Ordinal Effects of Ostracism:

A Meta-Analysis of Cyberball Studies

Chris H.J. Hartgerink1

Ilja Van Beest1

Jelte M. Wicherts1

Kipling D. Williams2

1 Tilburg University, the Netherlands

2 Purdue University, United States of America

**Word count (main text): 9509 words**

**Word count (abstract): 159 words**

**Word count (references, tables, footnotes, supplement): 7052 words**

*Acknowledgements:*

We would like to kindly thank all researchers who sent in their unpublished studies and helped us collect all the data we needed. We sent too many emails to you, and thank you for being patient with us. We would also like to thank Andrew Hales for his constructive comments on the piece. The preparation of this article was supported by grant number 016-125-385 from the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) awarded to JMW and by the NSF under Grant #BCS-1339160 awarded to KDW.

**Abstract**

Cyberball is widely used to study ostracism and related phenomena. We examine 120 studies (combined N = 11,869) to determine the overall effect size, and conditions under which the effect may be reversed, eliminated, or small. Our analyses showed that (1) the average ostracism effect is large (d > |1|) and (2) the structural aspects of the Cyberball game (i.e., number of players, gender composition of sample, origin of study, sample age, duration of ostracism, type of needs scale) are inconsequential. Further, we test a proposition by Williams (2009) that the immediate impact of ostracism is resistant to moderation, but that moderation is more likely to be observed in delayed measures. Our findings suggest that (3) both the first and last measure are moderated, and (4) time passed since being ostracized does not predict the effect sizes of the last measure. Thus, support for this proposition is tenuous, and we suggest modifications to the temporal need-threat model of ostracism.

*Keywords: Cyberball, meta-analysis, temporal, ostracism*

**Ordinal Effects of Ostracism: a Meta-Analysis of Cyberball Studies**

Cyberball (Williams, Cheung, & Choi, 2000; Williams & Jarvis, 2006) is a virtual ball-tossing game that is used to manipulate the degree of social inclusion, or ostracism, in social psychological experiments. In this game the participant supposedly plays with two (or three) other participants, who are in fact part of the computer program. The program varies the degree to which the other players are passing participants the ball; ostracized participants are not passed the ball after two initial tosses, whereas included participants are passed the ball repeatedly. Figure 1 shows a still from the game. In the study of the psychological effects of ostracism and exclusion, this methodological paradigm has been widely used in parallel with other paradigms, such as the future life rejection (see Baumeister, Twenge, & Nuss, 2002), the get-acquainted paradigm (Nezlek, Kowalski, Leary, Blevings, & Holgate, 1997), and the autobiographical memory manipulation (i.e., remember a time when you were excluded; Craighead, Kimball, & Rehak, 1979). Our literature search showed that at least 200 published papers involved the use of the Cyberball paradigm to study ostracism, and that over 19,500 participants have played the game thus far. Thus, the Cyberball paradigm has received much traction in experimental studies on ostracism.

**Historical background**

Since its introduction, Cyberball research has informed theory on ostracism, exclusion, and rejection (e.g., Williams, 2009), has been the topic of several meta-analyses (Blackhart, Nelson, Knowles, & Baumeister, 2009; Cacioppo, Frum, Asp, Weiss, Lewis, & Cacioppo, 2013; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009), and has received growing interest even outside the domain of social psychology (Williams, 2009). Because everybody gets excluded sometimes (approximately once a day according to Nezlek et al., 1997), ostracism research is socially relevant in many domains (e.g., workplace, church, schools, families, and even in the context of school shootings; Leary, Kowalski, Smith, & Phillips, 2003). Through experimental work, it has been repeatedly shown that being ostracized has an effect on people—either on their psychological functioning (e.g., decreases in positive mood; Lustenberger & Jagacinski, 2010) or on certain interpersonal behaviors (e.g., increases either social susceptibility or aggressive behaviors; Carter-Sowell, Chen, & Williams, 2008; Van Beest, Carter-Sowell, Van Dijk, & Williams, 2012). These experiments have highlighted the (mostly negative) impact of ostracism on fundamental needs (e.g., belonging; Baumeister, & Leary, 1995), mood, physiology (e.g., body temperature; IJzerman, Galucci, Pouw, Weiβgerber, Van Doesum, & Williams, 2012), and various other constructs, including those measured with behavioral measures (e.g., conformity, compliance, aggression). In the current paper, we refer to the general effect of being ostracized compared to being included in Cyberball as the *ostracism effect*.

Williams (2009) proposed a temporal need-threat model of ostracism, in which he suggested three stages in the ostracism effect, namely: (1) a *reflexive* stage, (2) a *reflective* stage, and (3) a *resignation* stage. In the reflexive stage, the response to the ostracism sequence is immediate and occurs like a reflex. This initial response is theorized to be socially painful and threatening (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), and easily detectable due to evolutionary over-sensitivity to cues of ostracism (Haselton, & Buss, 2000). Such a reflex would not take into account situational specifics, and provides little room for coping. The reflex is proposed to affect primarily pain, fundamental needs, and emotional reactions (e.g., increased anger and sadness). The affected fundamental needs are (1) belonging, (2) self-esteem, (3) control, and (4) meaningful existence, measured by a need satisfaction scale (Williams, 2009). According to Williams, measures of reflexive responses must occur during, or in the case of self-report measures, immediately following Cyberball (with the wording of the questions referring to how participants felt *during the game*). The *reflective* (or delayed) stage, which follows this immediate response, is subject to more rational thought and coping with the threats. Part of such coping is need fortification of the threatened fundamental needs. Coping can be measured both in terms of speed of recovery (higher levels of need satisfaction approaching the levels of included participants), and emotional, cognitive, and behavioral choices. The *resignation* stage occurs after prolonged ostracism, causing prolonged periods of pain and more fundamental need threat. If one is not able to fortify the fundamental needs, a prolonged ostracism sequence leads to feelings of helplessness, alienation, depression, and unworthiness. Because the resignation stage is hypothesized to occur only after prolonged and repeated exposure to ostracism (as in months or years), it is not feasible (and even unethical) to study resignation responses in laboratory experiments. Hence, in this paper we limit ourselves to studying the reflexive and reflective stages. For these stages, Williams asserts that moderation and variation of need satisfaction effects by individual differences and socially relevant factors (e.g., type of group from which one is excluded) will be less likely to occur for reflexive measures than for reflective measures.

Previous meta-analyses on the topic of social exclusion have focused on estimating the effect of exclusion1 on different constructs (e.g., belonging, self-esteem, etc.; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009), neurophysiological effects in fMRI studies (Cacioppo et. al, 2013), impact on affective responses (Blackhart et al., 2009), and moderation of (non-Cyberball) effects by types of manipulation (Blackhart et al., 2009). Gerber and Wheeler (2009) found that rejection has a medium to large effect on mood and fundamental needs, which results in either anti-social responses if control *can* be restored, or pro-social responses if control *cannot* be restored. Blackhart and colleagues (2009) found that exclusion moved individuals to a more neutral mood and/or emotional state, and that it negatively affected self-esteem. They also found indications of moderation by type of rejection manipulation used. Cacioppo et al. (2013) provided a more nuanced account of pain overlap theory (for reviews see Eisenberger & Lieberman, 2004; Iannetti, Salomons, Moayedi, Mouraux, & Davis, 2013; MacDonald & Leary, 2005) by showing that social and physical pain activates similar but also distinct brain areas.

Whereas these meta-analyses focused on the social ostracism effect within different constructs (e.g., fundamental needs), in different exclusion paradigms, and in fMRI studies, the current meta-analysis limits the paradigm to that of between-subjects experiments using Cyberball and looks to test more general ideas of social ostracism. Here we focus on the workings of the reflexive and reflective stages (rather than on the resignation stage). Of all Cyberball studies, we included only those that used a between-subjects experimental design with random assignment to assure a minimum level of quality by methodological rigor. This limits our meta-analysis to between-subject effects. The criteria were also broad enough to include a sufficiently large number of studies for testing our hypotheses.

**Goals of Meta-analysis**

The goal of our meta-analysis is to provide a comprehensive understanding of the Cyberball-induced inclusion versus ostracism effect size. Under what conditions, if any, is the effect size negative, zero or especially small? Under what conditions is it especially large? Given that Cyberball is a popular experimental paradigm, it is worthwhile to examine whether specific changes in procedure matter in the resulting effect. Thus, to shed light on the generalizability of the ostracism effect, we assessed how structural aspects of Cyberball studies affect first and last measures. We inspected whether (1) number of players in the game, (2) gender composition of the sample, (3) origin of study, (4) average age of the sample, (5) total number of ball tosses, (6) the number of throws in the game and (7) type of needs scale affected the found effect size. We inspected this for both time points. Such moderation is worthwhile to investigate, as researchers can learn if procedural changes affect the effect size in their study, which can be taken into account when making power calculations.

To study this, we concern ourselves, in this meta-analysis, with modeling the ostracism effect on the first measure and on the last measure. Williams’s (2009) temporal need-threat model indicates that the reflexive stage shows larger ostracism effects than the reflective stage. As reflexes typically occur immediately following the stimulus, this implies that as time progresses, moderation of the ostracism effect would *increase*. Our operationalization of *moderation* of the ostracism effect is straightforward: many experimental designs included a second factor besides the factor related to ostracism, and so interactions in the ANOVA realm would indicate moderation of the ostracism effect. For example, in a 2 (ostracized vs. included) by 2 (in-group vs. out-group) between-subjects design, the ostracism effect could be expected to be larger for the in-group level than for the out-group level. Such moderation can be numerically seen as an interaction effect. For instance, the difference between simple effects of ostracism for the in- and out-group conditions reflects this interaction (specific calculations are reported in the methods section and formulae in the Appendix). These hypotheses were registered a priori on the Open Science Framework (OSF).2

We will use meta-regressions with study-level indicators to study effects of the composition of the manipulation and the samples. This is conceptually similar to a (multiple) linear regression, but with estimated effects as the dependent variable. Our predictors for these meta-regressions are the study-level indicators. First, because collectivism might influence the degree to which belonging is important (see Hofstede, 1980), we used a crude categorization of continents (i.e., U.S., other western countries, Asian countries, and remaining countries). Second, because social aspects may be less evolutionarily relevant for males than for females (Hawes et al., 2012), we included proportion of male participants. Third, given that exclusion may be more relevant for younger people, we included mean age. Fourth, because it may matter by how many people one gets ostracized, we included the number of players in the game. Fifth, as the length of the exclusion may matter, we included duration of exclusion. Sixth, we considered potential differences between types of scales used to measure fundamental needs.

Additionally, we inspected robustness of the findings across different subsets of dependent variables. Overall, the dependent variables included in the meta-analysis were only subject to the criterion that they were expected to be affected by ostracism, which does not limit the measures to just one type. In other words, we included multiple types of dependent variables with varying psychometric properties in the primary studies. We considered measures that speak to both how the participant interacts with others (i.e., interpersonal) and how they experience the situation themselves (i.e., intrapersonal). We define interpersonal measures as measures relating to others, and intrapersonal measures as measures relating only to the self. Examples of interpersonal measures are donation behavior, aggression. Examples of intrapersonal measures are self-reported anger, self-esteem, control, but also physiological measures such as body temperature, galvanic skin response. Finally, given that most Cyberball studies specifically use *fundamental needs* (i.e., belonging, self-esteem, control and meaningful existence) questionnaires, we also tested these as a separate type of intrapersonal measure (see Van Beest & Williams, 2006; Williams et al., 2000; Zadro, Williams, & Richardson, 2004).

Besides using different subsets of measures for sensitivity analyses, we also coded whether the first- and last measure included was immediate (i.e., variables relating to during the game) or delayed (i.e., variables relating to after the game). This ensures model correspondence for the included measures. Hence, an analysis restricted to delayed and immediate measures an important sensitivity analysis for inspecting artifact results based on measure selection.

In sum, the hypotheses are subdivided into two primary and several secondary questions. The two main questions were (1) is there an ordinal decrease of the ostracism effect across time points? and (2) is there an ordinal difference in the interaction effect across time points? Additional questions were: do study characteristics affect the estimated average effect? In other words, are the results robust across different subsets that substantively could yield different results? These questions will be answered with random and mixed-effects meta-analytic models applied to 120 studies.

**Method**

**Study inclusion criteria**

First, experiments were required to have a factor that manipulated number of virtual ball tosses obtained by the participants. For this ostracism factor we only considered the condition in which participants were ostracized by all other participants and the condition in which participants were equally included by all other players. Studies that used other (between-subjects) factors alongside the ostracism factor were included as well. Limiting the study designs included is presumed to decrease variability due to design characteristics, which increases power for moderator analyses. Note that we collapsed effect sizes across irrelevant factors if primary authors expressed no expectations concerning the potential moderating effect of that crossed factor (i.e., non-moderating factors). Moreover, continuous variables that were dichotomized were also collapsed due to the many problems dichotomization can cause (e.g., underestimation of effect size, spurious effects; see Hunter & Schmidt, 1990; MacCallum, Zhang, Preacher, & Rucker, 2002). For example, when participants were grouped into high- and low neuroticism groups based on a continuous measure of neuroticism (Boyes, & French, 2009), we used pooled means and standard deviations across these two groups, reducing the design to an ostracism/inclusion design.

Second, we only considered experiments that incorporated a between-subjects design with random assignment. Within-subject designs were excluded, because most within-subjects designs regard high-dimensional neurophysiological measurements such as fMRI that are beyond the scope of this meta-analysis (see Cacioppo et al., 2013). Also, meta-analyses of effects of within-subjects designs require the correlations between measures in primary studies, and we did not expect these to be reliably reported in the papers.

