Open Access

TPM®

ASSESSING THE SPILLOVER EFFECT OF DESPOTIC LEADERSHIP ON ORGANIZATIONAL LIFE IN THE FORM OF WORKPLACE INCIVILITY: THE SERIAL MEDIATION OF COGNITIVE DISSONANCE AND MORAL DISENGAGEMENT

SOBIA WAJAHAT

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR (DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES, IBADAT INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD)
EMAIL: sobia.wajahat@dms.iiui.edu.pk

Abstract

The present study investigates the link between despotic leadership (DL) and workplace incivility (WPI), proposing a serial mediation by cognitive dissonance (CD) and moral disengagement (MD). Survey data were collected from 301 employees in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Hypotheses were tested using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) in SmartPLS 4. The results show that DL significantly predicts WPI both directly and indirectly through CD and MD. Moreover, a serial pathway is supported DL → CD → MD → WPI—such that DL heightens CD, which in turn triggers MD, culminating in greater incivility at work. These findings advance leadership and organizational behavior research by clarifying the cognitive and moral mechanisms Via which toxic leadership fuels deviant outcomes. Practically, the study underscores the need for leadership development, ethics training, and HR interventions to alleviate employee strain and promote civility in high-pressure organizational contexts.

Keywords: Despotic Leadership · Workplace Incivility · Cognitive Dissonance · Moral Disengagement

INTRODUCTION

Leadership, a pivotal and key facet of all organizations, has received much-needed attention for its transformative potential to change the fortunes of modern firms (e.g., Spector, 2014) and shape the ethical values of diverse generations (Zabel et al., 2017), especially in the post-COVID era (Lee & Na, 2023; Masood & Singh, 2023). Recent research, however, also highlights a negative or "dark" side of leadership (Tourish & Willmott, 2023; Naseer et al., 2016) that can damage employees' work–family behavioral roles (Clark et al., 2020; Speights et al., 2020; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). Adverse leadership effects can manifest as absenteeism, reduced effectiveness, and high employee turnover (Tepper, 2007), workplace deviance (Duffy et al., 2002), stress or job dissatisfaction (Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2004), lower performance (Aryee et al., 2007), and even cybercrime (Mujtaba, 2023a, 2024; Gilani et al., 2023). Stressful experiences in the past have been shown to undermine organizational commitment (Abdelmoteleb, 2020) and to shape behavioral tendencies in the present and future (Schilbach et al., 2023). A range of labels has been used to conceptualize negative leadership including abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1994), destructive leadership (Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010), tyrannical leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007), and despotic leadership (Aronson, 2001). Among these, despotic leadership captures many core features of negative leadership (Schilling, 2009), yet remains under-studied in both psychology and management (Naseer et al., 2016).

Despotic leadership (DL) can be described and outlined as a leader's tendency to engage in dominant and authoritarian behaviors in pursuit of self-glorification and alking oneself up (Sarwar et al., 2017) and self-interest, occasionally at the expense of manipulating employees (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008). Leaders who integrate this style typically demand unquestioned submission from their subordinates and rely on controlling, coercive, heavy handed and manipulative mechanisms to secure personal gains and individual benefits with little or no regard for employee needs or concerns, Worries (Schilling, 2009). Their main focus is on advancing personal interests on the contrary aligning with the rightful interests of the organization, hence indulging in morally corrupt and self-serving behaviors (Aronson, 2001). These unprincipled unethical and unfair practices have been shown to diminish employee creativity (Mujtaba & Sims, 2006) and diminish/ Sap overall performance (Naseer et al., 2016). In spite of such clear negative outcomes, research remains limited on the broader negative impact of despotic leadership on both employees' Career experience and the overall organizational work environment.

Our rationale for focusing on the Above-mentioned relationship is that despotic leadership can be characterized as a social stressor that Promotes workplace incivility and diminish organizational culture. Accordingly, workplace incivility has been selected as the significant key outcome variable. Workplace incivility denotes to

low-intensity deviant behavior with Unclear intent to harm, which disrupts the social fabric framework of the workplace (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). It negatively affects employee relations, undermines respect, erodes respect, and creates an Antagonistic environment that can spill over into employee's behaviour in organizations. To keep sustain focus and productivity, it is imperative that organizations promote a positive and ethical workplace environment, which has been described as "significant effective functioning within the workplace with minimal role conflict" (Clark, 2000, p. 749). Extant literature demonstrates that workplace incivility diminishes this environment by eroding respect, weakening collaboration, undermining collaboration, sabotaging collaboration and creating unnecessary role burden strain within organizations (Wagner et al., 2014). Such behaviors not only disrupt organizational processes but also Damage long-term organizational effectiveness.

In this present research, we Claim that despotic leadership acts as a potent social stressor, Robust employees into cognitive dissonance (CD) and moral disengagement (MD), which ultimately trigger workplace incivility. Grounded in the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), despotic leadership is viewed as creating actual or threatened personal resource loss. This Viewed depletion triggers cognitive conflict i.e., cognitive dissonance and promotes moral disengagement as a psychological coping mechanism. These strained Claims impair employees' capacity to maintain respectful workplace conduct, thus Boosting the likelihood of uncivil behavior. The Corrosive pathway from despotic leadership, through CD and MD, results in workplace incivility, revealing how resource-losing and depletion leadership styles Undermine organizational norms, values, cultures and employee relations. Latest empirical evidence properly supports this model: tyrannical leadership has been shown to escalate workplace incivility via lowered morale (Shrestha et al., 2024), despotic leadership super significantly heightens job stress and frustration while Decreasing autonomy, leading to Unethical behavior (Khan et al., 2025), and in healthcare settings despotic leadership has been linked to workplace incivility through stress and emotional exhaustion (Anjum et al., 2022).

