitting intentions from ostracized employees.

5.1. Theoretical implications

The current study fills the scanty literature investigating the effect of ostracism on work engagement and turnover intention in the hospitality industry. To date, only Leung et al. (2011) examined the relationship between ostracism on work engagement in the Chinese hospitality context, while the effect of ostracism on turnover intention has been severely overlooked. Further, it unravels the significant role of psychological distress in the process of an ostracized employee's quitting intentions. Thus, drawing on the COR and JD-R theories and based on the empirical findings, our study revealed that ostracism depletes personal resources causing psychological distress and turnover intention. It also decreases work engagement among employees since the pain experienced by ostracism or social exclusion is equivalent to physical pain (William, 2011) and severely undermines the motivation to

perform above standards.

Second, the present study highlights the role of individual differences regarding their responses to psychological stressors. The study postulated that resilience curbs the nefarious role of ostracism on work engagement, congruent with the COR (Hobfoll et al., 2018) and JD-R (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) theory. It appears that workplace ostracism may be more of a hindrance stressor that prompts low engagement from less resilient employees. In contrast, it seems to be a challenge stressor for employees with a greater resilience capital that instead stimulates their engagement at work. In this sense, hospitality management scholars (e.g. Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014; Karatepe et al., 2018) have underscored that contrary to hindrance stressors, challenge stressors tend to enhance hotel employees engagement. The present study, therefore, provides another perspective to ascertain the dual negative and positive influence of workplace ostracism on employee job attitudes. Resilience appears to be one of the factors that determine the direction of the influence of workplace ostracism on work engagement. It would be of prime importance to extant workplace ostracism literature that this tendency is further investigated not only on work engagement (for confirmation) but also on various job attitudes, behaviors, and performance.

5.2. Practical implications

This study provides significant implications for human resource (HR) managers. HR experts may need to adopt policies to prevent ostracism and create a secure environment for employees so that they will not leave their job or show reduced work engagement. First, proactive measures may best control the flourishing of workplace ostracism, which is covert and subtle and challenging to frontally address by managers. For example, open and unconstrained communication channels between the personal and the management that allows ostracism targets to report acts of mistreatment. Doing this will allow victims to

relieve themselves from a heavy emotional burden, but also understand if possible the reasons for their exclusion. Subsequently, enable employers to maintain partial control over this sort of noxious and latent organizational dynamics that contribute to targets rumination, distress, and eventually may put the organization at risk of losing (potentially talented) employees, and incur costs related to turnover. In the hospitality industry, it is more cost-effective to retain employees in their existing jobs and keep experienced employees than to recruit and train new ones (Robinson et al., 2013). Employee retention also helps to maintain service standards and promotes the loyalty of guests who like to be served by specific employees.

The current results highlight the significance of personal resource like resilience in mitigating the negative effect of ostracism on work engagement, as resilient employees are more prone to maintain (or increase) their level of engagement at work when being ostracized in contrast to low resilience employees who observe a significant drop in work engagement. It appears more necessary than ever before, that constant personal development workshops and training plans be designed for employees, to help them handle and control stressful events. Resilience, but also other psychological factors, and coping mechanism are particularly critical for service employees who face stressors from colleagues, customers, work attributes daily. Training employees to be aware of these attributes and how to appropriately exploit them can help both employers and employees to mitigate the negative consequence of workplace ostracism, but also all forms of hindrance stressors.

Hsieh and Karatepe (2019) underscored that some hotels' management in Taiwan usually holds yearly incentive trips for their workforce to acknowledge and appreciate their contribution to the organization. Such practices if implemented consistently may enhance a friendly and inclusive climate, and instigate an esprit de corps among group members. This sort of group climate in turn can alleviate the likelihood of exclusion or mistreatment, and the

resulting psychological strains that arouse withdrawal cognitions and afflict employees' work engagement and job performance.