Reasons for these inclusion criteria are threefold. (1) Most Cyberball experiments take place in such a format, making it an encompassing criterion for the purposes of this meta-analysis. (2) The choice to limit the meta-analysis to between-subject designs rendered computational aspects more feasible based on reported statistics in papers. (3) These criteria were assumed to heighten primary study quality, which is preferable to subjective quality assessments of individual studies. For the dependent measures the criterion was that they were (expected to be) affected by the ostracism manipulation. We considered the measures that immediately followed the manipulation (first measure) and the measure at the end of the study (last measure), while excluding manipulation checks in this assessment.

**Literature search**

To have a comprehensive meta-analysis of Cyberball studies, we used seven search strategies in the period of November 2012 through April 2013. These search strategies included database searches, a call for data, cross-reference with Kip Williams’s list of Cyberball studies, Google Scholar alerts, citation records, SPSP conference abstracts, and personal communications.

The databases searched included Web of Knowledge, PubMed, ScienceDirect and Worldcat using all sources from the Tilburg University library. The first three cover only published articles, whereas Worldcat also covers books and dissertations as well as the PsycINFO database. All these databases were searched with the keywords *cyberball*, *ball-tossing* and *ball AND ostraci\**. Web of Knowledge was the first database searched. For this database, an additional search term (i.e., *ball AND exclu\**) was used, but this yielded zero relevant hits on a total of 501 hits. Across all these searches, results included 1927 hits of which 109 were saved for coding. Within Web of Knowledge, we looked through all citation records of the seminal papers by Williams et al. (2000); Williams and Jarvis (2006). These papers were cited 332 times (as of 5th of November, 2012), of which 43 papers were saved for coding. The entire literature search provided 2259 initial hits (including possible duplicates across searches), of which 152 were selected to be included in the coding.

The call for data was put on the list servers or forums of Society for Personality and Social Psychology (SPSP), European Association of Social Psychology (EASP), and Social Psychology Network (SPN; all on 3rd of December, 2012). This resulted in nine replies, from which three useful studies, which were included in the coding procedure.

Kip Williams keeps a list of Cyberball studies on his personal website. This list was used to check for extra articles that did not turn up in the initial searches on November 15th, 2012.3 The list included 93 papers, of which 9 papers were included to be coded.

The final searches included Google Scholar alerts, SPSP conference abstracts and personal communication. The Google Scholar alerts were used to keep up to date with new literature. These alerts notify a user when new hits for a search term occur, and were used for *cyberball* and *ball-tossing*, which yielded 85 hits of which 25 were saved for coding. SPSP conference abstracts from 2006 through 2013 were searched for Cyberball studies. This led to personal communications with the authors of the conference abstracts, leading to additional studies. Pooled, the personal communication and the conference abstracts yielded 21 hits, of which 20 were saved for coding. The seminal paper by Williams et al. (2000) was added separately.

In sum, the literature search spanned 2468 hits, resulting in 205 that were saved for coding. During coding, papers were assessed to fit the inclusion criteria. Of the 205 papers, 107 papers were excluded for a variety of reasons. Several involved the use of a within-subjects design (52 papers). Some papers could not be accessed (5 papers) or could not be included because we did not receive the required data on request (7 papers). Some were excluded for other reasons (43 papers), such as not involving new data (e.g., a dissertation study that was later published). All included papers were published between 2000 (after the introduction of Cyberball) and April 2013. This resulted in a final, fully coded sample of 98 papers containing 120 studies, with mean sample size 98.9 and median sample size 74.4 There were a total of 11,869 Cyberball participants.

**Coding procedure**

The first author coded all the studies and conducted all the analyses. The third author double-checked a subset of the entire database, while the second author double-checked all 52 studies that entailed a full two-by-two design. The third author checked and reran the R code of all analyses. Finally, an extensive account of all coding decisions is publicly available via Open Science Framework on a paper-by-paper basis (see Footnote 2 for the direct link).

Group means and standard deviations were retrieved for both the first and last relevant measure in each study for effect size calculation. Relevant measures were defined as constructs that were expected by primary authors to show an ostracism effect (e.g., fundamental needs, mood, pro-social helping behavior, etc.). Coding that was crucial for testing the confirmatory hypotheses concerned the amount of items from the first through last measure plus any additional time in between (e.g., rest period). This made up the estimation of time from the first to last measure, where each item was counted as lasting six seconds (the six-second rule was based on a longstanding practice used to estimate average completion time in the freshmen testing program of the University of Amsterdam; e.g., Smits, Dolan, Vorst, Wicherts, & Timmerman, 2011). Any additional time reported in the procedure was also included. Note that some measures are variable on time (e.g., persistence tasks) and that these were arbitrarily estimated in a conservative manner to at least take these measures into account at some level.

The type of measure used was coded for in the following general terms: (1) fundamental needs, (2) intrapersonal, and (3) interpersonal. Intrapersonal measures were defined as measuring constructs that relate only to the self (e.g., *how angry do you feel?*, physiological measures, etc.). Interpersonal measures were defined as measuring constructs that relate to (the self and) others (e.g., *how angry do you feel towards person X?*, donations to charity, etc.). For the exploratory analyses, we coded sample characteristics (e.g., age, gender composition), Cyberball characteristics (e.g., amount of players, length of game), measure properties (e.g., intra- or interpersonal), and whether the first- and last measure fit the definition of immediate (i.e., during the game) or delayed (i.e., after the game/now), respectively.

Because relevant measures were defined broadly we included different kinds of measures that are expected to show different directions of an ostracism effect. For example, when compared to included participants belongingness scores are expected to be lower for ostracized participants, whereas retaliation scores are expected to be higher for ostracized participants. To counteract computational problems (i.e., cancellation of effects) being caused by this bidirectionality of ostracism effects, we coded the direction of the ostracism effect for each specific measure, such that negative effect sizes depict negative psychological effects. Moreover, in two-by-two designs in which the ostracism effect was crossed with another factor (i.e., a moderator), we coded for expected direction of that moderator. For example, in Table 1, we show hypothetical data for the four study designs that are possible when crossing direction of the effect and direction of the moderation. The relevant effect sizes should be corrected to attain comparable effect sizes across studies. Effect sizes for the simple ostracism effect (column wise) were corrected only for the type of measure. For instance, for panels (a) (involving, e.g., need threat) and (c) (involving, e.g., need satisfaction), the corrections entailed a multiplication with -1 or +1, respectively. Simple moderator effects (row wise comparisons) are interesting for understanding the effect of the moderator under either ostracism or inclusion. These simple moderator effects were corrected for both the type of measure *and* the expected moderation (i.e., exacerbation, -1, or minimization, +1). For example in panel (c), the 5 and 8 on the right are used to compute the *standard ostracism effect* (as in Williams et al., 2000), whereas the 3 and 8 in the left column represent an ostracism effect that is thought to be exacerbated. For example, in a given ostracism study with a two-by-two design, adolescents are expected to show stronger ostracism effects, compared to young adults (Pharo, Gross, Richardson, & Hayne, 2011). The 5 and 8 would subsequently represent the scores for the young adults, whereas the 3 and 8 would represent the scores for the young adolescents. In panel (d) we depict a study in which the *moderated* column is thought to lead to a minimal ostracism effect, as could be expected when Cyberball is played with members of a despised out-group (Gonsalkorale & Williams, 2007). The margins (greyed out) denote the simple effects, which are after correction comparable across all panels (a) through (d), indicating that this correction did what we intended it to.

Relevant information that was missing in the papers was requested from the authors via e-mail. In case of non-response, we sent three follow-up e-mails. All this communication was documented and can be found on the OSF page for this project. In case of non-response or non-willingness to send data, studies were either eliminated if the information was crucial (i.e., means and standard deviations of the measures per group), computed if possible (i.e., cell sizes), or assumed if deemed reasonable on the basis of additional information. For instance, when no information was given we considered the Cyberball manipulation characteristics to be similar to previous studies in the same paper or in earlier papers referred to in the paper.

**Statistical analyses**

For the analyses, we used the *metafor* package (Viechtbauer, 2010) in the R statistical environment (R Core Team, 2013).

**Effect size metric.** We used Hedges’s g version of the standardized mean differences as the effect size. Hedges’ g corrects for the slightly biased estimate given by Cohen’s d (Hedges, 1981). Standardized simple effects were calculated across the ostracism factor and the interaction effect was calculated by taking the standardized difference between the unstandardized main effects (see the Appendix for the exact formulae used). This was done for both the first and last dependent variable in each experiment. For example, in a 2 (social status: ostracized vs. included) by 2 (moderator: present vs. absent) design with multiple measures, we calculated two simple ostracism effects (Hypothesis 1) and two interaction effects (Hypothesis 2). Non-factorial studies delivered only simple effects for the first and last measure and no interactions.

**Meta-analytic model.** We used random- and mixed-effects models, since heterogeneity in the effect sizes is expected due to both the inclusion of different measures and additional unknown methodological and substantive factors. The meta-regression element in some of the analyses is the variable time as predictor of the ostracism effect. Analyses without this study-level predictor reduce to a random-effects model. We used Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) to estimate tau-squared (i.e., the residual variance), as recommended by Viechtbauer (2005). Note that when estimating a mixed- or random effects model, one does not estimate a single *true* effect, but rather the mean and variance of underlying effects (Viechtbauer, 2005).

**Sensitivity analyses.** To test for robustness of the effects, we incorporated several sensitivity analyses. We flagged possibly problematic outliers on the basis of studentized deleted residuals, Q-Q plots, and Cook’s distance values. Subsequently, we inspected the effect of these outliers on substantial results in sensitivity analyses in which these outliers were excluded. Another sensitivity analysis entailed fitting of the mixed-effects model with tau-squared fit at the upper bound value of the 95% confidence interval.

**Funnel plot asymmetry.** A funnel plot depicts each study’s effect size against its standard error (Light & Pillemer, 1984). Larger studies have smaller standard errors, and vice versa for smaller studies. Following from a theoretical fluctuation of the population effect size due to sampling variance, a funnel plot should be symmetrical around the estimated mean effect size. If there are no methodological or substantive reasons to expect a link between effect sizes and standard errors, funnel plot *asymmetry* can indicate publication bias (e.g., Bakker et al, 2012). To test funnel plot asymmetry, we used Egger’s regression test (Egger, Smith, Schneider, & Minder, 1997) for mixed-effects models (Sterne & Egger, 2005). This tests whether the distribution of effect sizes is equal on both sides of the average effect, when accounting for true heterogeneity. Funnel plot asymmetry thus indicates bias in the estimated mean effect size, and possibly publication bias.

**Results**

In our reporting of the effect sizes, *d* indicates a main effect and Δ*d* indicates an interaction effect. Even though Hedges’ *g* effect sizes were used, the notation of d was maintained, since it is only a minor correction to Cohen’s *d*. Sensitivity analyses are only reported if they showed different effects (all sensitivity analyses can be found on OSF).

**Primary hypotheses**

The two confirmatory hypotheses are tested in four meta-analyses, of which the study level effects are reported in Table 2. The table includes effect sizes used in the estimation of the average simple effect of ostracism on the first measure, the average simple effect on the last measure and the estimation of the average interaction effect on both the first and last measure.

**Simple ostracism effect (Hypothesis 1).** In a random-effects model on the main effect of ostracism (*k* = 120), residual heterogeneity was significant, *Q* (119) = 1395, *p* < .001, *I2* = 92.99% and estimated at τres2 = 0.90, 95% CI [0.70, 1.24]. The heterogeneity measure τres2 includes both the estimated proportion of variance explained by moderators at the study level and unexplained variance in the distribution of underlying effect sizes (i.e., τres2).The analysis yielded an estimated average effect of *d* = -1.36, p < .001, 95% CI [-1.54, -1.18]. A random-effects version of the Egger’s test (Sterne & Egger, 2005) indicated funnel plot asymmetry, *Z* = -6.14, *p* < .001. Due to the size of the average effect, and hence large power to acquire significant outcomes in primary studies, we do not suspect publication bias to explain this asymmetry. In other words, immediately after being ostracized, the average ostracism effect is estimated at -1.36 standard deviation units, which entails a large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Next, we fitted a mixed-effects regression model for the ostracism effect on the last measure (*k =* 95), including estimated time in seconds since completing the Cyberball game as predictor. Residual heterogeneity was significant, *QE* (93) = 803, *p* < .001 and estimated at τres2 = 0.38, 95% CI [0.27, 0.54]. The intercept was estimated at *dintercept*= -0.76, *p* < .001, 95% CI [-0.91, -0.61]. Contrary to our expectation, the estimated time in seconds failed to moderate the average effect, *b* = 0.0001, *p* = .187, 95% CI [-0.0001, 0.0003]. However, we have to take into consideration the low power of the moderation analyses due to the large (residual) heterogeneity in effect sizes (Hedges & Pigott, 2004). A regression test for mixed-effects model with moderator (i.e., including both the time and *SE* as predictor) showed no funnel plot asymmetry, *Z* = -0.72, *p* = .474. In short, long after ostracism has occurred (*Mtime* = 291.2 seconds), ostracized participants on average scored around -0.73 standard deviation units lower when compared with included participants, an effect that does not appear to be moderated further by time passed since the ostracism occurrence.