Under the umbrella conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), we advocate that despotic leadership (DL) depletes employees valued personal resources, leading to cognitive dissonance (CD) then moral disengagement (MD). Accordingly, employees are more likely to exhibit workplace incivility (WI). We characterize despotic leadership by leaders' exploitation, vengefulness, self-serving tendencies, and unethical behaviors (Aronson, 2001; Sarwar et al., 2017). This relationship is Especially relevant in cultural contexts such as pakistan, scores high on power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance, Resulting in employees more vulnerable to personal resource-depleting leadership styles (Hofstede, 2015). Prior research demonstrates that despotic leadership is positively and significantly associated with workplace deviance (Islam et al., 2022) and work–family conflict (Nauman et al., 2018). Moreover, its relationship with workplace incivility via psychological mechanisms such as CD and MD remains underexplored in academic literature. Recent evidence highlights that authoritarian and dominating leadership styles promote stress and frustration, reducing employees' moral resources and fueling deviant or uncivil behavior (Khan et al., 2025; Shrestha et al., 2024). Thus, our theorization extends current literature by investigating the serial mediation of cognitive dissonance and moral disengagement in the DL–WI relationship, offering new deep understandings insights into the psychological mechanisms underlying the dark side of leadership.

The present study is fundamental for many reasons. The negative impact of workplace incivility on employee performance and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) has been widely examined across different countries (Bai et al., 2016; De Clercq et al., 2018, 2022; Kuriakose et al., 2022; Lim & Tai, 2014; Paul Vincent et al., 2022; Sharma & Mishra, 2022). For example, recent studies have confirmed that employees who experience workplace incivility reveal a spillover effect in their professional lives, manifested via submissive behavior and diminished organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (De Clercq et al., 2018, 2022). In the context of Pakistan, where cultural values such as high-power distance and collectivism remain salient, despotic leadership and uncivil workplace behavior are Especially relevant dynamics for investigation. Workplace incivility has also been shown to trigger a range of transitional emotional reactions, including cognitive dissonance, moral disengagement, low self-esteem, and work alienation (Bai et al., 2016; De Clercq et al., 2018, 2022; Lim & Tai, 2014). In addition, the connection between negative leadership styles such as despotic leadership and abusive supervision and CWB has been well documented (Albashiti et al., 2021; Chaudhary & Islam, 2022; Islam et al., 2022; Wu & Hu, 2009). Albeit these contributions, the impact of despotic leadership on workplace incivility in Pakistan has not been fully explored and Necess empirical investigation. As well, the mediating role of employees' cognitive and moral responses, including cognitive dissonance, moral disengagement, remains underexamined. Examining this relationship within the Pakistani context will deepen our understanding of how despotic leadership shapes employee behavior at work and clarify whether negative leadership experiences directly strengthen uncivil, unethical and counterproductive behaviors in organizations.

This study makes multiple contributions. Firstly, it propels the growing body of literature on the dark side of leadership by examining the impact of despotic leadership on workplace incivility (WI). While leaders are historically expected to enhance organizational performance and maintain positive environment, recent evidence reveals that negative leadership styles can instead Diminish workplace culture and employee well-being (Islam et al., 2022; Naseer et al., 2016; Shrestha et al., 2024). Secondly, drawing on the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), this study examine how despotic leadership depletes employees' psychological resources,

triggering cognitive dissonance (CD) and moral disengagement (MD) that promote uncivil behaviors at work (Khan et al., 2025). Thirdly, the research contributes to the spillover theory (Staines, 1980) by showing how negative workplace experiences deepen into employees' broader interpersonal interactions, influencing their ability to maintain positive relationships in professional settings. Fourthly, the study adopts a novel groundbreaking perspective by testing the serial mediation of CD and MD between despotic leadership and workplace incivility in the Pakistani context. In the context of Pakistan, like other collectivist and high power-distance cultures, is particularly vulnerable to the harmful effects of authoritarian leadership (Ghadi, M. Y. (2025); Korkmazyürek & Ocak, 2024), despotic leadership may possess substantial implications for organizational climate. Finally, the findings provide actionable measures and strategies for HR departments in both public and private organizations, pointing out the risks of despotic leadership in escalating incivility and stressing the need for leadership development programs and employee support mechanisms to reduce these effects. This practical recommendation will empower HR professionals to make strategic decisions about leadership development and employee support.

Theory and Hypothesis Development
Despotic Leaders and workplace Incivility
Despotic leaders are characterized by an authoritarian mindset, unethical behavior rooted in a flawed code of conduct, and little to no regard for employees (Naseer et al., 2016). Driven by self-interest, they tend to be exploitative, vengeful, and controlling (Aronson, 2001; Howell & Avolio, 1992). Such practices can have significant and lasting negative effects on an organization's political climate (Noori et al., 2023). Relatedly, abusive and destructive leadership have been shown to harm numerous outcomes, including emotional exhaustion, organizational performance, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, cognitive dissonance, and workplace conflict (Aasland et al., 2010; Richman et al., 1992; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2000). With the rise of e-leadership, ineffective supervisory practices can further dampen employees' creativity and innovation (Subramaniam et al., 2023).

