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DOES LANGUAGE MATTER? THE EFFECT OF LINGUISTIC OSTRACISM ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES MODERATED BY PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

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Abstract: In today's workplace environment the trends of demographic and business are frequently conflating the linguistic issues. However, the language has immense behavioral ability in building interpersonal bonds, and, it may also negatively serves by excluding someone else from a social group or society. The factor, linguistic ostracism highly grasp such phenomena. Considering the theoretical conceptualization of ethno-linguistic theory and conservation of resource theory, this research identifies the negative influence of linguistic ostracism on two job attitudes: Job satisfaction and Affective commitment. Data was collected from 44 manufacturing enterprises located in 5 urban locations (Lahore, Karachi, Multan, Faisalabad, and Rahim Yar Khan) of Pakistan. This study has consciously taken manufacturing enterprises because in the Pakistani context such firms are more likely to have the raising issue of linguistic ostracism.

Additionally, Hierarchical linear modelling was implicated using M. Plus v8. The outcomes of study reveal that linguistic ostracism produces lower Job satisfaction and Affective Commitment. Furthermore, research assessed the moderating effect of psychological capital and found that individual which are linguistically ostracized interacting with Psychological capital involve more Job satisfaction and affective commitment. Theoretical implications of linguistic ostracism are discussed, as well as the ramifications for managers working in linguistically different workplaces.

1. Background & Theoretical Model

Across many countries the linguistic diversity of population is keeps on changing and it seems to be increased as per demographic trend. For example, more than 20% of citizens living in Canada and USA speak different languages (like French and Spanish), and this 20% is expected to be increased in the near future (Statistics Canada, 2017; Fin accord, 2014). The report, Special Euro barometer 386 (2012) documented that 54% citizens or population living in EU speak more than a language. Moreover, Country whose economy has immense growth (e.g., China) also involved in linguistic diversity. Approximately 416 million Chinese natives involved in learning foreign languages and 390 million of population has already learned English as their second language (Wei & Su, 2012). The tremendous escalation in global linguistic diversity spread the similar language differentiation at workplace (Piekkari et al., 2014). According to Harzing and Feely (2008) it becomes common today, that different languages are spoken in the workplace and to maintain such diversity organizations are continuously looking forward for strategies to resolve the imbalance (if any). For example, the Microsoft (world leading company) formulated a strategy which indulged in managing linguistic diversity, it is seen that more than 80 languages are spoken in workplace of Microsoft. In the same manner, Neelay and Kaplan (2014) revealed that eight languages are spoken in IBM Company except English, IBM set the strategy to hire the staff who can trains them and by doing that it increases their competencies. However, the increasing linguistic diversity increases the chances of social exclusion of that employee (s) and may be overlooked based on language.

Exclusion from group based on language, unlike other forms of ostracism where a single employee can ignore or avoid another, requires at least two or more persons to establish an emerging group from which the focus employee senses exclusion. Considering it another way, the form of ostracism recounted in the anecdote has two distinct characteristics: normally it is taken as purposeful and non-purposeful, and it occurs in the setting of a workgroup (Ferris et al., 2017). In a more formal sense, linguistic ostracism refers to situations in which key employees believe that others at work have rejected and/or excluded them by employing a language they don't understand (Dotan-Eliaz, Sommer, & Rubin, 2009; Kulkarni, 2015; Kulkarni & Sommer, 2015). The potential for wording to mistakenly exclude employees has gotten a lot of attention in recent years. The majority of early workplace language studies concentrated on macrolevel elements like language regulations and mandates. Specific events, such as international corporate mergers or the establishment of English-only language policy, might cause linguistic difficulties (e.g., Neeley, 2013). Other research in this area has looked at how companies view language as a strategic competency while operating abroad (e.g., Harzing & Feely, 2008; Harzing & Pudelko, 2013). Scholars have recently begun to investigate more microlevel linguistic processes that occur in daily organizational activity (e.g., Lecomte, Tenzer, & Zhang, 2018). Members of multinational teams, for example, conversed with colleagues from their home country in their