Thus, results show a clear effect of ostracism on both the first and last measures, of which the latter is *not* predicted by our operationalization of time. The ostracism effect over time can also be inspected via confidence intervals. Comparing the 95% confidence intervals for the average ostracism effect on the first measure (i.e., [-1.54, -1.18]) and on the last measure (i.e., [-0.91, -0.61]) showed no overlap. Although the difference in average effect sizes between first and last measure cannot be formally tested (because of a lack of information on the correlation between measures in the primary studies), the mean difference is sizeable and CIs suggest that the average ostracism effect is smaller for the last measure, as expected. Given the expected positive correlation between effects for first and last measures, the comparison of CIs is likely to be conservative (Schenker & Gentleman, 2001). Additionally, we noted that estimated residual heterogeneity was larger on the first- than on the last measure. We concluded that the average ostracism effects decreases from the first- to last measures, and that study-level effects are more similar on the last measure.

**Moderation of ostracism (Hypothesis 2).** To test moderation of the ostracism effect, we selected the factorial experiments that manipulated ostracism and another independent variable in between-subjects designs.A random-effects model on the interaction effect (Δ*d*) on the first measure (*k* = 52) showed heterogeneity in underlying effects, *Q* (51) = 103.24, *p* < .001, *I2* = 50.60% and an estimated τres2 = 0.19, 95% CI [0.07, 0.41]. The average interaction effect equaled Δ*d* = -0.46, *p* < .001, 95% CI [-0.64, -0.28], indicating a change in the ostracism effect due to the moderator level and vice versa (i.e., moderation of the ostracism effect). There was indication of funnel plot asymmetry in this analysis, *Z* = -2.43, *p* = .015. Thus, the data indicate that, across the board, the ostracism effect *can* be moderated on the first measure following the ostracism sequence, but it is possible that publication bias may have affected the interaction estimates.

On the last measure (*k* = 46), the mixed-effects model (with estimated time as predictor) for the interaction effect again showed residual heterogeneity, *QE*(44) = 100.82, *p* < .001 and estimated τres2 = 0.21, 95% CI [0.10, 0.55]. The intercept of the interaction effect was estimated at Δ*dintercept­* = -0.20, *p* = .052, 95% CI [-0.402, 0.002] and no significant moderation of time was found, *b* = 0.0002, *p* = .159, 95% CI [-0.0001, 0.0004]. The regression test with the time and SE as predictors showed no funnel plot asymmetry, *Z* = -0.68, *p* = .495. These results indicate that moderation of the average ostracism effect is *not* found at a later time-point in the included studies, and time itself does not moderate the computed interaction effects. However, sensitivity analyses showed that this interaction *was* significant when we removed three outliers based on studentized residuals, Δ*dintercept­* = -0.32, *p* = .029, 95% CI [-0.60, -0.03], whereas the regression coefficient time continued to be non-significant, *b* = 0.0002, *p* = .207, 95% CI [-0.0001, 0.0006]. On the last measure, this indicates that the non-significant interaction effect is sensitive to outliers in the data.

To see whether the interaction effects decreased from the first to the last measure, we again compared confidence intervals. On the first measure, the 95% CI was [-0.64, -0.28] whereas for the last measure, the 95% CI was [-0.402, 0.002]. Considering the overlap of these CIs, there is not enough evidence for an average reduction in the moderation across the measures examined.

**Secondary analyses**

In addition to the simple effects over all studies, we analyzed subsets of studies that differ in terms of measure type to study robustness of the effects. We also inspected whether sample composition, scale composition, and Cyberball specifics could predict the estimated effect size. Finally, we selected a homogeneous subset of studies to come to grips with the relatively large heterogeneity of simple main effects found in the confirmatory analyses.

**Measures.** To inspect the robustness of the estimates, we studied simple effects across several subsets of measures. These subsets encompassed fundamental needs (single- and composite needs), intrapersonal measures (i.e., measures that relate only to the self), interpersonal measures (i.e., measures that relate to others or the self in the context of others) and measures that were coded by the first two authors as fitting the description of being immediate or delayed (i.e., questions related to during- or after the game, respectively; shown in Figure 2 as *model*). We ran the analyses for the different measures for the two time points separately (i.e., first and last measure).

The different panels in Figure 2 show the results for the different simple effects per subset and overall; Table 3 summarizes the estimated interaction effects. A comparison of the results within each panel shows whether the overall results are robust and representative of all subsets, or whether there are nuances per type of measure. The main differences are notable in panels (1), (2) and (5). The first and second panels indicate that the effect of ostracism within both moderator levels is stronger for the subset of fundamental needs measures, and weaker for interpersonal measures. This indicates that in a similar factorial design, fundamental measures show stronger effects and interpersonal measures weaker effects. Panel 5 indicates that the moderation of interpersonal measures is stronger compared to the other subsets. This suggests that interpersonal measures are more subject to moderation, whereas the effects of ostracism on fundamental needs are larger initially. Additionally, for the subset of fundamental needs, we noted that the point estimated interactions (Table 3) follow the pattern predicted by the need-threat model (Williams, 2009): the first measures are moderated less than the last measures. These sensitivity analyses indicate that the results concerning interactions are sensitive to measures being fundamental needs or interpersonal. Because fundamental needs showed effects in the theorized direction, we explored this further by overlapping the subset of fundamental need measures with the model definition of immediate and delayed. Thus, we inspected the fundamental needs measures on both time points, which were coded as being truly immediate or delayed. Estimated interactions for this selection were Δ*d =* -0.37, 95% CI [-0.60, -0,14] (*k* = 29) and Δ*d =* -0.13, 95% CI [-0.53, 0.27] (*k* = 8) for the first and last measure, respectively. So in this particular subset of studies that use immediate or delayed fundamental needs measures, results are in line with Williams’s (2009) prediction.5

**Composition.** We ran a mixed-effects model on the ostracism effect (as in Hypothesis 1) for the composition effects, for both the first and the last measures. The predictors in the mixed effects model were (1) country (US, other Western country, Asian, other), (2) proportion of males in the study, (3) mean age of the sample, (4) number of players in the game, (5) length of the game (≤ 5min, 5-10 min or > 10 min), (6) the number of throws in the game and (7) type of needs scale referenced (by assigning unique values for every unique reference). This model (*k =* 45) showed clear residual heterogeneity, *QE* (33) = 450, *p* < .001, estimated τres2 = 0.90, 95% CI [0.54, 1.59], but no overall moderation, *QM* (11) = 10.75, *p* = .465. Inspecting the predictors individually also showed no indication for moderation (*p*s > .137; see Table 4). The different types of need scales (e.g., Van Beest & Williams, 2006; Williams, 2009; Zadro et al., 2004) did not significantly moderate effect sizes, showing psychometric convergence among the three scales (but not necessarily validity). On the last measure (*k* = 41), no overall moderation was found, *QM* (11) = 6.00, *p* = .873, but players in the game did significantly predict the effects, *b* = 1.55, *p* = .047, 95% CI [0.02; 3.07]. The significance of this individual predictor should be interpreted carefully, as the omnibus moderation test showed no systematic decrease in heterogeneity. In sum, these analyses showed considerable heterogeneity in the effect sizes, necessitating the moderators to have a very large influence on the effect (i.e., half a standard deviation at least) in order to be detectable. We found no indication for such moderation due to study composition.

**Homogeneity?** The analysis of the simple ostracism effect on the first measure showed that differences of underlying effects made up 93% of the variability in study outcomes. We performed an additional exploratory analysis in a more homogenous subset of studies to better understand this heterogeneity. This subset only included typical Cyberball studies that involved three players in the game, 30 throws, and lasted less than five minutes. In addition, the homogeneous subset of typical Cyberball studies only involved measures of immediate fundamental needs (single or composite). Performing a meta-analysis on this homogeneous subset of studies (*k =* 19) showed an *I2* value of 83%, indicating that 83% of the total variability is ascribable to heterogeneity in the effect sizes. We noted that the mean simple ostracism effect in these 19 studies was relatively strong and estimated at *d* = -2.05, 95% CI [-2.44, -1.65]. In other words, the heterogeneity found in the overall analyses does not appear to be an artifact from the inclusion of different measures and the use of alternative Cyberball setups.

In sum, the secondary analyses indicate several things. First, the effect of ostracism appears relatively large for fundamental needs, and somewhat weaker for the interpersonal measures. Second, interpersonal measures are also more prone to moderation of the ostracism effect. Third, the estimated interaction effect showed more moderation on the first measure, when compared to the second. The subset of fundamental needs showed interaction effects in line with the predictions of the theoretical model. Considering the relatively small size of the interaction effects, more powerful studies are needed to address this core prediction of the need-threat model (Williams, 2009). Fourth, there is substantial heterogeneity in the effect sizes, even when considering a homogeneous subset of studies in terms of the Cyberball game and measure of the ostracism effects. The latter result suggests that responses to ostracism are more variable than they have been construed until now.

**Discussion**

In this comprehensive meta-analysis of experimental ostracism studies with the Cyberball game, we focused on two confirmatory hypotheses based on theory as well as several exploratory hypotheses. Our results showed that the ostracism effect is quite large on average, but that it varies according to different factors. For the confirmatory hypotheses, two questions were central: (1) *does the effect size of ostracism decrease over time?* and (2) *does the average moderation of ostracism increase over time?* The results indicated a decrease in the effect from the first to the last measure, but that this is not moderated by the estimated time between first and last measure. Our analyses also showed that, across all studies, the variability of the simple ostracism effect was larger on the first measure (τres2 = 0.90, 95% CI [0.70, 1.24]) then on the last measure (τres2 = 0.38, 95% CI [0.27, 0.54]), see Figure 3 for visual depiction. Because reflexes are expected to be fairly homogeneous, one would expect relatively less study-level variability (instead of more) at a reflexive time point, compared to a reflective time point. So this difference in variability may suggest that the simple ostracism effect is less of a reflex than has been theorized previously (Williams, 2009). Nevertheless, the change in the effect size itself is in accordance Williams’s (2009) theory.

The average interaction effect was found on both the first and last measure, but on both occasions the effect was relatively weak. Simple effects indicated that, on average, the overall ostracism effect operates similarly on both levels of the moderator factor and that both effects are relatively large. At the same time, the moderator factor in the primary studies showed a mean positive effect within the ostracism level and a mean negative effect within the inclusion level. Both theses effects were relatively weak (*d* = 0.31 and *d* = -0.16, respectively). Substantively, this means that those in the moderated ostracism group average higher scores on measures such as fundamental needs, when compared to the non-moderated group, an effect that only holds for the first time point. Vice versa, the moderated inclusion group scores lower on measures such as fundamental needs, when compared to non-moderated inclusion, an effect which holds for both the first and last time point. This suggests that a factorial moderator decreases negative feelings in the ostracism conditions, but makes these feelings worse in the inclusion conditions. Substantively, this suggests that what makes the bad feel good, makes the good feel bad. For example, if we apply the findings to the factors ostracism (ostracized vs. included) and group status (outgroup vs. ingroup), the relative between-subjects effect of ostracism, compared to inclusion, is similar for both being ostracized by the outgroup *and* the ingroup, on the dependent measure need for control. However, those ostracized by the outgroup, show higher need for control than those ostracized by the ingroup (and vice versa for the included).

Cyberball studies can vary widely — they can differ in the amount of players, how the players are portrayed, etc. We investigated several structural elements and analyzed whether these reliably predicted the found effect size. These are summarized in Table 3, but we provide some additional descriptives below. Many questions can be raised, but we investigate six specific elements (i.e., culture/country, proportion of males, sample age, number of players, length of exclusion session, and need scale used) and found no indication that any of these reliably predicted the effect size found in the studies. Other questions (e.g., does composition of other players matter?) are not investigated, and warrant further research.

**Does number of players matter?** In the studies included in this meta-analysis, approximately 89% of the studies used the three-player version of Cyberball and 11% used the four-player version of Cyberball. We note that this is only the coded studies, and that there might be studies that use different amounts of players in the game. These did not predict effect sizes.

**Does gender of participants matter?** Results indicated that, contrary to other findings (Hawes et al., 2012), proportions of males and females does not significantly predict the found effect size. In our coded studies, the mean proportion of males was approximately 39%.

**Does culture or country matter?** We found no indication that culture had a systematic effect on the found effect size. In our coded studies, approximately 52% were from the United States, 45% from other Western countries (e.g., Australia, the Netherlands, Germany) and 3% from Asian countries. Our analyses used the United States as reference category. We note that the low prevalence of Asian countries might cause a lack of power, and that we cannot definitively state there is no difference between Western and Asian responses to ostracism. We *can* state that there is no systematic difference in the ostracism response for Western countries and the United States.

**Does age of participants matter?** Coded studies had a mean sample age of approximately 20.5 years, ranging from 10 through 32.5 years. This suggests that most of the research is done on young adults, but with some studies investigating children, adolescents and adults, but not on middle-aged participants or senior citizens. We note this is based on mean ages, and there thus might be several participants who fall outside the ranges, but which is not reflected in study level data.

**Does number of throws matter?** Of the coded studies, 60% used 30 throws, 11% used 40 throws, 8% used 20 throws, 4% used 60 throws, and 2% for both 15 and 24 throws. Other categories ranging from 10 through 200 make up the remaining percentages, each making up 1%. Our results indicated the effect is *not* predicted to be different across the different amounts of throws.