Importantly, the harms of despotic leadership extend beyond daily organizational life and spill over into employees' behavior as workplace incivility (WPI). Family incivility is defined as "low-intensity deviant behaviors with ambiguous intent that violate the norms of mutual respect in the family" (Lim & Tai, 2014, p. 351), and workplace incivility as "low-intensity deviant behaviors with ambiguous intent that violate the norms of mutual respect in the workplace" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999, p. 457). WPI can manifest in multiple ways, including using a condescending tone with colleagues or ignoring one another (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Although prior research has examined the effects of WPI on performance, job satisfaction, and psychological well-being (Bai et al., 2016; Lim & Tai, 2014; Rhee et al., 2017; Sharma & Mishra, 2022), its relationship with despotic leadership remains insufficiently explored. Nauman et al. (2018) and Raza et al. (2024) investigated links between despotic leadership (DL) and work–family conflict; however, empirical work directly connecting DL to WPI is still limited.

Spillover theory (Staines, 1980) helps explain this process: emotions arising from workplace encounters are carried forward, creating similar patterns of experience across domains. Effective leadership also requires balance; even highly relationship-oriented leaders must attend to task demands (Mujtaba, 2023b). Professional and organizational spheres are interconnected, with events in one shaping responses in the other (Heras et al., 2021). Consequently, positive events elicit positive responses, whereas negative events elicit negative responses (Ferguson, 2012; Staines, 1980). Employees subjected to despotic leadership often carry aggression into everyday interactions, undermining relationships with colleagues and fostering incivility (Hoobler & Hu, 2013). Recent research further suggests that despotism elevates stress and frustration, heightening the risk of incivility and deviant behavior at work (Raza et al., 2024; Shamspour et al., 2025). Despotic leaders seek unquestioned obedience (Schilling, 2009), exhibit low ethical standards and self-centeredness (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), and readily exploit employees for personal gain (Naseer et al., 2016). Grounded in these arguments, we propose:

Hypothesis 1 Despotic leadership leads to Workplace incivility
Leadership significantly shapes the emergence and intensity of cognitive dissonance (Tayfur Ekmekci et al., 2021). Cognitive dissonance is the psychological discomfort that arises from holding two or more contradictory beliefs, values, or attitudes simultaneously, which undermines consistent action (Festinger, 1957). Employees exposed to despotic leadership are especially prone to anxiety, tension, and inner conflict as their moral values collide with workplace demands (Albashiti et al., 2021). Despotic leadership thus functions as a toxic contextual factor that provokes contradictions between employees' beliefs and required actions, producing dissonance (Shah et al., 2023). Employees under such leaders may encounter shocking or traumatic situations that force reconciliation of clashing cognitions e.g., valuing ethical conduct while being coerced into unethical tasks resulting in elevated dissonance (Albashiti et al., 2021). Consequences include increased absenteeism, disengagement, and diminished work performance (Chan et al., 2020; Wee et al., 2019).

Conservation of Resources (COR) 2001 theory posits that resource loss has a greater impact than resource gain (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Such loss can intensify cognitive dissonance as employees feel compelled to justify or rationalize the depletion (Hobfoll, 1989). Through demanding and exploitative behaviors, despotic leaders both

drain employees' resources and place them in value demand conflicts, thereby amplifying dissonance (Wu & Hu, 2009). Consistent with this view, Nauman et al. (2018) show that employees working under destructive leadership experience heightened emotional arousal, increasing their vulnerability to cognitive dissonance. Based on the argument made we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Despotic leadership leads to cognitive dissonance.
Employees who experience cognitive dissonance (CD) under despotic leadership may enter additional maladaptive psychological processes most notably, moral disengagement (MD). When leaders' unethical demands collide with employees' personal values, individuals are pushed to rationalize or justify misconduct through disengagement mechanisms. Evidence shows that intense internal conflict increases tendencies toward justification and detachment, fostering persistent disinterest and undermining organizational functioning (Thompson et al., 2020). Relatedly, research indicates that CD heightens the likelihood of MD as individuals attempt to reduce discomfort by aligning their actions with situational pressures (Anasori et al., 2022).
Leadership thus plays a pivotal role in shaping employees' internal states. While positive leadership aligns values and behaviors, bolstering confidence and performance, despotic leadership erodes confidence and creates value demand contradictions that intensify CD (Chaudhary & Islam, 2022). In response, employees may engage in MD a set of cognitive justifications that minimize personal responsibility, legitimize unethical behavior, and temporarily deactivate moral self-sanctions (Bandura, 1999).
Based on the argument made the next hypothesis is