native tongue rather than the corporate-mandated language because it facilitated communication and made it easier to express emotions (Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014). Such "code-switching" (i.e., moving from one language to another; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Neeley, 2013) may unintentionally create informational barriers between those who understand and those who do not (Tenzer et al., 2014). Language could thus unintentionally constitute a conduit for exclusion in an increasingly multilingual workforce (Piekkari et al., 2014). As a result, it's crucial to comprehend the consequences of language exclusion. We develop an integrated model based on ethnolinguistic identity theory—a theory that emphasizes the relevance of language use in activating social categorization processes—to get a better understanding of the potential impacts of linguistic ostracism (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987). In particular, we hypothesize that in a workplace with rising linguistic variety, contact with employees who speak a language that the focal employee does not comprehend will likely activate a cognitive process that will result in the formation of in groups and out groups (Allport, 1954; Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987; Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2012).

In summary, employees who are linguistically marginalized will have a poor perception of their coworkers' attitudes (job satisfaction and emotional commitment) because they see themselves as members of a linguistic out group (Kulkarni, 2015; Voss, Albert, & Ferring, 2014). This is because language is a fundamental means of distributing information at work, and not understanding what is being said puts a burden on the interpersonal ties of focal employees (Kulkarni, 2015; Lauring, 2008; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2016).

As a result of this negative view in employee attitudes, interpersonal activities will be enacted in such a way that linguistically ostracized employees will be dissatisfied and have a higher probability of missing affective commitment (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). (Vadera & Pratt, 2013). Employee attitudes are frequently indications of employee well-being (Grant, Christianson, & Price, 2007), with work satisfaction and organizational commitment being the most common (Grant et al., 2007; Van de Voorde, Paauwe & Veldhoven, 2012). Employee well-being is important both as an end in itself (ethical considerations) and as a means to an end (linguistic ostracism), yet it hasn't been front and center in the dominant language of linguistic ostracism until lately (Guest, 2017; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). We show in this paper that employees' psychological capital mediates the relationship between linguistic ostracism and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Psychological capital (PsyCap) refers to an individual's psychological resources, such as self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience, that he or she has and can use (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). PsyCap can be improved (Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014; Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015), and it is a resource that businesses may use to their benefit because it relates to individuals' capacities (Youssef & Luthans, 2013; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Our model investigates how linguistic ostracism affects the portrayal of employee attitudes (satisfaction and commitment). Our approach is complimentary to, rather than contradictory to, the prevalent social exchange account. Employees recognize the benefits and discourage negativity, and they reciprocate in the form of positive/negative attitudes, according to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). (Gong et al., 2009; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi, 2007; Takeuchi et al., 2018; Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009). In this regard, if employees' interests are not addressed, it will result in a poor attitude and employee perspective. Because PsyCap is concerned with "who you are" (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007), the principle is distinct: Employees' psychological capacities for

reducing negativity serve as a moderator to improve their attitudes toward their job and their employer. Linguistic ostracism not only causes social disidentification, which is reciprocated, but it also serves as a moderator to improve their attitudes toward their job and their employer. Furthermore, COR theory is viewed as a viable theoretical lens for understanding how linguistic ostracism is linked to subjective outcomes like employee well-being views (Peccei et al., 2013; Shantz, Arevshatian, Alfes, & Bailey, 2016). We believe that when employees have the skills they need to do well, their motivation to succeed improves, as does their ability to input and contribute to their PsyCap. Individuals attempt to retain, maintain, and gain contextual and personal resources, according to COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002). We propose that efforts to minimize negative effects such as ostracism stimulate the growth of employees' personal psychological resources, specifically their PsyCap. Furthermore, according to COR theory, environmental factors may accelerate the process by which one resource type encourages the acquisition of another (Hobfoll, 2001).

As a result, the research presents a theoretical model (see Figure 1). The direct effect of language ostracism on employee attitudes is investigated (Job satisfaction and affective commitment). We also look at how PsyCap affects employee sentiments directly. We also evaluated an integrated model in which Psycap moderates the effect of linguistic ostracism on employee attitudes (work satisfaction and affective commitment).