Exploratory analyses also showed that the majority of the results were robust across subsets of dependent measures and the overall set of dependent measures (see Figure 2). Exceptions were interpersonal measures showing relatively weak ostracism effects, while fundamental need measures showed somewhat stronger ostracism effects on the first measure. This suggests that psychological effects of ostracism are large, but that this effect is smaller for interpersonal behaviors. On top of this, interpersonal measures also show more moderation, suggesting that interpersonal behaviors caused by ostracism are more easily moderated. Additionally, we estimated interactions for the measure subsets interpersonal (i.e., measures relating to others), intrapersonal (measures relating to the self), fundamental needs, model (i.e., first measure is reflexive and last measure is reflective) and an overlap of the previous two. For all but two, these subsets showed that the first time point was moderated more than the last. Diverging from these results were the analyses including only fundamental needs. These analyses showed that moderation was larger at the last time point, when compared to the first time point. This difference is crucial, as model predictions specifically relate to the fundamental needs, and specifically predict this pattern for these measures. Our overall test is an extrapolation of this idea. Hence, we can reliably state there are interactions on both time points, but cannot make any general conclusions as to how they relate, as results show some sensitivity to subset analyses. In sum, the exploratory analyses showed the effects of ostracism and its moderation are robust, except for three deviations, where interpersonal measures show smaller- and fundamental needs larger ostracism effects, and fundamental needs also show less moderation on the first time point than on the last.

**Williams’s Model of Ostracism: Supported or Not?**

Regarding the test of Williams’s (2009) model, there are a few important observations and limitations. First, Williams proposed fundamental need threat as a result of even a brief episode of ostracism. This was supported by the meta-analysis. The model asserts that negative emotional reactions (i.e., sadness and anger) are also induced by ostracism, and this proposition was contested by Blackhart et al.’s (2009) meta-analysis in which they argued for affective numbness. Unfortunately, this was not explicitly tested in the present analysis. That moderation is predicted to occur in the reflective stage, when the context and meaning of the ostracism event can be appraised, is tested and supported by the present meta-analysis. The final stage of Williams’s model—resignation—is outside the aims of the present meta-analysis, because it requires long-term exposure to ostracism. Thus, most propositions set forth in Williams’s model that were tested within this meta-analysis, were supported.

The proposition that appears to lack support from this meta-analysis is that reflexive reactions to ostracism are more resistant to moderation than reflective reactions. Across the board, our results indicate there is more moderation on the first time point than on the last time point. However, there are two limitations to this conclusion. Firstly, Williams specifically refers to physiological, online, or immediate retrospective reports to assess reflexive reactions. In many instances in this meta-analysis, the *first* reaction is not isomorphic with reflexive measures. Anything taken after the game, or assessed by wording indicating present state (rather than the participants’ state during the game), is not assumed to be reflexive, nor predicted to be resistant to moderation. Secondly, Williams’s proposition is restricted to fundamental needs only. Indeed, our specific analyses involving only studies that employed measures of immediate and delayed fundamental need satisfaction corroborated the model prediction that there is more moderation on the last time point, than on the first time point.

Because of this quantitative difference in moderation across measures, we encourage direct testing of this time difference in moderation as predicted by Williams (2009), just as Bernstein and Claypool (2012) was a direct, experimental test of a finding by Gerber and Wheeler (2009). Using our estimated interaction effects to determine sample size under a power of .8, a sample size of 2186 would be necessary to have sufficient power on both time points.6 Note that the mean sample size in full factorial designs in our meta-analysis is 110, showing that the mean post-hoc power in these studies is .08 to detect an *interaction* at the last time point (n.b., power for the standard ostracism effect is highly sufficient in the included studies, due to the large effect). One possibility is for an interuniversity consortium to conduct such a study. Based on our estimates, such a powerful study is a necessity to learn more about how moderation between time points compare.

**Changes to the need-threat model of ostracism in reaction to the results of our meta-analysis.** As a result of our findings, we suggest that the temporal need-threat model of ostracism should be modified. Firstly, it should be recognized that there is potential for moderation in Stage 1 in which researchers take immediate measures of impact that tap into participants’ reactions during the game. If factors can reduce physical pain and distress, like for instance, acetaminophen (DeWall et al, 2010)or transcranial magnetic stimulation (Riva et al., 2012, or if certain populations are less likely to feel pain (e.g., those higher in psychopathy; Wirth et al, 2010), then we would also expect moderation of immediate measures of distress. Secondly, *how long after the ostracism episode occurred* is likely to be crucial as to whether they show more or less moderation. For example, if researchers wait long enough before administering the delayed need satisfaction measures, it becomes more likely that *all* participants will have recovered from the negative impact of ostracism, thus resulting in a homogeneous (and highly satisfied) between-group result. The opportunity to discover moderation has, essentially, passed, leaving a very homogenous self-report of high need-satisfaction. Thus, differences in recovery from ostracism based upon social-situational factors and/or personality differences, if any, occur somewhere between initial pain and final recovery. It is difficult to predict exactly when that time period is. Zadro et al. (2006) report delayed recovery by those high in social anxiety 45-minutes later. Other studies show full recovery within 5-10 minutes. Future research needs to examine the time course more carefully, to determine if and when moderation occurs in delayed measures.

**Limitations**

Within the current meta-analysis there are several limitations. First, our test of differences between the first and last measure was indirect. In its current setting, the meta-analysis makes comparisons between the first and last measures based upon the confidence intervals of these estimates. This is an indirect and informal test of whether the effects differ. A direct test would provide more conclusive evidence on whether or not the effect is equal across the first and last measurements. However, such a direct test requires correlations between the measurements per study, per cell, which are (usually) not reported in papers. This would thus require a direct request for data from each paper, which would possibly yield low response rates (Wicherts, Borsboom, Kats, & Molenaar, 2006), lowering the sample size of the meta-analysis overall.7 This lack of direct testing was thus chosen as a way of retaining sample size within the meta-analysis.

Second, not all measures were included and tested in a repeated-measures meta-analysis. Initially, a pre-test was run including all measures, but this showed that many papers did not include all statistics required for all measures. Requesting all of this information from the authors yielded a limitation that was similar to the first: a trade-off between retaining a sufficiently large set of studies and comprehensiveness. Another reason for only including the first and last measures was that every measure would require two separate meta-analyses to test both the main- and interaction effect (increasing Type I error rates) if a similar analytical model was used. If all measures were included, it would increase the importance of including a statistical correction due to correlations between measures, to facilitate repeated-measures analyses to minimize Type I error rates. In other words, the failure to include all measures was to prevent the problem of multiple testing and nonresponse to data requests, which would lead to a smaller set of useful studies and hence less powerful analyses.

Third, random (non-systematic) heterogeneity in the effect sizes poses a problem for the power of finding moderator effects (Hedges & Pigott, 2004). This could pose the problem that several of the non-effects found are actually there, but not detected (Type II errors). However, the subset of typical Cyberball studies still showed substantial variability in the effect sizes: *I2* = 83%. This indicates that the effects are quite variable to begin with, and makes it unlikely that the effects are misrepresented.

Additionally, the specific null-effect of time as a predictor could be due to one of three reasons. First, the (random) heterogeneity in the effect sizes was too large to find moderation by time. Second, imprecise reporting of the measures in the papers led to inaccurate time estimations. Third, the difference in the effect size was not due to time but differences between the types of measures administered at the different time points. For the imprecise reporting of the measures, authors could be contacted, but this also poses new problems (i.e., nonresponse, or authors might not be willing to admit that measures were left out in the paper; LeBel et al., 2013). The difference in measures can be inspected by creating a difference index between the types of measures and regressing the effect sizes on that index. Doing this for the standard ostracism effect on the last measure, showed no significant predictive effect of this difference (*b* = -0.03, *p* = .531), indicating that the effect is not driven by difference in measures on the first and last time point. In short, there are some limitations of the analyses with time as a moderator, but these limitations are either hard to address (i.e., imprecise reporting or heterogeneity), or the data indicates the opposite (i.e., difference in measures). Inspecting whether the types of measures used across all studies are different, and not the difference within a study, shows that these are similarly distributed across time-points (maximum discrepancy of 4.9 percentage points). Substantive differences in proportions of measures across time points are minimal, and form an unlikely driving force for our findings. In sum, we conclude that the findings are not an artifact of selecting the first and last measures.

Fourth, the current meta-analysis only examined between-subjects designs. Possibly there is a difference for the ostracism effect in between- and within-subjects designs, something that we have not directly investigated. Also, the within-subjects designs often used fMRI data or other physiological data such as EEG (27 out of 49 at least), which pose an interesting avenue for further research in a meta-analytic domain of neurophysiological measures to add to the work of Cacioppo et al. (2013) within the physiological framework. These references can easily be retrieved from the database of examined papers, as is available on the OSF page of this paper. Additionally, the fact that we only include between-subjects designs does not allow for inspection of the moderating effects of personality, as these are continuous measures and cannot be fit into a between-subjects.

A final note is that this paper only summarized the results of the measures included in the studies. However obvious this might be, it should be pointed out, because the validity of the conclusions are reliant on the validity of the measures. Most prominently represented in the current meta-analysis are the fundamental need measures, which have no proper psychometric validation up-to-date, notwithstanding their wide use.Other kinds of included measures possibly have the same, and one has been openly criticized (e.g., the Hot Sauce aggression paradigm; Ritter & Eslea, 2005). We note that results in this paper are conditional on that these measures *are* valid.

**Conclusion**

Our results show that the ostracism effect is large, with a mean effect size approaching 1.5 standard deviation units. Moreover, the results show that the impact of ostracism decreases from first to last measure. We estimated a relatively weak interaction effect, which has been studied in underpowered settings until now. More powerful studies are required to reach more direct and definitive conclusions, with respect to these interactions. In addition, the large heterogeneity in the study effect sizes (even in a homogeneous subset of studies) highlights that there are more potentially relevant moderators of ostracism in need of further study, and raises the question whether the immediate ostracism effect (as operationalized in our analyses) is actually as reflexive as has been previously proposed. These findings support and extend the need-threat model (Williams, 2009), which has played a major role in ostracism research. We invite fellow researchers to think and test ideas that might provide some explanation for these findings, including reanalysis of our data.

References

References marked with an asterisk indicate studies included in the meta-analysis.

Bakker, M., van Dijk, A., & Wicherts, J. M. (2012). The rules of the game called psychological science. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 7*, 543-554. doi: 10.1177/1745691612459060

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*, 497-529. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.117.3.497

Baumeister, R. F., Twenge, J. M., & Nuss, C. K. (2002). Effects of social exclusion on cognitive processes: Anticipated aloneness reduces intelligent thought. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 817–827. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.83.4.817

Bernstein, M. J., & Claypool, H. M. (2012). Not all social exclusions are created equal: Emotional distress following social exclusion is moderated by exclusion paradigm. *Social Influence*, *7*, 113–130. doi: 10.1080/15534510.2012.664326

Blackhart, G. C., Nelson, B. C., Knowles, M. L., & Baumeister, R. F. (2009). Rejection elicits emotional reactions but neither causes immediate distress nor lowers self-esteem: a meta-analytic review of 192 studies on social exclusion. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *13*, 269–309. doi: 10.1177/1088868309346065

Borenstein, M. (2009). Effect sizes for continuous data. In H. Cooper, L. V. Hedges, & J. C. Valentine (Eds.), *The handbook of research synthesis and meta-analysis* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

\*Boyes, M. E., & French, D. J. (2009). Having a Cyberball: Using a ball-throwing game as an experimental social stressor to examine the relationship between neuroticism and coping. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *47*, 396–401. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2009.04.005

Cacioppo, S., Frum, C., Asp, E., Weiss, R. M., Lewis, J. W., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2013). A Quantitative Meta-Analysis of Functional Imaging Studies of Social Rejection. *Scientific Reports*, *3*. doi: 10.1038/srep02027

\*Carter‐Sowell, A. R., Chen, Z., & Williams, K. D. (2008). Ostracism increases social susceptibility. *Social Influence, 3*, 143-153. doi: 10.1080/15534510802204868

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd Ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Craighead, W. E., Kimball, W. H., & Rehak, P. J. (1979). Mood changes, physiological responses, and self-statements during social rejection imagery. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 47*, 385-396. doi: 10.1037/0022-006X.47.2.385

DeWall, C. N., MacDonald, G., Webster, G. D., Masten, C. L., Baumeister, R. F., Powell, C., ... & Eisenberger, N. I. (2010). Acetaminophen reduces social pain behavioral and neural evidence. *Psychological Science, 21*, 931-937. doi: 10.1177/0956797610374741

Egger, M., Smith, G. D., Schneider, M., & Minder, C. (1997). Bias in meta-analysis detected by a simple, graphical test. *BMJ*, *315*, 629–634. doi: 10.1136/bmj.315.7109.629

Eisenberger, N. I., & Lieberman, M. D. (2004). Why rejection hurts: a common neural alarm system for physical and social pain. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *8*, 294-300. doi: 10.1016/j.tics.2004.05.010

Gerber, J., & Wheeler, L. (2009). On Being Rejected: A Meta-Analysis of Experimental Research on Rejection. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *4*, 468–488. doi: 10.1111/j.1745-6924.2009.01158.x

\*Gonsalkorale, K., & Williams, K. D. (2007). The KKK won’t let me play: ostracism even by a despised outgroup hurts. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *37*, 1176–1186. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.392

\*Goodwin, S. A., Williams, K. D., & Carter-Sowell, A. R. (2010). The psychological sting of stigma: The costs of attributing ostracism to racism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*, 612–618. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2010.02.002

Haselton, M. G., & Buss, D. M. (2000). Error management theory: a new perspective on biases in cross-sex mind reading. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*, 81. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.78.1.81

\*Hawes, D. J., Zadro, L., Fink, E., Richardson, R., O’Moore, K., Griffiths, B., … Williams, K. D. (2012). The effects of peer ostracism on children’s cognitive processes. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, *9*, 599–613. doi: 10.1080/17405629.2011.638815

Hedges., L.V. (1981). Distribution theory for Glass’s estimator of effect size and related estimators. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics*, *6*, 107–128. doi: 10.3102/10769986006002107

Hedges, L. V, & Pigott, T. D. (2004). The power of statistical tests for moderators in meta-analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *9*, 426–445. doi: 10.1037/1082-989X.9.4.426

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture’s consequences: International differences in work-related values.* London, UK: Sage.