Hypothesis 3: Cognitive dissonance leads to moral disengagement.
Employees subjected to despotic leadership often experience cognitive dissonance and emotional distress, which they are not always able to regulate effectively. When left unresolved, these overwhelming emotions can spill over into organizational life and culture, shaping interactions and workplace norms. Empirical evidence highlights a strong association between cognitive dissonance and negative affectivity. For example, Sarwar et al. (2021) argue that employees experiencing cognitive dissonance frequently display heightened irritability, anger, and frustration. Such negative emotional states are likely to transfer into the organizational domain, where they manifest as incivility including rudeness, hostility, and insensitivity toward colleagues.
According to spillover theory (Staines, 1980), excessive work demands initiated by despotic leaders may spill over into organizational life, leading to workplace incivility (Thompson et al., 2020). When employees' personal resources are diminished, they experience reduced positive mood and heightened distress, which increases the likelihood of uncivil behaviors toward colleagues. For example, employees experiencing stress due to authoritarian superiors often struggle to regulate their emotions effectively, inadvertently displacing stress-induced negativity onto coworkers (Vincent et al., 2022). Continuous work demands consume employees' cognitive and emotional resources, leaving them with limited capacity to think creatively or interact positively. As a result, depleted resources erode morale and hinder employees' ability to empathize, communicate, and resolve conflicts in workplace interactions (Lin et al., 2022).
While workplace incivility beyond direct work roles is rarely considered because it does not immediately impact organizational performance, its indirect consequences can be profound. Employees working under despotic leaders often suppress their emotions and avoid open communication due to fear of negative outcomes, including loss of salary, benefits, perks, and career growth opportunities. Over time, these suppressed emotions manifest as uncivil behaviors toward colleagues, reflecting displaced frustration and unresolved dissonance. Taken together, we argue that despotic leadership creates cognitive dissonance, which in turn fosters workplace incivility.

Hypothesis 4: Cognitive dissonance leads to workplace incivility.
Hypothesis 5: Cognitive dissonance mediates the relationship between despotic leadership and workplace incivility.
Moral disengagement refers to the cognitive process through which individuals justify unethical actions, minimize personal responsibility, or rationalize harmful behaviors (Bandura, 1999). In organizational settings, despotic leadership often creates environments where employees' moral standards clash with leaders' unethical demands. When employees struggle to reconcile this contradiction, they may resort to moral disengagement as a coping mechanism to reduce the psychological discomfort arising from cognitive dissonance.
Despotic and aggressive leadership have been identified as precursors to harmful outcomes, including burnout (Harvey et al., 2008; Tepper, 2000; Wu & Hu, 2009), depression, and anxiety (Tepper, 2000). For example, Tepper (2007) demonstrated that employees exposed to despotic supervision reported higher levels of stress, anxiety, and emotional strain conditions that make individuals more prone to disengage morally. Moreover, Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) found that employees perceiving higher levels of abusive or disrespectful treatment from supervisors were more likely to exhibit moral disengagement, using rationalizations to cope with mistreatment.
Such behaviors deplete employees' cognitive resources, contributing to moral justification, displacement of responsibility, and eventual disengagement from ethical standards. Despotic leaders, through exploitation, authoritarian control, and disregard for employee well-being, intensify these effects, pushing employees to

disengage morally in order to function within a hostile workplace (Ashforth, 1994; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Schilling, 2009).
Based on the argument we hypothesize,

H6: Despotic leadership leads to moral disengagement.
Existing research shows that cognitive dissonance (CD) is a significant predictor of workplace incivility (WPI) (Westman et al., 2004). CD, considered one of the three components of burnout (Johnson & Spector, 2007), is closely tied to the depletion of employees' psychological resources. Conservation of Resources (COR) 2001 theory helps explain this process: despotic leaders drain employees' personal and professional resources, heightening cognitive strain. With repeated exposure to despotic supervision, dissonance intensifies, amplifying stress and emotional imbalance (Grandey et al., 2004). Under such conditions, employees often lack the psychological resources and perceived safety needed to voice concerns; fear of retaliation suppresses upward communication. The resulting frustration and negative affect accumulate and are expressed as workplace incivility.

Consistent with Hobfoll (1989, 2001), stress and exhaustion arise from perceived or actual resource loss. When despotic leadership threatens valued resources through exploitation and domination, employees shift from engagement to conservation, limiting prosocial behavior toward colleagues and thereby fostering incivility. Spillover theory provides additional explanatory power: strain originating in hierarchical interactions spills over into broader organizational life. Employees subjected to despotism experience pronounced psychological and emotional drain, leaving insufficient energy for constructive collaboration (Raja et al., 2018). Rather than investing in productivity and teamwork, they devote effort to coping with suffering, stress, and confusion caused by toxic leadership. This cognitive and emotional load undermines relationship-building and professional engagement, prompting withdrawal and cold, rude, or indifferent behavior toward coworkers, which contributes to a climate of workplace incivility (Sarwar et al., 2021). Based on these points, we hypothesize the following, which are depicted in Fig. 1 in connection with the previous variables

Hypothesis 7: Moral disengagement leads to workplace incivility.
Hypothesis 8: Moral disengagement mediates the relationship between despotic leadership and workplace incivility.
Hypothesis 9: Cognitive dissonance and moral disengagement serially mediate the relationship between despotic leadership and workplace incivility.