5.3. Limitations and future research

There are several noteworthy shortcomings inherent to this study that can provide avenues for future research. The conceptual approach and level of analysis of workplace ostracism in our study were at the individual level, irrespective of their job category (e.g. receptionists, waiters, housekeepers, kitchen staff). However, these jobs are heterogeneous by nature and eventually subject relevant employees to varying intensity of stress exposure. This argument is backed by Faulkner & Patiar (1997) who found that in comparison to front-office staff, housekeeping staff undergoes lesser stress. Future research would provide a significant contribution to the workplace ostracism literature by examining if a difference arises in the relationship between workplace ostracism and work engagement or any other endogenous variable. In this vein too, the proposed research model was exclusive to the construct of interest and overlooked other possible exogenous and endogenous variables related to work engagement and turnover intention. Moreover, other factors of psychological capital, such as self-efficacy and optimism, should be tested as possible mediators or moderators of workplace ostracism and its consequences. Thus, we recommend future studies to include these in their theoretical models to extend our understandings of how these variables are interrelated with the variables proposed in this study.

Another limitation in this study is the focus on four- and five-star hotel full-time employees, making the findings prone to cautious generalizability. Howard et al. (2020) reported that part-time employees reported more ostracism than full-time employees. Thus, we call on further investigations to include part-time staffers and more generally, explore the studied relationships in other sectors of the hospitality and other industries. Moreover, the current study applied a cross-sectional design to collect data; this approach does not allow for

the provision of causal inferences. A longitudinal study design is needed to evaluate the causal inferences of the variables' relationships. Future research might also consider the way that perpetrators choose their victims, and also study the victims' characteristics and personalities, which trigger the ostracizing behavior from perpetrators. Furthermore, future studies could observe ostracizers' characteristics to see which kinds of individuals are more motivated to engage in this behavior over others.

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Table 1. Respondents' demographic characteristics

Variables	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	195	60.7
Female	126	39.3
Marital status		
Single	194	60.4
Married	127	39.6
Age		
18 – 27	117	36.4
28 – 37	135	42.1
38 – 47	48	15.0
48+	21	6.5
Organizational Tenure		
Less than 2 years	57	17.8
3 – 6 years	224	69.8
7 – 10 years	33	10.3
More than 10 years	7	2.2
Position		
Waiter	138	43.0
Housekeeping	43	13.4
Kitchen	75	23.4
Reception	28	8.7
Security	37	11.5
Education level		
Up to primary school	49	15.3
Secondary/high school	124	38.6
Some college education	94	29.3
Bachelor degree or higher	54	16.8

Note: $N = 321$. 'Some college education' refers to undergraduate years of education that include a non-completion of a Bachelor degree, achievement of an Associate degree or a Higher Education Diploma.

Table 2. Confirmatory factor analysis results

Constructs and items	SFL	*t*	AVE	CR	α
Ostracism			**0.64**	**0.95**	**0.95**
Others ignored you at work	0.682	1			
Others left the area when you entered	0.721	11.974			
My greetings have gone unanswered at work	0.799	13.126			
I involuntarily sat alone in a crowded lunchroom at work	0.841	13.756			
Others avoided me at work	0.854	13.903			
I noticed others would not look at me at work	0.853	13.896			
Others at work shut me out of the conversation	0.844	13.796			
Others refused to talk to me at work	0.817	13.392			
Others at work treated me as if I weren't there	0.779	12.843			
Others at work did not invite me or ask me if I wanted anything when they went out for a coffee break	0.781	12.877			
Resilience			**0.69**	**0.92**	**0.92**
When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on (*R*)	-	-			
I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work	0.75	1			
I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to	0.823	15.109			
I usually take stressful things at work in stride	0.841	15.477			
I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before	0.869	16.04			
I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job	0.855	15.762			
Work engagement			**0.68**	**0.95**	**0.95**
At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy[v]	0.767	1			
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous[v]	0.889	17.441			
I am enthusiastic about my job[d]	0.858	16.657			
My job inspires me[d]	0.832	16.09			
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work[v]	0.805	15.438			
I feel happy when I am working intensely[a]	0.847	16.436			
I am proud of the work that I do[d]	0.81	15.594			
I am immersed in my work[a]	0.775	14.758			
I get carried away when I'm working[a]	0.83	13.946			
Psychological distress			**0.58**	**0.93**	**0.94**
Suddenly scared for no reason.	0.692	1			
Feeling fearful.	0.748	15.611			
Faintness, dizziness, or weakness.	0.811	13.335			
Feeling tense or keyed up.	0.838	13.729			
Blaming yourself for things.	0.76	12.592			
Difficulty in falling asleep or staying asleep.	0.796	13.132			
Feeling blue.	0.651	10.883			