Hunter, J. E., & Schmidt, F. L. (1990). Dichotomization of Continuous Variables: The Implications for Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*, 334–349. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.75.3.334

Iannetti, G. D., Salomons, T. V., Moayedi, M., Mouraux, A., & Davis, K. D. (2013). Broken hearts and broken bones: contrasting mechanisms of social and physical pain. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *17*, 371-378. doi: 10.1016/j.tics.2013.06.002

\*IJzerman, H., Gallucci, M., Pouw, W. T., Weiβgerber, S. C., Van Doesum, N. J., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Cold-blooded loneliness: Social exclusion leads to lower skin temperatures. *Acta Psychologica*, *140*, 283-288. doi: 10.1016/j.actpsy.2012.05.002

Leary, M. R., Kowalski, R. M., Smith, L., & Phillips, S. (2003). Teasing, rejection, and violence: Case studies of the school shootings. *Aggressive Behavior*, *29*, 202–214. doi: 10.1002/ab.10061

LeBel, E. P., Borsboom, D., Giner-Sorolla, R., Hasselman, F., Peters, K. R., Ratliff, K. A., & Smith, C. T. (2013). PsychDisclosure.org: Grassroots Support for Reforming Reporting Standards in Psychology. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *8*, 424–432. doi: 10.1177/1745691613491437

Light, R. J., & Pillemer, D. B. (1984). *Summing up: the science of reviewing research.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

\*Lustenberger, D. E., & Jagacinski, C. M. (2010). Exploring the Effects of Ostracism on Performance and Intrinsic Motivation. *Human Performance*, *23*, 283–304. doi: 10.1080/08959285.2010.501046

MacCallum, R. C., Zhang, S., Preacher, K. J., & Rucker, D. D. (2002). On the practice of dichotomization of quantitative variables. *Psychological Methods*, *7*, 19–40. doi: 10.1037//1082-989X.7.1.19

MacDonald, G., & Leary, M. R. (2005). Why does social exclusion hurt? The relationship between social and physical pain. *Psychological Bulletin*, *131*, 202-223. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.131.2.202

Nezlek, J. B., Kowalski, R. M., Leary, M. R., Blevins, T., & Holgate, S. (1997). Personality moderators of reactions to interpersonal rejection: Depression and trait self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *23*, 1235-1244. doi: 10.1177/01461672972312001

Oaten, M., Williams, K. D., Jones, A., & Zadro, L. (2008). The effects of ostracism on self-regulation in the socially anxious. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *27*, 471–504. doi: 10.1521/jscp.2008.27.5.471

\*Pharo, H., Gross, J., Richardson, R., & Hayne, H. (2011). Age-related changes in the effect of ostracism. *Social Influence*, *6*, 22–38. doi: 10.1080/15534510.2010.525852

R Core Team. (2013). R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Vienna, Austria. Retrieved from http://www.r-project.org/

Ritter, D., & Eslea, M. (2005). Hot Sauce, toy guns, and graffiti: A critical account of current laboratory aggression paradigms. *Aggressive Behavior*, *31*, 407–419. doi: 10.1002/ab.20066

Riva, P., Lauro, L. J. R., DeWall, C. N., & Bushman, B. J. (2012). Buffer the Pain Away Stimulating the Right Ventrolateral Prefrontal Cortex Reduces Pain Following Social Exclusion. *Psychological Science, 23*, 1473-1475. doi: 10.1177/0956797612450894

\*Schaafsma, J., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Exclusion, intergroup hostility, and religious fundamentalism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*, 829–837. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2012.02.015

Schenker, N., & Gentleman, J. F. (2001). On judging the significance of differences by examining the overlap between confidence intervals. *The American Statistician*, *55*, 182-186. doi: 10.1198/000313001317097960

Smits, I. A. M., Dolan, C. V, Vorst, H., Wicherts, J. M., & Timmerman, M. E. (2011). Cohort differences in Big Five personality factors over a period of 25 years. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *100*, 1124–1138. doi: 10.1037/a0022874

Sterne, J. A. C., & Egger, M. (2005). Regression Methods to Detect Publication and Other Bias in Meta-Analysis. In H. R. Rothstein, A. J. Sutton, & M. Borenstein (Eds.), *Publication bias in meta-analysis*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

\*Van Beest, I., Carter-Sowell, A. R., van Dijk, E., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Groups being ostracized by groups: Is the pain shared, is recovery quicker, and are groups more likely to be aggressive? *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *16*, 241–254. doi: 10.1037/a0030104

\*Van Beest, I., & Williams, K. D. (2006). When inclusion costs and ostracism pays, ostracism still hurts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *91*, 918–928. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.91.5.918

Viechtbauer, W. (2005). Bias and Efficiency of Meta-Analytic Variance Estimators in the Random-Effects Model. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics*, *30*, 261–293. doi: 10.3102/10769986030003261

Viechtbauer, Wolfgang. (2010). Conducting meta-analyses in R with the metafor package. *Journal of Statistical Software*, *36*, 1–48.

Wicherts, J. M., Borsboom, D., Kats, J., & Molenaar, D. (2006). The poor availability of psychological research data for reanalysis. *The American Psychologist*, *61*, 726–8. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.61.7.726

\*Wirth, J. H., Lynam, D. R., & Williams, K. D. (2010). When social pain is not automatic: Personality disorder traits buffer ostracism’s immediate negative impact. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *44*, 397–401. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2010.03.001

\*Williams, K D, Cheung, C. K., & Choi, W. (2000). Cyberostracism: effects of being ignored over the Internet. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *79*, 748–62. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.79.5.748

Williams, K.D. (2009). Ostracism: a temporal need-threat model. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *41*, 275–314. doi: 10.1016/S0065-2601(08)00406-1

Williams, Kipling D., & Jarvis, B. (2006). Cyberball: A program for use in research on interpersonal ostracism and acceptance. *Behavior Research Methods*, *38*, 174–180. doi: 10.3758/BF03192765

\*Wirth, J. H., & Williams, K. D. (2009). `They Don’t Like Our Kind': Consequences of Being Ostracized While Possessing a Group Membership. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *12*, 111–127. doi: 10.1177/1368430208098780

\*Zadro, L., Boland, C., & Richardson, R. (2006). How long does it last? The persistence of the effects of ostracism in the socially anxious. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *42*, 692–697. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2005.10.007

\*Zadro, L., Williams, K. D., & Richardson, R. (2004). How low can you go? Ostracism by a computer is sufficient to lower self-reported levels of belonging, control, self-esteem, and meaningful existence. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *40*, 560–567. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2003.11.006

**Footnotes**

1. Note that exclusion encompasses both social rejection and social ostracism.
2. The direct link: <https://osf.io/ht25n/>
3. It has been updated since, but the list that was used can be found on the Open Science Framework page.
4. Oaten, Williams, Jones and Zadro (2008) was applicable, but was excluded due to being an outlier with respect to effect size (*d*s > 15). This in similar vein as in Gerber and Wheeler (2009; p. 473): “*One study (Oaten, Williams, Jones, & Zadro, 2007) had need effect sizes that were clear outliers (effect sizes were 5–7 standard deviations above the means)* […and…] *were excluded from the analyses.*”
5. Inspecting studies that explicitly test the temporal need threat-model on only immediate measures (Goodwin, Williams, & Carter-Sowell, 2010; Schaafsma & Williams, 2012; Wirth & Williams, 2009; Zadro, Boland, & Richardson, 2006) showed that interaction was similar on the first and last time point, as predicted by the model for immediate only.
6. We used G\*Power 3.1.7 to calculate this between-subjects interaction effect (*F*-test, fixed effects, .8 power); with *k* = 4 and the smaller interaction (last time point; numerator *df* = *k –* 1). The effect size Δ*d*  was transformed in to *f* by means of √[*d2*/(2*k*)], resulting in *f* = .0707.
7. Note that out of the 72 data requests, we received timely replies of 52 (i.e., ~72%). However, these requests were only for specific information and not for raw datasets, as was the case in Wicherts et al. (2006).