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework
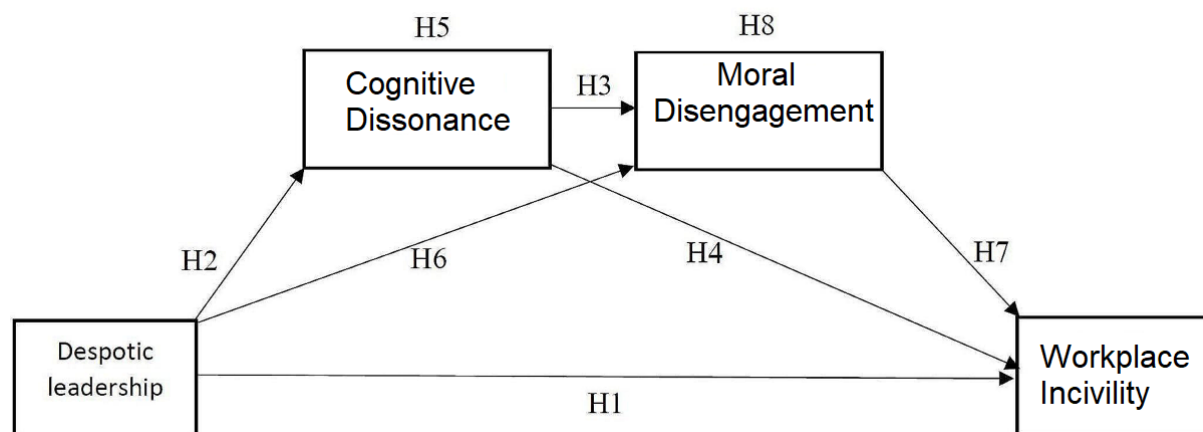
METHODS

This study adopts a positivist research philosophy, emphasizing that actual knowledge arises from observable and measurable data (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). A deductive approach was employed, with hypotheses derived from existing theory and tested through empirical evidence.
The study employed a robust quantitative, cross-sectional research design to examine the relationships between despotic leadership, workplace incivility, cognitive dissonance, and moral disengagement in the SMEs sector of Pakistan. The unit of analysis comprised individual employees. Data were collected in natural, non-contrived settings with minimal researcher interference.
Using Morgan's sample size table (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970), a sample of 441 respondents was determined at a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error. Due to time and access constraints, convenience sampling was applied. Questionnaires were distributed accordingly, and after excluding **49** unusable responses, a total of 301

valid responses were retained, yielding an effective response rate of 86.0%. This high response rate, as per Bryman (2016), underscores the study's relevance and rigour, indicating that respondents found the topic significant.

Ethical standards were not just maintained, but upheld with utmost diligence through informed consent, voluntary participation, and assurance of anonymity and confidentiality (Saunders et al., 2019). This commitment to ethical conduct ensures the integrity of the study and the protection of the participants' rights.

Data analysis was conducted using the advanced tool, SmartPLS 4. This software facilitated the testing of measurement and structural models, validating constructs, and assessing hypothesized relationships.

All participants provided informed consent prior to data collection. Data were gathered using a self-administered questionnaire, which included a clear consent statement on the first page. The study's purpose, the voluntary nature of participation, confidentiality and anonymity assurances, and the right to withdraw at any time without penalty were clearly communicated to all participants. Only adult employees from higher education institutions in Islamabad took part; no minors were involved. The questionnaire did not request any sensitive or personally identifiable information, and participants were assured that their responses would remain confidential, with no organizational or individual identities disclosed in any reports. The study did not involve any human or animal experiments or clinical trials and adhered strictly to established ethical guidelines for research involving human subjects. The recruitment period for this study was from 7 June 2025 to 27 august 2025.

Instruments

The data for the present study were collected using a structured questionnaire comprising four validated scales: Despotic Leadership (DL), Cognitive Dissonance (CD), Moral Disengagement (MD), and Workplace Incivility (WPI) shown in table 1. Each construct was measured with five items on a 7-point Likert scale, a methodology chosen for its relevance to the research questions, ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (7).

1. **Despotic Leadership (DL):**
Despotic leadership was assessed using De Hoogh and Den Hartog's (2008) five-item scale, which has been widely employed in leadership research. The scale captures authoritarian, punitive, and uncompassionate leader behaviors. A representative item was: "My leader is punitive, no pity or compassion."

2. **Cognitive Dissonance (CD):**
Cognitive dissonance was measured using Elliot and Devine's (1994) five-item scale, which evaluates the psychological discomfort experienced when attitudes and behaviors are inconsistent. A sample item was: "I feel uneasy when my actions contradict my true beliefs."

3. **Moral Disengagement (MD):**
Moral disengagement was measured using Bandura et al.'s (1996) five-item scale, also adopted in later organizational studies (e.g., Lim & Tai, 2014). The items assess cognitive rationalizations that allow individuals to disengage from moral standards. A representative item was: "It is not wrong if everyone else is doing the same thing."

4. **Workplace Incivility (WPI):**
Workplace incivility was measured using Cortina and Kabat-Farr's (2001) five-item scale, which captures subtle and low-intensity deviant behaviors in organizational settings. A sample item was: "My colleagues always put me down, or they are condescending to me."

Table 1 Instruments

Variables	Developed by	No. of Items
Despotic Leadership (DL)	De Hoogh & Den Hartog (2008)	5
Cognitive Dissonance (CD)	Elliot & Devine (1994)	5
Moral Disengagement (MD)	Bandura et al. (1996)	5
Workplace Incivility (WPI)	Cortina & Kabat-Farr (2001)	5

RESULTS

Common Method Bias

Common method bias refers to the artificial variance that arises from the measurement method rather than the constructs being studied (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To evaluate the potential influence of this bias, Harman's single-factor test was performed (Harman, 1976; Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). The analysis indicated that the first factor accounted for 34% of the total variance, which is below the recommended threshold of 50%. Therefore, common method bias was not considered a concern in this study.