Figure-1: Theoretical Model
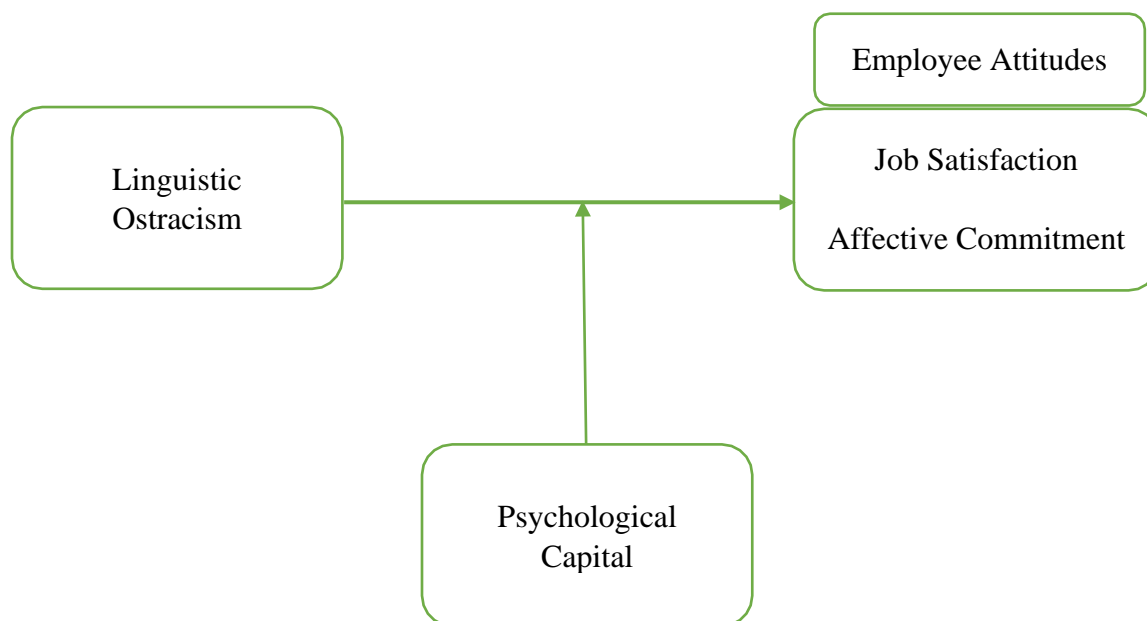
2. What do we know about Linguistic Ostracism?

Linguistic ostracism is part of a larger concept called workplace ostracism. When an individual or a group fails to engage another organizational member when it is socially proper to do so, it is referred to as workplace ostracism (Robinson et al., 2013: 206). Although workplace ostracism isn't as obvious as other bad professional behaviors like hostility or harassment, its consequences are serious since it results in a "loss of social involvement" (Robinson et al., 2013: 207). Because

there is no interaction between the perpetrators and the targets of ostracism, such social estrangement arises (Ferris et al., 2017). To put it another way, ostracism is an act of omission that goes against social standards (Robinson et al., 2013). For example, to punish or revenge against targets, criminals may actively reject or ignore their coworkers by giving them the quiet treatment (Quade, Greenbaum, & Petrenko, 2017; Robinson et al., 2013). Linguistic ostracism, on the other hand, is distinctive in this sense because it is a largely non-purposeful form of ostracism (Robinson et al., 2013). Linguistic ostracism works by preventing verbal social contact, specifically by the use of a language that is not mutually understood (Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2009). Because of the difference in this medium of exclusion, linguistic ostracism "may not be linked to ill will" (Ferris et al., 2017: 333). Despite the fact that linguistic ostracism is often non-purposeful, non-mutually understood language used in workgroups could be seen as an ostracizing act (Chrobot-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, & Ernst, 2009; Kulkarni, 2015). Furthermore, linguistic ostracism occurs in many-to-one situations by its very nature (Dotan-Eliaz et al., 2009). To linguistically ostracize a focal employee, at least two or more persons must engage in a language that the focal employee does not understand. Workplace ostracism, on the other hand, can occur in one-on-one situations when only one employee can ignore or avoid a coworker, thereby ostracizing the coworker (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). As previously stated, as the number of languages spoken in workplaces grows, there is a greater risk of linguistic ostracism. Linguistic ostracism is a distinct sort of ostracism because of its often non-purposeful nature and the workgroup-based structure in which it occurs. For these reasons, it's timely and vital to look into the impacts of this type of ostracism (see Ferris et al., 2017).