	SFL	t-value	AVE	CR	α
Feeling of worthlessness.	0.784	12.905			
Feeling everything is an effort.	0.81	13.29			
Feeling hopeless about future.	0.712	11.853			
Turnover intention			**0.64**	**0.84**	**0.84**
As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave this hotel.	0.821	1			
I am actively looking for a job at another hotel.	0.856	14.482			
I am seriously thinking of quitting my job.	0.718	12.966			
Perceived employability			**0.56**	**0.79**	**0.77**
I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere	0.634	1			
I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organization even if they are quite different to what I do now	-	-			
If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organization	0.655	9.847			
I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organization	0.924	9.235			
Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organizational experience, will be highly sought after by employers	-	-			
I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant	-	-			

Note: SFL = standardized factor loadings significant at $p < 0.001$, AVE = average variance extracted, CR = composite reliability; (-) item dropped during confirmatory factor analysis, (R) = reverse-coded; [a] denotes absorption, [d] denote dedication, [v] denote vigor.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics, correlations, and discriminant validity

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Ostracism	2.72	1.01	*0.799*					
2. Resilience	3.38	1.06	-0.129*	*0.828*				
3. Work engagement	3.99	1.28	-0.122*	0.391***	*0.824*			
4. Psychological distress	2.90	0.78	0.285***	-0.078	-0.111†	*0.762*		
5. Perceived employability	2.34	0.77	-0.040	-0.023	-0.019	-0.152*	*0.749*	
6. Turnover intention	3.51	1.09	0.181**	-0.092	-0.059	0.396***	-0.016	*0.801*

Note: $N = 321$. †$p < 0.10$, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$. AVE square roots are reported on the diagonal.

Table 4.   Measurement model comparison

Competing models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	χ^2/df	CFI	IFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA [90% CI]	Model comparison
Model 1. Measurement model (6 correlated factor)	1025.01	711	-	-	1.442	0.968	0.968	0.965	0.042	0.037 [0.032, 0.042]	-
Model 2. 4-factor model (TOI+EE, WE+RES)	2242.31	720	1217.3	9	3.114	0.844	0.844	0.831	0.085	0.081 [0.077, 0.085]	1 and 2
Model 3. Single factor model	5602.07	726	4577.06	15	7.716	0.500	0.503	0.463	0.212	0.145 [0.141, 0.148]	1 and 3

Note: $\Delta\chi^2$ significant at $p < 0.05$. TOI = turnover intention, EMP = employability, WE = work engagement, RES = resilience

Table 5. Moderated regression results

	Work engagement			Turnover intention		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Workplace ostracism	-0.117*	-0.070	-0.045	0.165**	0.167**	0.107
Resilience		0.351***	0.372***			
Perceived external employability					0.017	0.016
Workplace ostracism x Resilience			0.190***			
Workplace ostracism x EXTERNAL EMPLOYABILITY						0.081
F	4.413*	24.71***	21.96***	8.964**	4.515*	3.343*
R^2	0.014	0.135	0.17	0.027	0.028	0.031
ΔR^2	-	0.121	0.035	-	0.001	0.003

Note: $N = 321$. $^*p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{***}p < 0.001$. Standardized coefficients (β) are reported.