Multicollinearity

All predictors fall comfortably below conventional investigation thresholds; no evidence of problematic multicollinearity is present. This implies that regression coefficient estimates should not suffer from substantial variance inflation due to collinearity, and no predictors require removal or recombination on VIF grounds. As a good practice, always remember to re-check VIF if interaction terms, polynomials, or additional predictors are added, because such model changes can alter collinearity patterns. O'Brien, R. M. (2007).
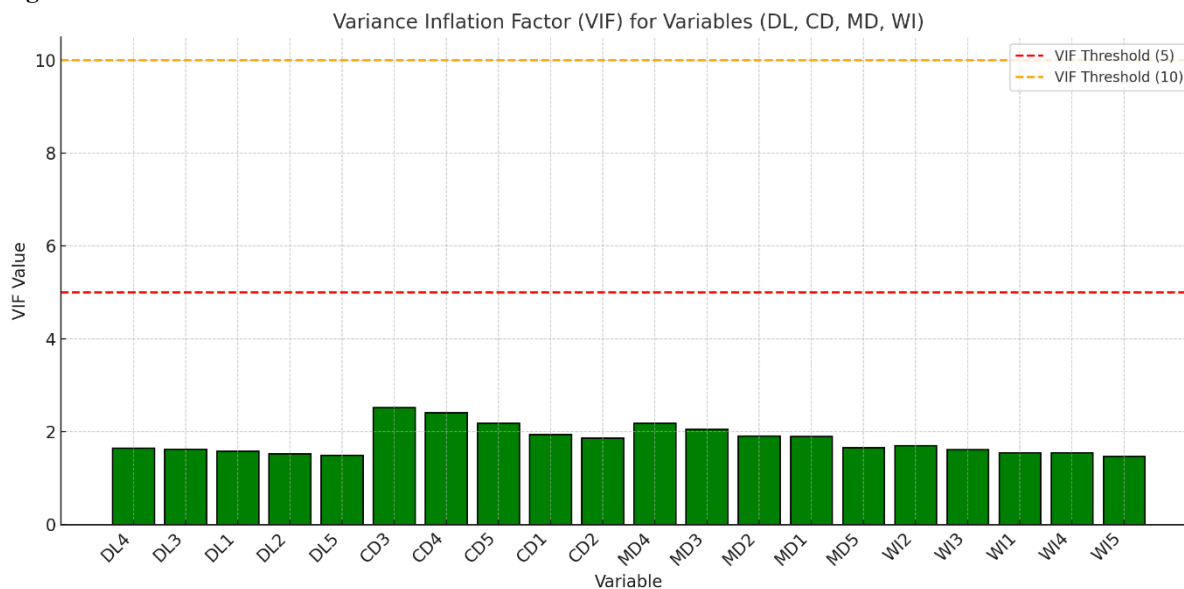
Figure 2 VIF Chart

Figure 2. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) by predictor (DL → CD → MD → WI). The order of the predictors is based on their importance in the regression model. Green bars show VIF values. Dashed reference lines at 5 and 10 indicate commonly used practical thresholds; all variables are well below these lines. Penn State Eberly College of Science. (n.d.). STAT 462. While many texts cite VIF ≈ 10 as a sign of serious multicollinearity and some adopt lower thresholds (e.g., 4–5) depending on context, it's important to remember that these are guidelines, not hard rules. Your interpretation should consider the unique aspects of your study design and sample size. O'Brien, R. M. (2007).

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

We assessed convergent validity via composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010). As per table 2 results all constructs exceeded recommended benchmarks (CR ≥ .70; AVE ≥ .50; Hair et al., 2016, 2020): CRs ranged from .814 to .915 and AVEs from .554 to .683, supporting convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Using the heterotrait–monotrait ratio (HTMT; Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2020), as per table 3 all inter-construct HTMT values were below the conservative .90 cut-off and in fact below the stricter .85 rule of thumb indicating that the constructs are empirically distinct: DL–CD = .543, DL–MD = .779, DL–WPI = .683, CD–MD = .644, CD–WPI = .591, and MD–WPI = .702. As a robustness check: the Fornell–Larcker criterion is also satisfied because the smallest √AVE in this study (0.554 = 0.744) exceeds the largest interconstruct correlation (r = .65), reinforcing discriminant validity.

Table: 2 Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Variables	CR	AVE
Despotic Leadership	0.862	0.554
Cognitive Dissonance	0.915	0.683
Moral disengagement	0.814	0.629
Workplace incivility	0.864	0.561

Note. Benchmarks: CR ≥ .70; AVE ≥ .50 (Hair et al., 2016, 2020). Replace dashes with your construct-specific CR and AVE values.

Table: 3 Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

S.No	Variables	1	2	3	4
1	Despotic Leadership	1			
2	Cognitive Dissonance	0.543	1		
3	Moral disengagement	0.779	0.644	1	
4	Workplace incivility	0.683	0.591	0.702	1

Note. All HTMT values < .85 and < .90, supporting discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2020). Abbreviations: DL = Despotic Leadership; CD = Cognitive Dissonance; MD = Moral Disengagement; WPI = Workplace Incivility.