3. Linguistic Ostracism: Ethnolinguistic Theory and Employee Attitudes

Ethno-linguistic identity theory, a conceptual descendant of social identity theory, emphasizes the importance of language as a social category that influences people's attitudes (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987). Language is an important social category in the workplace because it allows workgroups to organize, communicate, and execute shared goals (Charles, 2007). (see Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Simply said, language plays a critical part in shaping a person's mentality (Bordia & Bordia, 2015). When focus employees hear a specific language, it stimulates their consciousness of their own social category and conveys their membership status, according to ethno-linguistic identity theory (i.e., ingroup or outgroup based on the language spoken). As a social category, language triggers ingroup/outgroup formation and determines employee attitudes. Employees have a stronger attachment to people in their linguistic ingroup and a weaker attachment to those in their linguistic outgroup (Giles & Johnson, 1981). As a result, focused employees may regard themselves as members of a linguistic outgroup when coworkers speak a language that they do not understand. Being a part of a linguistic outgroup has a negative impact on focal employees' attitudes, and they are more likely to take activities that reduce commitment and satisfaction (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Matschke & Sassenberg, 2010). Following this line of reasoning, we argue that linguistically isolated employees will adopt two employee attitudes: drops in their attitudes and increases in their attitudes. There are two theories for why linguistically alienated employees are more inclined to reduce their attitudes, according to ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987). (Kulkarni, 2015; Kulkarni & Sommer, 2015). Employees first determine how much effort they are willing to put into their workgroup based on their membership (ingroup/outgroup) status (Tyler & Blader, 2003). Employees who closely identify with their coworkers are more likely to be satisfied because they see their personal achievement and the success of their

coworkers as intricately intertwined (e.g., Bartel, 2001). Employees' motivation to stay and contribute to the collective grows as they continue to reap the benefits of ingroup membership over time (Kulkarni & Sommer, 2015). However, when this relationship is weakened, as in the case of linguistic ostracism, focal employees no longer profit from belonging to the ingroup. As a result, they become unsatisfied and disengaged from the workgroup (Lauring, 2008; Sleebos, Ellemers, & de Gilder, 2006). As a result, we propose:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Linguistic ostracism has negative and significant effect on employee attitudes ($H1_a$Job satisfaction and $H1_b$ Affective commitment).

4. Argumentation based on COR theory

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 2002) adds to the theoretical support for anticipating psychological capital to moderate the relationship between linguistic ostracism and employee attitudes. Individuals aim to keep, defend, and accumulate resources, according to COR theory. Resources are objects, circumstances, energy, or personal characteristics that are functional and valuable in and of themselves or because they help achieve desired outcomes (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014; Hobfoll, 1988, 1989).

There are two types of resources: contextual and personal (Hobfoll, 2002). The former are found in a person's immediate surroundings. Learning and development opportunities, performance evaluations, autonomy, and the ability to make decisions are all examples from the workplace (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Fan, Liu, & Zou, 2018; Hobfoll, 2011; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Personal resources might be physical, affective, psychological, or intellectual and are found within the individual (Hobfoll, 2002). Personal psychological resources refer to people's assessments of their own ability to successfully control and impact their environment (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003), which is where the PsyCap components (self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience) fit in (also Constantini et al., 2017; Hobfoll, 1989, 2002; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). The key assumption of COR theory (Weigl et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009), which is confirmed by empirical research (Weigl et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009), is that the resources people have help them obtain more resources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002). (Hobfoll, 2001, 2011; Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). It's possible that the gain spiral begins with contextual resources that stimulate the production of personal resources (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Indeed, according to Hobfoll (2011), whether individuals have the resources to develop and evolve is dependent on whether firms provide the required structures, rules, and opportunities. We argue that psychological resources mitigate the negative effects of linguistic ostracism on employee attitudes. Furthermore, different resources may contribute to the same effect within the confines of COR theory (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Delery, 1998; Horgan & M€uhlau, 2006; Huselid, 1995; Saridakis, Lai, & Cooper, 2017) agree on the synergetic operation of the activities involved. Finally, according to Hobfoll (2001, 2002), the concept of resource caravans in COR theory argues that certain resources do not exist in isolation, but rather in aggregate, and that when one of them is present, other related resources are also present, increasing their potency. Because the four PsyCap constituent resources mutually reinforce each other and constitute a higher-order core factor, they work as a resource caravan (Gavrilov-Jerkovic, Jovanovic, Zuljevic, & Brdaric, 2014; Luthans et al., 2015; Youssef & Luthans, 2013). This means that