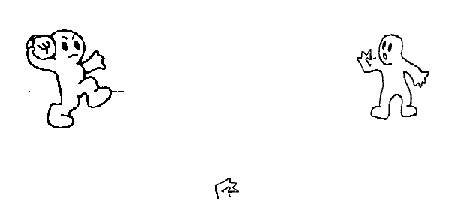
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Table 1 - Hypothetical data example of coding correction | | | | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (a) Negative moderator, negative measure | | | |  |  | (b) Positive moderator, negative measure | | | |  |  |
|  |  | Moderated | Not-moderated/control | Raw | Correct |  |  | Moderated | Not-moderated/control | Raw | Correct |
| Ostracism factor | Ostracism | 13 | 11 | 2 | 2 | Ostracism factor | Ostracism | 9 | 11 | -2 | 2 |
|  | Inclusion | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 |  | Inclusion | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
|  | Raw | 5 | 3 |  |  |  | Raw | 1 | 3 |  |  |
|  | Correct | -5 | -3 |  |  |  | Correct | -1 | -3 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (c) Negative moderator, positive measure | | | |  |  | (d) Positive moderator, positive measure | | | |  |  |
|  |  | Moderated | Not-moderated/control | Raw | Correct |  |  | Moderated | Not-moderated/control | Raw | Correct |
| Ostracism factor | Ostracism | 3 | 5 | -2 | 2 | Ostracism factor | Ostracism | 7 | 5 | 2 | 2 |
|  | Inclusion | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 |  | Inclusion | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
|  | Raw | -5 | -3 |  |  |  | Raw | -1 | -3 |  |  |
|  | Correct | -5 | -3 |  |  |  | Correct | -1 | -3 |  |  |
| Note: raw denotes the simple effect in the hypothetical data before correction whereas correct denotes the simple effect after correction. Column wise effects are multiplied by the type of measure only, whereas column wise effects are multiplied by both the type of moderator and type of measure. | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Table 2 – Effect sizes per study for the confirmatory hypotheses | | | | | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| First author | Year | *N* | *d* T1 | (*SE*) | *d* T2 | (*SE*) | Δ*d* T1 | (*SE*) | Δ*d* T2 | (*SE*) |
| Alvares | 2010 | 74 | -1.21 | 0.12 | -0.10 | 0.10 | -0.15 | 0.24 | 1.12 | 0.23 |
| Ambrosini | 2013 | 40 | -1.69 | 0.13 | -0.97 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - |
| Anonymous | - | 49 | -3.97 | 0.24 | -1.32 | 0.10 | - | - | - | - |
| Anonymous | - | 91 | -3.17 | 0.20 | -0.48 | 0.09 | 0.75 | 0.56 | 0.53 | 0.18 |
| Aydin | 2012 | 68 | -0.95 | 0.13 | -0.40 | 0.12 | -1.19 | 0.24 | 0.72 | 0.23 |
| Banki | 2012 | 89 | -1.87 | 0.07 | -0.35 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| Bastian | 2010 | 72 | -2.75 | 0.11 | -1.42 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Bernstein | 2012 | 24 | -0.41 | 0.16 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Bernstein | 2012 | 25.50 | -1.04 | 0.17 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Bernstein | 2010 | 73 | -1.63 | 0.16 | -1.63 | 0.16 | -0.86 | 0.37 | -1.11 | 0.40 |
| Bernstein | 2010 | 138 | -2.67 | 0.10 | -1.96 | 0.08 | -0.53 | 0.22 | -0.51 | 0.17 |
| Bernstein | 2012 | 67 | -2.00 | 0.17 | -0.99 | 0.13 | -1.07 | 0.45 | -0.80 | 0.30 |
| Bernstein | 2012 | 27 | -1.39 | 0.17 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Boyes | 2009 | 89 | -0.43 | 0.05 | -0.80 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| Boyes | 2009 | 87 | -0.20 | 0.05 | -0.84 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| Brochu | - | 35 | -2.51 | 0.20 | -0.48 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - |
| Brown | 2009 | 52 | -0.64 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Carter | 2008 | 143 | -0.28 | 0.06 | 0.20 | 0.06 | 0.34 | 0.11 | 0.17 | 0.11 |
| Carter-Sowell | 2008 | 65 | -2.86 | 0.12 | -1.48 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - |
| Carter-Sowell | 2010 | 74 | -1.60 | 0.14 | -1.49 | 0.13 | -1.23 | 0.33 | -1.15 | 0.34 |
| Carter-Sowell | 2010 | 70.67 | -2.09 | 0.17 | -0.56 | 0.11 | -0.65 | 0.39 | -0.63 | 0.24 |
| Chen | 2012 | 60 | -1.04 | 0.14 | - | - | -1.35 | 0.27 | - | - |
| Chen | 2012 | 83 | -1.32 | 0.11 | - | - | -1.32 | 0.21 | - | - |
| Chernyak | 2010 | 76 | -1.52 | 0.10 | 0.15 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - |
| Chow | 2008 | 75 | -1.20 | 0.06 | -1.31 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - |
| Chrisp | 2012 | 77 | -0.70 | 0.06 | -0.15 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| Coyne | 2011 | 40 | -0.56 | 0.10 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| De Waal-Andrews | 2012 | 136 | -3.55 | 0.16 | -2.55 | 0.11 | -1.29 | 0.24 | -0.87 | 0.18 |
| De Waal-Andrews | 2012 | 112 | -4.21 | 0.22 | -2.17 | 0.11 | -1.56 | 0.31 | -1.20 | 0.18 |
| DeBono | - | 57 | -1.07 | 0.15 | -0.05 | 0.13 | -1.55 | 0.29 | -0.48 | 0.27 |
| DeBono | - | 81 | -1.07 | 0.11 | -0.10 | 0.09 | -0.33 | 0.21 | 0.24 | 0.19 |
| DeBono | - | 83 | -0.13 | 0.09 | - | - | -0.75 | 0.19 | - | - |
| Dietrich | 2010 | 75 | 1.43 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Duclos | 2012 | 59 | -0.63 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Eisenberger | 2006 | 48 | -0.15 | 0.08 | -1.24 | 0.10 | - | - | - | - |
| Fayant | - | 60 | -2.04 | 0.20 | -1.12 | 0.15 | 0.22 | 0.38 | -0.44 | 0.28 |
| Floor | 2007 | 88 | -1.92 | 0.13 | -0.73 | 0.09 | -0.21 | 0.28 | -0.59 | 0.19 |
| Gallardo-Pujol | 2012 | 57 | -1.18 | 0.16 | -0.52 | 0.15 | -1.17 | 0.31 | 0.11 | 0.29 |
| Gan | 2012 | 72 | -0.54 | 0.03 | -0.07 | 0.03 | -0.62 | 0.06 | 0.02 | 0.06 |
| Garczynski | 2013 | 83 | -1.51 | 0.19 | 0.39 | 0.15 | -1.29 | 0.33 | -0.01 | 0.29 |
| Geniole | 2011 | 74 | 0.19 | 0.06 | -0.11 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - |
| Gerber | - | 38 | -2.09 | 0.16 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Gerber | - | 89 | -3.38 | 0.21 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Gonsalkorale | 2007 | 97 | -1.31 | 0.14 | 0.26 | 0.12 | 0.49 | 0.30 | 1.31 | 0.25 |
| Goodwin | 2010 | 300 | -1.81 | 0.04 | -0.94 | 0.03 | 0.20 | 0.08 | -0.43 | 0.07 |
| Goodwin | 2010 | 314 | 0.13 | 0.02 | -0.09 | 0.02 | 0.35 | 0.06 | -0.10 | 0.06 |
| Greitemeyer | 2012 | 56 | -0.48 | 0.07 | -0.23 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Gruijters | - | 113 | -0.26 | 0.06 | -1.07 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Hackenbracht | 2013 | 51 | -1.92 | 0.11 | -0.18 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - |
| Hawes | 2012 | 55 | -2.16 | 0.23 | 0.69 | 0.15 | 0.00 | 0.38 | -1.05 | 0.28 |
| Hellmann | - | 76 | -1.21 | 0.12 | 0.19 | 0.10 | -1.40 | 0.22 | 0.74 | 0.21 |
| Hess | 2010 | 162 | -2.34 | 0.04 | -0.87 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - |
| Hess | 2011 | 38 | -0.64 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Horn | - | 68 | -0.77 | 0.12 | -0.99 | 0.13 | -0.99 | 0.23 | 1.49 | 0.24 |
| IJzerman | 2012 | 86 | -1.67 | 0.12 | - | - | -1.07 | 0.22 | - | - |
| Jamieson | 2010 | 33 | -1.56 | 0.15 | -1.06 | 0.13 | - | - | - | - |
| Jamieson | 2010 | 68 | -1.94 | 0.09 | -1.47 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Johnson | 2010 | 104 | -0.73 | 0.04 | -0.79 | 0.04 | - | - | - | - |
| Kassner | - | 85 | -1.72 | 0.13 | -1.02 | 0.11 | -0.87 | 0.31 | -0.30 | 0.21 |
| Kassner | 2012 | 49 | -2.11 | 0.12 | -1.78 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - |
| Kerr | 2008 | 250 | -1.66 | 0.02 | -0.05 | 0.02 | - | - | - | - |
| Kesting | 2013 | 76 | -0.28 | 0.05 | -0.79 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - |
| Knowles | 2010 | 62 | -0.38 | 0.12 | - | - | -0.99 | 0.25 | - | - |
| Knowles | 2012 | 60 | -0.60 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Krijnen | 2008 | 144 | -4.74 | 0.11 | -0.18 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - |
| Krill | 2008 | 119 | -2.11 | 0.05 | -0.57 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - |
| Lakin | 2008 | 36 | -1.53 | 0.14 | -0.51 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - |
| Lau | 2009 | 56 | -2.50 | 0.23 | -1.09 | 0.15 | -0.06 | 0.58 | 1.36 | 0.46 |
| Lustenberger | 2010 | 71 | -0.83 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - |
| Lustenberger | 2010 | 156 | -0.70 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| MacDonald | 2008 | 63 | -0.15 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| McDonald | 2012 | 270 | -0.06 | 0.02 | -2.40 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - |
| Nordgren | 2011 | 71 | -0.74 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Nordgren | 2011 | 74 | -0.80 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Nordgren | 2011 | 46 | -2.24 | 0.14 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Nordgren | 2011 | 44.67 | -0.55 | 0.09 | -0.75 | 0.09 | - | - | - | - |
| Nordgren | 2011 | 58.67 | -0.65 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Oberleitner | 2012 | 88 | -2.36 | 0.08 | 0.42 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| O’Brien | 2012 | 125 | -0.58 | 0.03 | -0.69 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - |
| Peterson | 2011 | 40 | -0.89 | 0.11 | -0.91 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - |
| Pharo | 2011 | 74 | -1.33 | 0.13 | -0.58 | 0.11 | -1.01 | 0.30 | -0.84 | 0.23 |
| Plaisier | 2012 | 149 | -0.36 | 0.05 | 0.23 | 0.05 | -0.40 | 0.11 | -0.56 | 0.11 |
| Ramirez | 2009 | 121 | -2.26 | 0.05 | -1.02 | 0.04 | - | - | - | - |
| Ren | 2012 | 53 | -2.18 | 0.12 | -0.17 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Renneberg | 2011 | 60 | -1.46 | 0.16 | -1.30 | 0.15 | 0.47 | 0.29 | 0.51 | 0.29 |
| Riva | 2011 | 100 | -2.10 | 0.13 | -1.09 | 0.09 | - | - | - | - |
| Ruggieri | - | 91 | -0.39 | 0.04 | -0.57 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| Ruggieri | - | 74 | -0.06 | 0.13 | -0.23 | 0.13 | -0.31 | 0.24 | -0.68 | 0.23 |
| Sacco | 2011 | 51 | -2.40 | 0.13 | -1.45 | 0.10 | - | - | - | - |
| Sacco | 2011 | 21 | -2.28 | 0.29 | -1.46 | 0.22 | - | - | - | - |
| Sacco | 2011 | 38 | -1.74 | 0.14 | -1.04 | 0.11 | - | - | - | - |
| Salvy | 2010 | 59 | -1.45 | 0.08 | -1.43 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - |
| Salvy | 2009 | 103 | -1.48 | 0.05 | -1.31 | 0.05 | - | - | - | - |
| Schaafsma | 2012 | 720 | -1.42 | 0.02 | -0.49 | 0.02 | 0.09 | 0.03 | 0.33 | 0.03 |
| Segovia | 2012 | 56 | 0.14 | 0.13 | - | - | -1.89 | 0.32 | - | - |
| Staebler | 2011 | 68 | -0.79 | 0.12 | -0.05 | 0.12 | 0.50 | 0.23 | 0.42 | 0.23 |
| Stillman | 2009 | 121 | -0.74 | 0.15 | -1.13 | 0.16 | 0.57 | 0.22 | -1.19 | 0.24 |
| Stock | 2011 | 155 | -2.00 | 0.04 | -0.13 | 0.03 | - | - | - | - |
| Van Beest | 2011 | 87 | -0.94 | 0.10 | -0.58 | 0.09 | -0.40 | 0.24 | -0.44 | 0.19 |
| Van Beest | 2011 | 183 | -2.64 | 0.13 | -0.50 | 0.07 | -0.76 | 0.22 | -0.11 | 0.13 |
| Van Beest | 2006 | 135 | -1.29 | 0.07 | -0.65 | 0.06 | -0.10 | 0.14 | -0.13 | 0.12 |
| Van Beest | 2006 | 111.33 | -2.11 | 0.11 | 0.09 | 0.07 | -0.09 | 0.22 | -0.19 | 0.14 |
| Van Beest | 2012 | 125 | -2.68 | 0.11 | -1.24 | 0.07 | 0.06 | 0.35 | -0.23 | 0.15 |
| Van Beest | 2012 | 85 | -3.10 | 0.20 | 0.05 | 0.09 | -0.28 | 0.44 | 0.07 | 0.18 |
| Van Dijk | - | 51 | -1.50 | 0.10 | -0.04 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - |
| Webb | - | 170 | -0.91 | 0.05 | -0.38 | 0.05 | 0.03 | 0.10 | 0.04 | 0.09 |
| Weik | 2010 | 65 | 0.16 | 0.12 | -0.22 | 0.12 | -0.43 | 0.24 | 0.66 | 0.24 |
| Wesselmann | 2009 | 82 | -0.71 | 0.10 | -2.03 | 0.14 | -1.30 | 0.24 | -0.20 | 0.28 |
| Wesselmann | 2012 | 91 | -1.46 | 0.06 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Williams | 2002 | 390 | -0.39 | 0.01 | -2.35 | 0.02 | - | - | - | - |
| Williams | 2000 | 732 | -0.79 | 0.01 | -1.44 | 0.01 | - | - | - | - |
| Williams | 2000 | 111 | -0.26 | 0.06 | -1.01 | 0.07 | -0.20 | 0.15 | -0.98 | 0.15 |
| Wirth | 2009 | 159.33 | -2.29 | 0.08 | -0.76 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.17 | 0.46 | 0.11 |
| Wirth | 2010 | 76 | -0.96 | 0.06 | -1.64 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Zadro | 2004 | 62 | -1.63 | 0.16 | -0.19 | 0.12 | -0.11 | 0.32 | -1.12 | 0.28 |
| Zadro | 2004 | 77 | -1.75 | 0.14 | -0.33 | 0.10 | -0.29 | 0.28 | -0.70 | 0.21 |
| Zadro | 2006 | 56 | -3.70 | 0.19 | -0.87 | 0.08 | - | - | - | - |
| Zhong | 2008 | 52 | -0.72 | 0.15 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Zoller | 2010 | 57 | -0.24 | 0.07 | -0.09 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Zwolinski | 2012 | 56 | -2.01 | 0.11 | -0.28 | 0.07 | - | - | - | - |
| Note: *d* T1 refers to ostracism effect on first measure; *d* T2 refers to ostracism effect on last measure; Δ*d* represent interactions. Non-integer *N*s arise from division of full sample *N* for included conditions, appropriate due to random assignment. | | | | | | | | | | |