Descriptive Statistics
4.3 Descriptive Statistics

As per table 4 results all multi-item scales demonstrated adequate internal consistency (αs = .80–.88), exceeding the .70 benchmark (Hair et al., 2019). Despotic Leadership (α = .80), Cognitive Dissonance (α = .88), Moral Disengagement (α = .85), and Workplace Incivility (α = .80) showed sound reliability. On a 7-point Likert scale, means were high with limited dispersion (all SDs < 1.00): Despotic Leadership (M = 6.10, SD = 0.82), Moral Disengagement (M = 6.05, SD = 0.73), Cognitive Dissonance (M = 5.95, SD = 0.78), and Workplace Incivility (M = 5.88, SD = 0.81). These values indicate substantial prevalence and relatively consistent responses.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics, Reliability and Correlations among Study Variables

Variables	α	Min	Max	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
Despotic Leadership	0.800	1.000	7.000	6.10	0.82	1			
Cognitive Dissonance	0.884	1.000	7.000	5.95	0.78	0.616**	1		
Moral disengagement	0.852	1.000	7.000	6.05	0.73	0.647**	0.560**	1	
Workplace incivility	0.804	1.000	7.000	5.88	0.81	0.550**	0.502**	0.588**	1

Note: N = 441; **$p < 0.01$ (2-tailed); SD = Standard Deviation; Min. = Minimum; Max. = Maximum. Values in italics represent correlations among the study variables.

Table 4 indicates bivariate correlations were positive and statistically significant (all $p < .01$). The strongest association was between Moral Disengagement and Despotic Leadership (r = .65), followed by Workplace Incivility with Moral Disengagement (r = .59) and Despotic Leadership (r = .55). Cognitive Dissonance correlated with Moral Disengagement (r = .56) and Despotic Leadership (r = .46); Workplace Incivility also related to Cognitive Dissonance (r = .50). Together, these patterns underscore the interconnectedness of toxic leadership, cognitive strain, moral justification, and incivility.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

We report the fit of the estimated structural model (i.e., the model actually tested). Overall fit was acceptable. The standardized root mean square residual was below the conventional .08 cutoff (SRMR = .060), indicating good absolute fit. The normed fit index exceeded legacy adequacy criteria (NFI = .845 > .80) but falls short of more stringent modern benchmarks ($\geq$ .90–.95), suggesting incremental fit is adequate rather than excellent. The chi-square statistic is reported for completeness (χ^2 = 451.273), noting its well-known sensitivity to sample size and model complexity. Taken together, these indices indicate the model provides a reasonable representation of the data.

Table 5 model fit indices

	SRMR	d_ULS	d_G	Chi-square	NFI
Estimated Model	0.060	0.766	0.255	451.273	0.845

Note. Cutoffs are rules of thumb (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2016; Hair et al., 2019). If available, consider also reporting CFI, TLI, and RMSEA (with 90% CI) and χ^2/df for a fuller picture of fit.
As per table 5 indicate that the factor loadings for all constructs were above the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019), indicating strong relationships between observed items and their respective latent variables.

Table 6 Factor loadings

Variables	Loadings			
Items	DL	CD	MD	WPI
Despotic Leadership				
DL1	0.745			
DL2	0.721			
DL3	0.768			
DL4	0.763			
DL5	0.726			
Cognitive Dissonance				
CD1		0.795		
CD2		0.795		
CD3		0.867		
CD4		0.848		
CD5		0.826		
Moral Disengagement				
MD1			0.786	
MD2			0.792	
MD3			0.818	
MD4			0.825	
MD5			0.741	
Workplace Incivility				
WPI1				0.764
WPI2				0.763
WPI3				0.738
WPI4				0.748
WPI5				0.730

Hypothesis testing
Direct and indirect hypotheses
In hypothesis 1, we predicted that despotic leadership (DL) would lead to workplace incivility (WPI). In support of this argument, a significant positive relationship was found between DL and WPI ($\beta = 0.25$, $t = 4.11$, $p < 0.001$), thereby supporting hypothesis 1. Despotic leadership was also found to significantly predict cognitive dissonance (CD) ($\beta = 0.45$, $t = 7.67$, $p < 0.001$), showing that destructive leadership creates psychological conflict among employees, thereby supporting hypothesis 2. CD further had a significant effect on moral disengagement (MD) ($\beta = 0.33$, $t = 6.08$, $p < 0.001$), confirming hypothesis 3. In addition, CD significantly predicted WPI ($\beta = 0.21$, $t = 3.22$, $p = 0.001$), supporting hypothesis 4.

Despotic leadership also had a strong positive impact on MD (β = 0.49, t = 10.9, p < 0.001), thereby confirming hypothesis 6. Furthermore, MD was shown to significantly predict WPI (β = 0.30, t = 4.09, p < 0.001), lending support to hypothesis 7.