adding linguistic ostracism to one PsyCap resource is likely to improve job satisfaction and commitment.

5. Psychological capital and employee attitudes

Evidence of a link between PsyCap and desired employee attitudes is accumulating (Datu, King, & Valdez, 2018; Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016; Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). Positive affect leads to positive evaluations and interpretations of events, conditions, and interactions, and therefore to more favorable attitudes, while negative affect leads to negative evaluations and interpretations of events, conditions, and interactions, and vice versa (Forgas, 2006; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Strong PsyCap should, then, contribute to good effect because it instills hope for the future and confidence in one's ability to control one's destiny and deal with potential obstacles and failures (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). This allows us to hypothesize that individuals with higher PsyCap will report higher job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment because their positive affect encourages them to think positively about their employment and employers. PsyCap is, in other words, a predictor of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2(H2): PsyCap has positive and significant effect on employee attitudes (H2$_a$Job satisfaction and H2$_b$ Affective commitment).
Hypothesis 3 (H3): PsyCap moderates between Linguistic ostracism and Job attitudes (H3$_a$Job satisfaction and H3$_b$ Affective commitment).

6. Method

Participants and procedure

Data was gathered from 44 manufacturing businesses in Pakistan's five major cities (Lahore, Karachi, Multan, Faisalabad, and Rahim Yar Khan). Manufacturing businesses were chosen because they are more likely to face linguistic ostracism in Pakistan. Each business had at least 100 full-time employees and had been in operation for at least five years. In the first step, 65 organizations that fit these requirements were approached, and 44 (employee numbers 117–588, M 291) consented to participate. There were no significant differences in size or age between the companies who agreed to participate and those that did not. Each company's HR department gave a list of full-time employees from which a random sample of 15–20 individuals was chosen. A total of 720 surveys were sent, each with an envelope for the response and a cover letter emphasizing the importance of voluntary involvement. Employees provided 569 valid responses (78.8% response rate), which were matched with HR managers' 44 responses. The average number of employees per company who answered was 12.93 (SD7.79), allowing for relevant multivariate analysis. We investigated if demographics may explain the chance of remaining in the final sample (n=569) among individuals who were contacted (n=720) (i.e. age, organizational tenure and gender). The demographic profile of those who answered was similar to that of those who were issued the questionnaires, according to the findings (9.07, ns). HR managers (72.7 percent of whom were women) were on average 41.5 years old (SD=5.89), with a mean tenure of 10.67 years (SD=8.51). Employees (52.8 percent men) were on average 34.88 years old (SD=7.24), with a mean tenure of 5.75 years (SD=4.6), and 62.4 percent had bachelor's degrees or higher.

Measures

Linguistic ostracism (employee-report). We constructed a five-item measure of linguistic ostracism with the help of content domain specialists and data from three samples of Pakistani workers. On a 5-point scale, employees rated the linguistic ostracism they experienced as a member of their workgroup (1 = never to 5 = all of the time). For linguistic ostracism, the coefficient alpha was.95.