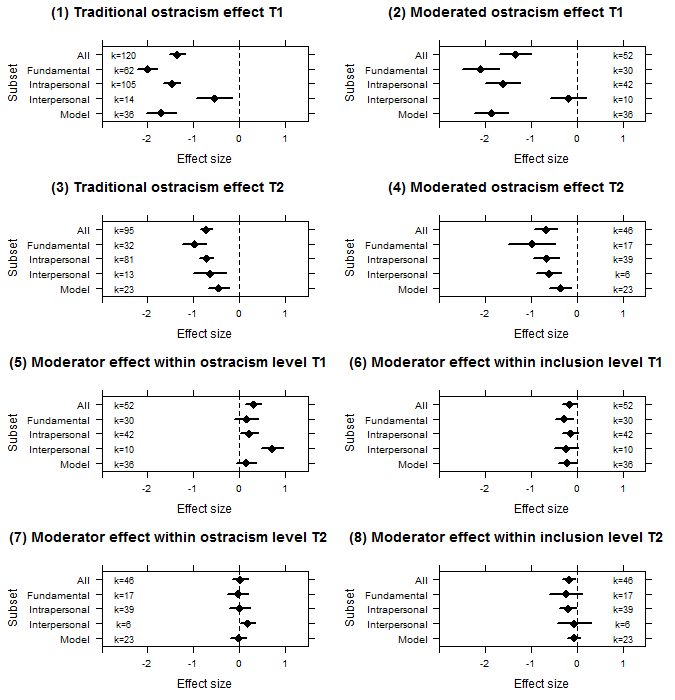
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Table 3 - Interaction effect per subset | | | | | | | | |
|  |  | *k* | Estimate | (*SE*) | *Z*-value | *p*-value | 95% CI Lowerbound | 95% CI Upperbound |
| Overall | T1 | 52 | -0.46 | 0.09 | -5.08 | < .001 | -0.64 | -0.28 |
|  | T2 | 46 | -0.19 | 0.11 | -1.82 | .069 | -0.40 | 0.02 |
| Fundamental | T1 | 30 | -0.39 | 0.12 | -3.42 | < .001 | -0.62 | -0.17 |
|  | T2 | 17 | -0.77 | 0.25 | -3.05 | .002 | -1.27 | -0.28 |
| Intrapersonal | T1 | 42 | -0.31 | 0.09 | -3.38 | < .001 | -0.49 | -0.13 |
|  | T2 | 39 | -0.21 | 0.11 | -1.87 | .062 | -0.44 | 0.01 |
| Interpersonal | T1 | 10 | -1.03 | 0.18 | -5.69 | <.0001 | -1.38 | -0.67 |
|  | T1listwise | 6 | -0.36 | 0.22 | -1.63 | .104 | -0.79 | 0.07 |
|  | T2 | 6 | 0.63 | 0.62 | 1.02 | .309 | -0.58 | 1.84 |
| Model | T1 | 36 | -0.29 | 0.10 | -2.99 | .003 | -0.48 | -0.10 |
|  | T2 | 23 | 0.01 | 0.17 | 0.08 | .938 | -0.31 | 0.34 |
| Note: overall estimates are based on all data, where the rest form subsets. Model indicates that the first measure was indeed reflexive and the last measure reflective. Listwise deletion for equal *k*s across time points within a subset yielded highly similar results, except for interpersonal measures, which is depicted above. | | | | | | | | |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Table 4—Meta-regression coefficients for composition effects (first measure; *k* = 45) | | | | | |  |
|  | Estimate | (*SE*) | *Z*-value | *p*-value | 95% CI Lowerbound | 95% CI Upperbound |
| Intercept | -1.49 | 3.27 | -0.46 | 0.649 | -7.90 | 4.92 |
| Country = US | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Country = Western | -0.42 | 0.36 | -1.15 | 0.249 | -1.13 | 0.29 |
| Country = Asian | -0.30 | 1.13 | -0.26 | 0.793 | -2.51 | 1.92 |
| Proportion male | 1.54 | 1.09 | 1.42 | 0.156 | -0.59 | 3.68 |
| Mean age | -0.05 | 0.05 | -0.97 | 0.332 | -0.16 | 0.05 |
| Nr. of players | -0.22 | 1.05 | -0.21 | 0.837 | -2.28 | 1.85 |
| Ostracism <5 min | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Ostracism 5-10 min | 0.75 | 0.81 | 0.92 | 0.358 | -0.84 | 2.34 |
| Need scale = Williams (2000) | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Need scale = Zadro et al. (2004) | -0.36 | 0.41 | -0.88 | 0.381 | -1.16 | 0.45 |
| Need scale = Van Beest & Williams (2006) | 0.07 | 0.54 | 0.13 | 0.894 | -0.98 | 1.12 |
| Need scale = Williams Zadro | -0.03 | 0.62 | -0.04 | 0.965 | -1.25 | 1.19 |
| Need scale = Gonsalkorale & Williams (2007) | 0.68 | 0.83 | 0.82 | 0.414 | -0.94 | 2.30 |
| Nr. of throws | 0.03 | 0.02 | 1.49 | 0.137 | -0.01 | 0.07 |
| Note: this can be interpreted as a standard regression formula. Empty rows represent reference categories. | | | | | | |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Table 5—Meta-regression coefficients for composition effects (last measure; *k* = 41) | | | | | |  |
|  | Estimate | (*SE*) | *Z*-value | *p*-value | 95% CI Lowerbound | 95% CI Upperbound |
| Intercept | -5.76 | 2.42 | -2.38 | 0.017 | -10.51 | -1.01 |
| Country = US | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Country = Western | 0.26 | 0.30 | 0.87 | 0.387 | -0.33 | 0.86 |
| Country = Asian | 0.85 | 0.84 | 1.01 | 0.313 | -0.80 | 2.49 |
| Proportion male | 0.29 | 0.83 | 0.35 | 0.730 | -1.34 | 1.91 |
| Mean age | -0.01 | 0.04 | -0.25 | 0.806 | -0.10 | 0.08 |
| Nr. of players | 1.55 | 0.78 | 1.98 | 0.047 | 0.02 | 3.07 |
| Ostracism <5 min | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Ostracism 5-10 min | 0.38 | 0.62 | 0.61 | 0.539 | -0.83 | 1.59 |
| Need scale = Williams (2000) | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Need scale = Zadro et al. (2004) | -0.14 | 0.32 | -0.44 | 0.658 | -0.77 | 0.49 |
| Need scale = Van Beest & Williams (2006) | -0.21 | 0.41 | -0.51 | 0.613 | -1.02 | 0.60 |
| Need scale = Williams Zadro | -0.12 | 0.53 | -0.22 | 0.826 | -1.16 | 0.92 |
| Need scale = Gonsalkorale & Williams (2007) | -0.07 | 0.65 | -0.10 | 0.916 | -1.33 | 1.20 |
| Nr. of throws | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.59 | 0.556 | -0.02 | 0.04 |
| Note: this can be interpreted as a standard regression formula. Empty rows represent reference categories. | | | | | | |



*Figure 1.* A screenshot of the Cyberball game.



*Figure 2.* Dotplots of the average estimated simple effects with 95% confidence intervals, where T1 represents first measure, and T2 represents last measure. Traditional ostracism effect refers to the between-subjects effect of being ostracized with *no* moderator present, whereas moderated ostracism effect refers to being ostracized *with* a moderator present. Vice versa, moderator effect within ostracism/inclusion level refers to the between-subjects effect of the moderator factor, within the ostracized/inclusion conditions. All = all measures; Fundamental = only fundamental need measures; Intrapersonal = all intrapersonal measures; interpersonal = all interpersonal measures; model = first is immediate and last is delayed.

C:\Users\Chris\Dropbox\MSc ReMa\Cyberball Meta-analysis\5.Writing\simEffects.tiff

*Figure 3.* Simulated effects under the model estimates for the standard ostracism effect, showing higher estimated heterogeneity on the first measure than last measure.

Appendix

All formulae reported below originate from the chapter by Michael Borenstein (2009). Hedges’ *g* was calculated as

where *d* is the standardized main effect. For the standardized interaction effect *d* was calculated as

where the first term in the nominator is the ostracism effect and the second term is the ostracism effect in the moderator conditions. This Δ*d* corresponds to the partial eta-squared of the interaction. Sampling variance of *g* was calculated by multiplying the sampling variance of *d* by the squared correction factor, that is

where the sampling variance of the interaction was calculated as the sum of the sampling variances of both the simple main effects.

**Supplementary materials**

Reference list of included studies

Alvares, G. A., Hickie, I. B., & Guastella, A. J. (2010). Acute effects of intranasal oxytocin on subjective and behavioral responses to social rejection. *Experimental and Clinical Psychopharmacology*, *18*, 316–321. doi: 10.1037/a0019719

Ambrosini, E., Blomberg, O., Mandrigin, A., & Costantini, M. (2013). Social exclusion modulates pre-reflective interpersonal body representation. *Psychological Research*. doi: 10.1007/s00426-012-0476-2

Anonymous. (*in preparation*). Partial ostracism, partial pain, partial revenge.

Aydin, N., Krueger, J. I., Fischer, J., Hahn, D., Kastenmüller, A., Frey, D., & Fischer, P. (2012). “Man’s best friend:” How the presence of a dog reduces mental distress after social exclusion. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*, 446–449. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2011.09.011

Banki, S. (2012). *How much or how many? Partial ostracism and its consequences*. University of Toronto. Retrieved from https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/1807/32659/3/Banki\_Sara\_201206\_PhD\_thesis.pdf

Bastian, B., & Haslam, N. (2010). Excluded from humanity: The dehumanizing effects of social ostracism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*, 107–113. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2009.06.022

Bernstein, M. J., & Claypool, H. M. (2012a). Social exclusion and pain sensitivity: why exclusion sometimes hurts and sometimes numbs. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, *38*, 185–196. doi: 10.1177/0146167211422449

Bernstein, M. J., & Claypool, H. M. (2012b). Not all social exclusions are created equal: Emotional distress following social exclusion is moderated by exclusion paradigm. *Social Influence*, *7*, 113–130. doi: 10.1080/15534510.2012.664326

Bernstein, M. J., Sacco, D. F., Young, S. G., Hugenberg, K., & Cook, E. (2010a). Being “in” with the in-crowd: The effects of social exclusion and inclusion are enhanced by the perceived essentialism of ingroups and outgroups. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, *36*, 999–1009. doi: 10.1177/0146167210376059

Bernstein, M. J., Sacco, D. F., Young, S. G., Hugenberg, K., & Cook, E. (2010b). Unpublished study of “Being ‘in’ with the crowd” paper. Unpublished study. Pennstate Abington, PA.

Boyes, M. E., & French, D. J. (2009). Having a Cyberball: Using a ball-throwing game as an experimental social stressor to examine the relationship between neuroticism and coping. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *47*, 396–401. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2009.04.005

Brochu, P. M., Garcia, D. M., Smith, H. J., & Esses, V. M. (*working paper*). Ironic Effects of Ambiguous Weight Stigmatization on the Regulation of Eating Behavior. Nova Southeastern University, Florida.

Brown, C. M., Young, S. G., Sacco, D. F., Bernstein, M. J., & Claypool, H. M. (2009). Social Inclusion Facilitates Interest in Mating. *Evolutionary Psychology*, *7*, 11–27. Retrieved from http://www.epjournal.net/wp-content/uploads/ep071127.pdf

Carter, B. E. (2008). *When does ostracism decrease self-regulation?* Montana State University. Retrieved from http://etd.lib.montana.edu/etd/2008/carter/CarterB0508.pdf

Carter-Sowell, A. R., Wesselmann, E. C., Wirth, J. H., Law, A. T., Chen, Z., Kosasih, M. W., & Van der Lee, R. (2010). Strides for belonging trump strides for superiority: Effects of being ostracized for being superior or inferior to the others. *The Journal of Individual Psychology*, *66*, 68–92.

Carter-Sowell, A. R, Chen, Z., & Williams, K. D. (2008). Ostracism increases social susceptibility. *Social Influence*, *3*, 143–153. doi: 10.1080/15534510802204868

Chen, Z., DeWall, C. N., Poon, K.-T., & Chen, E.-W. (2012). When destiny hurts: Implicit theories of relationships moderate aggressive responses to ostracism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*, 1029–1036. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2012.04.002

Chernyak, N., & Zayas, V. (2010). Being excluded by one means being excluded by all: Perceiving exclusion from inclusive others during one-person social exclusion. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*, 582–585. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2010.01.004

Chow, R. M., Tiedens, L. Z., & Govan, C. L. (2008). Excluded emotions: The role of anger in antisocial responses to ostracism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *44*, 896–903. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2007.09.004

Chrisp, J. A. L. (2012). *Exploring the role of belonging in intergroup discrimination.* University of Otago. Retrieved from http://otago.ourarchive.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10523/2662/ChrispJulia

Coyne, S. M., Gundersen, N., Nelson, D. A., & Stockdale, L. (2011). Adolescents’ prosocial responses to ostracism: An experimental study. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *151*, 657–661. doi: 10.1080/00224545.2010.522625

De Waal-Andrews, W., & Van Beest, I. (2012). When you don’t quite get what you want: psychological and interpersonal consequences of claiming inclusion. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *38*, 1367–1377. doi: 10.1177/0146167212450463

DeBono, A. (2013). Understanding Maladaptive Responses to Social Exclusion: Aggression with an Audience. Manuscript in preparation. Winston-Salem State University, North Carolina.

DeBono, A., & Muraven, M. (2013). Personality traits that reduce and exacerbate aggression from social exclusion when depleted. Manuscript in preparation. Winston-Salem State University, North Carolina.

Dietrich, D., Hawkinson, K., & Palo, A. (2010). Self-monitoring as a moderating factor of aggressive responses to ostracism. Poster presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology conference, Las Vegas, NV.

Duclos, R., Wan, E. W., & Jiang, Y. (2013). Show me the honey! Effects of social exclusion on financial risk-taking. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *40*, 122–135. doi: 10.1086/668900

Eisenberger, N. I., Jarcho, J. M., Lieberman, M. D., & Naliboff, B. D. (2006). An experimental study of shared sensitivity to physical pain and social rejection. *Pain*, *126*, 132–138. doi: 10.1016/j.pain.2006.06.024

Fayant, M. P., Lantian, A., Muller, D., & Hartgerink, C.H.J. (*submitted*). Is ostracism by a despised group suffering? A replication of Gonsalkorale and Williams (2007). Paris Descartes University, Paris.

Floor, L. (2007). *De effecten van groepslidmaatschap op ostracisme en pesten. Wat is erger: genegeerd of gepest worden? [The effects of group membership on ostracism and bullying. What is worse: being ignored or being bullied?]*. University of Leiden, the Netherlands.

Gallardo-Pujol, D., Andrés-Pueyo, A., & Maydeu-Olivares, A. (2012). MAOA genotype, social exclusion and aggression: An experimental test of a gene-environment interaction. *Genes, Brain, and Behavior*. doi: 10.1111/j.1601-183X.2012.00868.x

Gan, Y., & Liu, J. (2012). The mechanism by which interpersonal coping flexibility influences self-esteem. *The Psychological Record*, *62*, 735–746.

Garczynski, A. M., Brown, C. M., & Harvey, R. D. (2013). Temporal perspective moderates self-reported reactions to social rejection. Poster presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology conference, New Orleans, LA.Geniole, S. N., Carré, J. M., & McCormick, C. M. (2011). State, not trait, neuroendocrine function predicts costly reactive aggression in men after social exclusion and inclusion. *Biological Psychology*, *87*, 137–145. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsycho.2011.02.020

Gerber, J. P., Williams, K. D., & Wheeler, L. (2013). Clarifying the relationship between ostracism and relational devaluation. Manuscript in preparation. Gordon College, Wenham.