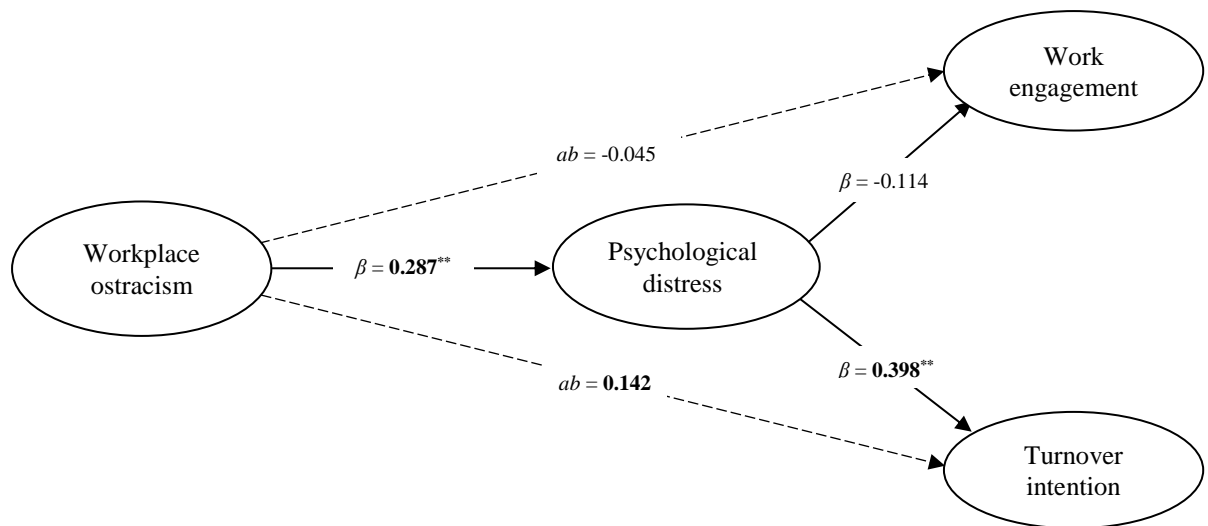**Figure 1**. Structural model. Plain lines indicate direct paths, dashed lines indicate indirect paths; significant parameters are in bold; $^{*}p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$
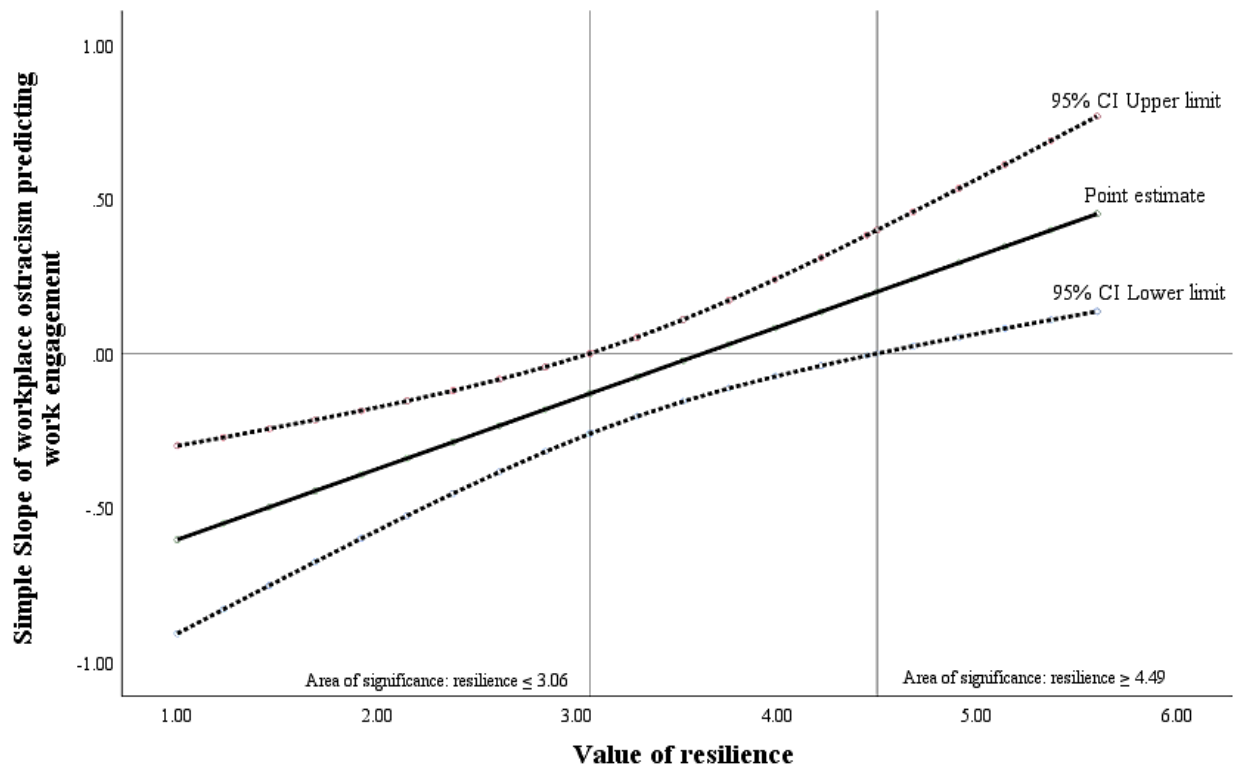
Figure 2. The effect of workplace ostracism on work engagement is significant at relative low and high level of resilience.