Psychological capital

The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007; Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007), which has four six-item sub-scales, was used to assess this. Cronbach alpha was satisfactory for all subscales and the total PCQ scale (self-efficacy.90, hope.87, optimism.85, and resilience.82) (.94). PsyCap was modelled as a latent second-order component composed of four first-order factors, as indicated by Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007). According to a CFA, the second-order factor model fit the data reasonably well [X2(244) 469.35, NFI.904, IFI.927, TLI.913, CFI.926, RMSEA.068], with all items loading significantly (p.001) on their corresponding factors and each first-order factor loading heavily on the higher-order factor (loadings range.873–.956). As a result, the four components were integrated into a single aggregate index that reflected a person's PsyCap.

Job satisfaction

This was assessed using Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly's six-item scale (e.g., "I am content with the type of the work I execute") (1992). Cronbach's alpha was.87.

Affective organizational commitment

Meyer, Allen, and Smith used a six-item scale (e.g., "I truly believe that this organization's issues are my own") to assess this (1993). The Cronbach alpha value was.78.

Control variables.

Employee tenure, linguistic ability (the number of languages spoken by the employee), demographic dissimilarity with the workgroup, and workplace ostracism were all adjusted for. These control variables were chosen based on control variable usage suggestions (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016). Employees' tenure, in particular, might influence their attitude since employees with shorter tenure are more likely to be satisfied and devoted (Ng & Feldman, 2011). We also accounted for employees' demographic dissimilarity and language competence, as both variables may impact ingroup and outgroup formation within the workgroup, according to ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987). Age, education, lifestyle, ethnic background, religion, and language (we added the dimension of language to the original measure; Pelled, Ledford, & Mohrman, 1999; =.76) were the six diversity dimensions on which employees reported their perceived demographic dissimilarity with members of their workgroup. Furthermore, we used language ability as a control since multilingualism has been associated to improved cultural and language acceptance, which may make it easier for employees to engage with a varied group of coworkers (Gunesch, 2003). We evaluated employees' language skills by asking them how many languages they could communicate successfully in. Finally, we added workplace ostracism as a control variable, which effects work behaviors as a larger kind of

ostracism (e.g., Ferris et al., 2008). The 10-item Workplace Ostracism Scale (Ferris et al., 2008; =.92) was used to assess views of workplace ostracism in the workgroup.

Results

The descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, and correlation are presented in Table 1. To assess the distinctiveness of the measures filled in the employee survey, we first ran a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using Mplus 8.0. Linguistic ostracism, workplace ostracism, demographic dissimilarity, and Psycap were all put on distinct variables in the basic four-factor model. This model was a decent match for the data: 2(318) = 559.54, p.01, comparative fit index (CFI) =.95, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) =.95, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) =.06, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) =.04, comparative fit index (CFI) =.95, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) =.95, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) =.06, We used chi-square difference tests to compare this model to other models. A three-factor model with demographic dissimilarity and Psycap compressed into one factor produced a considerably inferior fit to the data: 2(3) = 270.59, p.01, 2(321) = 830.13, p.01, CFI =.84, TLI =.83, RMSEA =.09, SRMR =.10. A two-factor model that collapsed both language and workplace ostracism onto one component and demographic dissimilarity and SSE onto a second factor provided a weaker match to the data: CFI =.57, TLI =.54, RMSEA =.14, SRMR =.14, 2(2) = 882.87, p.01, 2(323) = 1,713.00, p.01, CFI =.57, TLI =.54, RMSEA =.14, SRMR =.14. Finally, a model that condensed all constructs into one component produced a poor fit to the data: CFI =.50, TLI =.46, RMSEA =.15, SRMR =.14, 2(1) = 286.57, p.01, 2(324) = 1,999.57, p.01, CFI =.50, TLI =.46, RMSEA =.15, SRMR =.14. 2 These findings supported the constructs' uniqueness. We hypothesized that linguistic rejection is linked to decreased job satisfaction (Hypothesis 1) and increased affective commitment (Hypothesis 2). (Hypothesis 2). Initial support for Hypotheses 1 and 2 (see Table 1).came from bivariate associations between linguistic ostracism and job satisfaction (r =.25, p.01) and affective commitment (r =-.38, p.01).