Gonsalkorale, K., & Williams, K. D. (2007). The KKK won’t let me play: Ostracism even by a despised outgroup hurts. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *37*, 1176–1186. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.392

Goodwin, S. A., Williams, K. D., & Carter-Sowell, A. R. (2010). The psychological sting of stigma: The costs of attributing ostracism to racism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*, 612–618. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2010.02.002

Greitemeyer, T., Fischer, P., & Kastenmüller, A. (2012). The effects of social exclusion on confirmatory information processing. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *42*, 462–469. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.1851

Gruijters, S. (2013). Social connection and anthropomorphism. Unpublished raw data. Maastricht University, the Netherlands.

Hackenbracht, J., & Gasper, K. (*in press*). I’m All Ears: The Need to Belong Motivates Listening to Emotional Disclosure. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*.

Hawes, D. J., Zadro, L., Fink, E., Richardson, R., O’Moore, K., Griffiths, B., Dadds, M. R., et al. (2012). The effects of peer ostracism on children’s cognitive processes. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, *9*, 599–613. doi: 10.1080/17405629.2011.638815

Hellmann, J. H., & Echterhoff, G. (2013). Ostracism and Facebook. Manuscript in preparation. University of Münster, Germany.

Hess, Y. D., & Pickett, C. L. (2010). Social rejection and self- versus other-awareness. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*, 453–456. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2009.12.004

Hess, Y., & Pickett, C. (2011). I’ll stick with my idea: exclusion increases socially dominant behaviors. Poster presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology conference, San Antonio, TX.

Horn, N. R. (*n.d.*). *Social exclusion and the bitter coldness of rejection: can drinking a warm drink after being socially excluded counterbalance the negative effects?* Retrieved from https://dspace.washcoll.edu/handle/10090/19133?show=full

Ijzerman, H., Gallucci, M., Pouw, W. T. J. L., Weiβgerber, S. C., Van Doesum, N. J., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Cold-blooded loneliness: social exclusion leads to lower skin temperatures. *Acta Psychologica*, *140*, 283–288. doi: 10.1016/j.actpsy.2012.05.002

Jamieson, J. P., Harkins, S. G., & Williams, K. D. (2010). Need threat can motivate performance after ostracism. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, *36*, 690–702. doi: 10.1177/0146167209358882

Johnson, C. (2010). *Personality and ostracism: do hope, optimism, and forgiveness moderate the effects of social exclusion?* Purdue University. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/1805/2778/CBJohnson\_Thesis\_FINAL.pdf?sequence=1

Kassner, M. P., Dongning, R., Law, A. T., & Williams, K. D. (*in preparation*). Effects of Mental Visualization and Degraded Presentation on Detection and Influence of Ostracism. Purdue University, IN.

Kassner, M. P., Wesselmann, E. D., Law, A. T., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Virtually ostracized: studying ostracism in immersive virtual environments. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior and Social Networking*, *15*, 399–403. doi: 10.1089/cyber.2012.0113

Kerr, N. L., Seok, D.-H., Poulsen, J. R., Harris, D. W., & Messé, L. A. (2008). Social ostracism and group motivation gain. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *38*, 736–746. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.499

Kesting, M.-L., Bredenpohl, M., Klenke, J., Westermann, S., & Lincoln, T. M. (2012). The impact of social stress on self-esteem and paranoid ideation. *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry*, *44*, 122–128. doi: 10.1016/j.jbtep.2012.07.010

Knowles, M. (2010). Use of social media in the service of belonging needs. Poster presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology conference, Las Vegas, NV.

Knowles, M., & Caroll, C. (2012). Shifting perspectives: the impact of social rejection and acceptance on perspective-taking. Poster presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology conference, San Diego, CA.

Krijnen, J. (*n.d.*). Research Report “BP29 Complete.” Tilburg University, the Netherlands.

Krill, A. L., Platek, S. M., & Wathne, K. (2008). Feelings of control during social exclusion are partly accounted for by empathizing personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *45*, 684–688. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.016

Lakin, J. L., Chartrand, T. L., & Arkin, R. M. (2008). I am too just like you: nonconscious mimicry as an automatic behavioral response to social exclusion. *Psychological science*, *19*, 816–822. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02162.x

Lau, G., Moulds, M. L., & Richardson, R. (2009). Ostracism: how much it hurts depends on how you remember it. *Emotion*, *9*, 430–434. doi: 10.1037/a0015350

Lustenberger, D. E., & Jagacinski, C. M. (2010). Exploring the Effects of Ostracism on Performance and Intrinsic Motivation. *Human Performance*, *23*, 283–304. doi: 10.1080/08959285.2010.501046

MacDonald, G. (2008). Use of pain threshold reports to satisfy social needs. *Pain Research & Management*, *13*, 309–319.

McDonald, M. M., & Donnellan, B. M. (2012). Is ostracism a strong situation? The influence of personality in reactions to rejection. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *46*, 614–618. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2012.05.008

Nordgren, L. F., Banas, K., &MacDonald, G. (2011). Empathy gaps for social pain: why people underestimate the pain of social suffering. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *100*, 120–128. doi: 10.1037/a0020938

Nordgren, L. F., McDonnell, M.-H.M., & Loewenstein, G. (2011). What constitutes torture?: psychological impediments to an objective evaluation of enhanced interrogation tactics. *Psychological Science*, *22*, 689–694. doi: 10.1177/0956797611405679

O’Brien, E., Ellsworth, P. C., & Schwarz, N. (2012). Today’s misery and yesterday's happiness: Differential effects of current life-events on perceptions of past wellbeing. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*, 968–972. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2012.02.018

Oberleitner, D. E. (2012). *Accessibility for aggression and negative self-views following ostracism*. Wayne State University. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.wayne.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1553&context=oa\_dissertations

Peterson, C. K., Gravens, L. C., & Harmon-Jones, E. (2011). Asymmetric frontal cortical activity and negative affective responses to ostracism. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, *6*, 277–285. doi: 10.1093/scan/nsq027

Pharo, H., Gross, J., Richardson, R., & Hayne, H. (2011). Age-related changes in the effect of ostracism. *Social Influence*, *6*, 22–38. doi: 10.1080/15534510.2010.525852

Plaisier, X. S., & Konijn, E. A. (2012). Rejected by Peers-Attracted to Antisocial Media Content: Rejection-Based Anger Impairs Moral Judgment Among Adolescents. *Developmental Psychology*. doi: 10.1037/a0029399

Ramirez, M. C. (2009). *The influence of contingent self-esteem and self-esteem variability on reactions to ostracism*. University of Texas at Arlington. Retrieved from http://dspace.uta.edu/bitstream/handle/10106/2034/Ramirez\_uta\_2502M\_10456.pdf?sequence=1

Ren, D., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Self-construals matter when coping with ostracism: but not when experiencing it. Poster presented at Society for Personality and Social Psychology conference, San Diego, CA.

Renneberg, B., Herm, K., Hahn, A., Staebler, K., Lammers, C.-H., & Roepke, S. (2011). Perception of social participation in borderline personality disorder. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy*. doi: 10.1002/cpp.772

Riva, P., Wirth, J. H., & Williams, K. D. (2011). The consequences of pain: The social and physical pain overlap on psychological responses. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *41*, 681–687. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.837

Ruggieri, S., Bendixen, M., Gabriel, U., & Alsaker, F. (2013). Do victimization experiences accentuate reactions to ostracism? An experiment using Cyberball. Paper submitted for publication. Universität Bern, Switzerland.

Ruggieri, S., Bendixen, M., Gabriel, U., & Alsaker, F. (*in press*). Cyberball: the impact of ostracism on early adolescents’ well-being. *Swiss Journal of Psychology*. doi: 10.1024/1421-0185/a000103

Sacco, D. F., Wirth, J. H., Hugenberg, K., Chen, Z., & Williams, K. D. (2011). The world in black and white: Ostracism enhances the categorical perception of social information. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *47*, 836–842. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2011.03.001

Salvy, S.-J., Bowker, J. C., Nitecki, L. A., Kluczynski, M. A., Germeroth, L. J., & Roemmich, J. N. (2010). Impact of simulated ostracism on overweight and normal-weight youths’ motivation to eat and food intake. *Appetite*, *56*, 39–45. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2010.11.140

Salvy, S.-J., Bowker, J. C., Nitecki, L. A., Kluczynski, M. A., Germeroth, L. J., & Roemmich, J. N. (2012). Effects of ostracism and social connection-related activities on adolescents’ motivation to eat and energy intake. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, *37*, 23–32. doi: 10.1093/jpepsy/jsr066

Schaafsma, J., & Williams, K. D. (2012).Exclusion, intergroup hostility, and religious fundamentalism. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*, 829–837. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2012.02.015

Segovia, K. Y., & Bailenson, J. N. (2012). Virtual imposters: Responses to avatars that do not look like their controllers. *Social Influence*, *7*, 285–303. doi: 10.1080/15534510.2012.670906

Staebler, K., Renneberg, B., Stopsack, M., Fiedler, P., Weiler, M., & Roepke, S. (2011). Facial emotional expression in reaction to social exclusion in borderline personality disorder. *Psychological Medicine*, *41*, 1929–1938. doi: 10.1017/S0033291711000080

Stillman, T. F., Baumeister, R. F., Lambert, N. M., Crescioni, A. W., Dewall, C. N., & Fincham, F. D. (2009). Alone and Without Purpose: Life Loses Meaning Following Social Exclusion. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*, 686–694. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2009.03.007

Stock, M. L., Gibbons, F. X., Walsh, L. A., & Gerrard, M. (2011). Racial identification, racial discrimination, and substance use vulnerability among African American young adults. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *37*, 1349–1361. doi: 10.1177/0146167211410574

Van Beest, I., Williams, K. D., & Van Dijk, E. (2011). Cyberbomb: Effects of being ostracized from a death game. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *14*, 581–596. doi: 10.1177/1368430210389084

Van Beest, I., Carter-Sowell, A. R., Van Dijk, E., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Groups being ostracized by groups: Is the pain shared, is recovery quicker, and are groups more likely to be aggressive? *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *16*, 241–254. doi: 10.1037/a0030104

Van Beest, I,, & Williams, K. D. (2006). When inclusion costs and ostracism pays, ostracism still hurts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *91*, 918–928. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.91.5.918

Van Dijk, W. W., & Williams, K. D. (2013). Social exclusion and schadenfreude. Unpublished raw data. University of Leiden, the Netherlands.

Webb, T. L., Harris, P., & McAtamney, K. (2013). Self-Affirmation Moderates the Negative Effect of Ostracism on Perceptions of Control, But Not in Predictable Ways. Unpublished manuscript. University of Sheffield, United Kingdom.

Weik, U., Maroof, P., Zöller, C., & Deinzer, R. (2010). Pre-experience of social exclusion suppresses cortisol response to psychosocial stress in women but not in men. *Hormones and behavior*, *58*, 891–897. doi: 10.1016/j.yhbeh.2010.08.018

Wesselmann, E. D., Bagg, D., & Williams, K. D. (2009). “I Feel Your Pain”: The effects of observing ostracism on the ostracism detection system. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*, 1308–1311. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2009.08.003

Wesselmann, E. D., Wirth, J. H., Mroczek, D. K., & Williams, K. D. (2012). Dial a feeling: Detecting moderation of affect decline during ostracism. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *53*, 580–586. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2012.04.039

Williams, K D, Cheung, C. K., & Choi, W. (2000). Cyberostracism: effects of being ignored over the Internet. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *79*(, 748–762. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.79.5.748

Williams, K. D, Govan, C. L., Croker, V., Tynan, D., Cruickshank, M., & Lam, A. (2002). Investigations into differences between social- and cyberostracism. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *6*, 65–77. doi: 10.1037//1089-2699.6.1.65

Wirth, J. H., & Williams, K. D. (2009). `They Don’t Like Our Kind': Consequences of Being Ostracized While Possessing a Group Membership. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *12*, 111–127. doi: 10.1177/1368430208098780

Wirth, J. H., Lynam, D. R., & Williams, K. D. (2010). When social pain is not automatic: Personality disorder traits buffer ostracism’s immediate negative impact. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *44*, 397–401. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2010.03.001

Zadro, L., Boland, C., & Richardson, R. (2006). How long does it last? The persistence of the effects of ostracism in the socially anxious. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *42*, 692–697. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2005.10.007

Zadro, L., Williams, K. D., & Richardson, R. (2004). How low can you go? Ostracism by a computer is sufficient to lower self-reported levels of belonging, control, self-esteem, and meaningful existence. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *40*, 560–567. doi: 10.1016/j.jesp.2003.11.006

Zhong, C.-B., & Leonardelli, G. J. (2008). Cold and lonely: Does social exclusion literally feel cold? *Psychological Science*, *19*, 838–842. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02165.x

Zöller, C., Maroof, P., Weik, U., & Deinzer, R. (2010). No effect of social exclusion on salivary cortisol secretion in women in a randomized controlled study. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, *35*, 1294–1298. doi: 10.1016/j.psyneuen.2010.02.019

Zwolinski, J. (2012). Psychological and neuroendocrine reactivity to ostracism. *Aggressive Behavior*, *38*, 108–125. doi:10.1002/ab.21411