Table 1: Reliability, Pearson Movement, and Descriptive Statistics

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	M	SD
Job Tenure	-								5.87	7.64
Ability of Language	-.07								2.56	0.83
Demographic dissimilarity	.02	-.01	**.76**						2.35	0.56
Workplace Ostracism	-.11	.07	-.13	**.92**					1.45	0.60
Linguistic Ostracism	-.16*	.03	-.23**	.41**	**.95**				1.73	0.76
Psychological Capital	.07	.09	-.06	-.21**	-.15*	**.75**			2.83	0.46
Job Satisfaction	.06	.06	.16**	-.22**	-.25**	.22**	**.87**		3.82	0.61
Affective Commitment	-.21**	.03	-.01	.25**	-.38**	-.42**	-.28**	**.85**	1.76	1.02

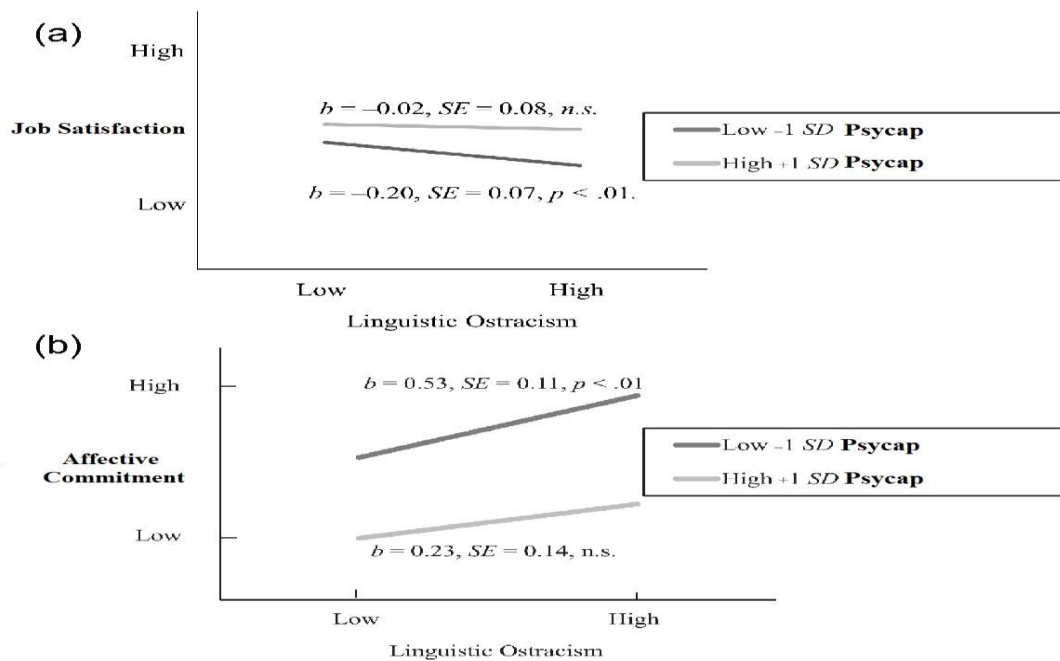Note: N=222. Alpha values are shown on the diagonal in boldface.
*p<.05, **p<.01.

Table 2: Hierarchical Linear Modelling- Job satisfaction, Affective Commitment, & Moderation of Psycap.

Predictor	Job Satisfaction			Affective Commitment		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Job Tenure	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.01)	-0.02** (0.01)	-0.02** (0.01)	-0.02* (0.01)
Ability of Language	0.05 (0.04)	0.04 (0.05)	0.05 (0.05)	0.01 (0.08)	0.01 (0.08)	0.04 (0.07)
Demographic Dissimilarity	0.15*(0.07)	0.11 (0.07)	0.13 (0.07)	0.04 (0.12)	0.15 (0.12)	0.09 (0.11)
Workplace Ostracism	-0.22**(0.07)	-0.15*(0.07)	-0.11 (0.07)	-0.40** (0.11)	-0.18 (0.12)	-0.09 (0.11)
Linguistic Ostracism		-0.13*(0.06)	-0.11 (0.06)		-0.44** (0.09)	-0.38** (0.09)
Psycap			0.21* (0.10)			-0.75** (0.13)
Linguistic ostracism × Psycap			0.07* (0.03)			-0.11* (0.05)
R^2	0.08	0.10	.15	.10	.18	.31
ΔR^2		0.03*	.05**		.08**	.13**

Note: N = 222. Coefficients are unstandardized. Standard errors are shown in parenthesis.
*p < .05.**p < .01

(a)

$b = -0.02, SE = 0.08, n.s.$

$b = -0.20, SE = 0.07, p < .01.$

Low −1 SD Psycap
High +1 SD Psycap

(b)

$b = 0.53, SE = 0.11, p < .01$

$b = 0.23, SE = 0.14, n.s.$

Low −1 SD Psycap
High +1 SD Psycap

We used hierarchical regression analysis to formally test these hypotheses (see Table 2). After controlling for tenure, language ability, demographic dissimilarity, and workplace ostracism, the results showed that linguistic ostracism was negatively related to job satisfaction (b = 0.13, SE = 0.06, p.05; Model 2, Table 2) and positively related to interpersonal deviance behaviors (b = -0.44, SE = 0.09, p.01; Model 5, Table 2; results were similar without including an explanatory variable). Hypotheses 1 and 2 were therefore confirmed. We argued in Hypotheses 3a and 3b that Psycap moderates the effect of linguistic ostracism on job satisfaction and affective commitment, such that employees with low Psycap will have fewer job satisfaction and stronger affective commitment than those with high Psycap. For job satisfaction (b = 0.07, SE = 0.03, p.05; Model 3, Table 2) and affective commitment (b = 0.11, SE = 0.05, p.05; Model 6, Table 2), the interaction term of linguistic ostracism and Psycap was statistically significant. We used Aiken and West's (1991) advice to run simple slopes tests to better understand the pattern of these interactions. When SSE was low (b = 0.20, SE = 0.07, p.01), there was a larger negative connection between linguistic ostracism and job satisfaction than when Psycap was high (b = 0.02, SE = 0.08, n.s.; see Figure 2a). When Psycap was low (b = -0.53, SE = 0.11, p.01), there was a greater negative connection between linguistic ostracism and interpersonal deviant behaviors than when Psycap was high (b = -0.23, SE = 0.14, n.s.; see Figure 2b). Results show that when Psycap was low, linguistically isolated employees were less likely to engage in Job satisfaction and more likely to engage in emotional commitment than when Psycap was high, supporting Hypotheses 3a and 3b.

Discussion

The findings of Study reveal that language in the workplace is a relevant phenomenon that could spark ingroups and outgroups, which is consistent with the literature on ostracism, particularly linguistic ostracism (Bordia & Bordia, 2015; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). If workgroup members do not communicate in a common language, focused employees may perceive themselves as belonging to a linguistic outgroup. As a result, focus employees' self-concept will be negatively impacted, and they will strive to disidentify from their workgroup in order to rebuild a more positive self-concept. Job attitudes serve as an underlying mechanism that explains why linguistic ostracism effects job attitudes, according to this logic, which draws on ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987).

Conclusion

With the development of multilingualism in the workplace, it's more important than ever to understand how language affects intragroup relationships. We explain how language might be regarded as a form of exclusion in the workplace using ethnolinguistic identity theory. Employees who feel linguistic ostracism disidentify with their workgroup and enact lower job satisfaction and affective commitment, according to our findings, and this effect is most pronounced for individuals with low Psycap. Given the possible negative repercussions of linguistic ostracism, a form of ostracism that is often non-purposeful, our research indicates this phenomena as an essential topic for future theoretical and empirical growth.

Limitations & Future Suggestions

This research has focused on the theoretical foundation based on linguistic ostracism and assessed the consequences of linguistically ostracized employees in terms of their job attitudes (Satisfaction and commitment). This study is limited in the context of Pakistani manufacturing industries, however, this issue may be traced out by including multi-cultural groups of different

countries working in giant companies like Apple Inc, IBM, Toyota, and General Motors etc. Moreover, social dis-identification phenomena can be assessed with support of social dis-identification theories and some social dis-identification variables may be included to enhance the understanding of linguistic ostracism and behavior of employees at workplace.

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