Table 7 Direct and indirect effects bootstrapping results (Mediation)

Hypotheses	Paths	Coefficient (β)	SE	T statistic	P value	95% CI	
						Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
	Direct Effects						
H1	DL → WPI	0.25	0.06	4.11	0.000	0.13	0.37
H2	DL → CD	0.45	0.06	7.67	0.000	0.13	0.56
H3	CD → MD	0.33	0.05	6.08	0.000	0.22	0.43
H4	CD → WPI	0.21	0.06	3.22	0.001	0.08	0.34
H6	DL → MD	0.49	0.04	10.9	0.000	0.40	0.58
H7	MD → WPI	0.30	0.07	4.09	0.000	0.15	0.44
	Indirect Effects						
H5	DL → CD → WPI	0.15	0.03	5.03	0.000	0.10	0.21
H8	DL → MD → WPI	0.14	0.04	3.66	0.000	0.07	0.23
H9	DL → CD → MD → WPI	0.04	0.01	3.48	0.001	0.02	0.07

As shown in the results, the indirect effect of DL on WPI through CD was significant (β = 0.15, 95% CI [0.10, 0.21]), thereby supporting hypothesis 5. Similarly, the indirect effect of DL on WPI through MD was significant (β = 0.14, 95% CI [0.07, 0.23]), thereby supporting hypothesis 8. Finally, the serial mediation path from DL through CD and MD to WPI was also significant (β = 0.04, 95% CI [0.02, 0.07]), providing support for hypothesis 9.

As per table 7 result confirms, all hypotheses (H1–H9) proposed in the study were supported and accept.

DISCUSSION

This study sits at the intersection of research on despotic leadership (DL), cognitive dissonance (CD), moral disengagement (MD), and workplace incivility (WPI). We examine how DL influences WPI through the serial mediation of CD and MD (DL → CD → MD → WPI). Integrating the COR and Spill over perspective, we argue that DL elicits CD, which in turn activates COR process self-justifying accounts that neutralize responsibility and reframe harmful conduct thereby facilitating MD mechanisms (e.g., moral justification, displacement of responsibility) and ultimately amplifying WPI. We also test the individual and joint effects of CD and MD to clarify how they shape the DL–WPI relationship. Prior studies have linked WPI to diminished employee and organizational performance (Lim & Tai, 2014), greater deviant work behaviors (Bai et al., 2016), lower organizational citizenship behavior and heightened CD (De Clercq et al., 2018), intensified negative emotions (Naeem et al., 2020), and increased work alienation (De Clercq et al., 2022).

Research has paid limited attention to the mechanisms through which despotic leaders (DL) precipitate employees' workplace incivility (WPI). Drawing on the COR theory (Chen et al., 2015), we address this gap by proposing that exploitative and domineering DL behaviors create strain that spills over beyond work, depleting employees and increasing the likelihood that strain later manifests as incivility at work. Consistent with JU theory, we further argue that DL fosters a sense of powerlessness and resource loss, which triggers cognitive dissonance (CD). To resolve this dissonance, employees generate self-justifications for ethically questionable responses, thereby facilitating moral disengagement (MD) and, ultimately, higher WPI. In short, DL increases WPI through a serial process DL → CD → MD → WPI with JU providing the rationale for how CD transforms into MD.

Despotic Leadership (DL) has a significant impact on Cognitive Dissonance (CD). Employees working under despotic leaders are more likely to experience anxiety, depression, and other health issues, which reflects the negative psychological outcomes of CD. These adverse effects further indicate the presence of Moral Disengagement (MD), as employees try to justify or cope with the conflicting situation. Previous research also supports a significant relationship between DL and MD (Chaudhary & Islam, 2022; Majeed & Fatima, 2020), and the COR (Hobfoll 2001) theory also supports the same notion. As per JU, employees feel the threat of working under despotic leaders to their personal resources affecting health (Moral Disengagement). In addition, COR and Spill over also supports the significant impact of DL on CD. Continuously working under despotic leaders causes employees to deplete their psychological resources, Workplace incivility drains employees to the point of exhaustion, leaving them disengaged and unable to balance responsibilities. This strain often spills over into

misbehavior at home, creating a cycle of stress and conflict. Lastly, MD and CD are found to serially mediate the relationship between DL and WPI. MD and CD render a pivotal mechanism via which despotic leadership turns into workplace incivility. In organizational settings, despotic leaders demand efforts beyond formal job roles, which depletes employees' psychological resources (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Hobfoll, 2001). Such depletion fosters workplace incivility, as employees experience cognitive dissonance when their values conflict with imposed demands. (Maslach, 2003).

Evidence of a positive, significant association between despotic leadership (DL) and workplace incivility (WPI) suggests that exposure to leaders' aggression, domination, and exploitation increases the likelihood that employees will experience cognitive dissonance (CD) and engage in justification-of-unethical-behavior (JU) cognitions, which ultimately shape uncivil conduct at work. Employees working under DL are more likely to report anxiety, depressive symptoms, and health-related problems that drain personal resources, impairing their ability to regulate behavior. As pressures accumulate, employees may adopt moral disengagement (MD) cognitive mechanisms that rationalize harmful actions and attenuate guilt to legitimize uncivil responses. COR (Hobfoll 2001) posits that individuals justify questionable behaviors to protect psychological resources and reduce discomfort, providing the theoretical basis for the DL → CD → MD → WPI pathway.

DL has also been found to increase MD. Prior research indicates that, under despotic leaders, employees are more likely to morally disengage as a coping response to coercive and exploitative demands (Chaudhary & Islam, 2022; Majeed & Fatima, 2020). Consistent with COR theory, the perceived threat that DL poses to employees' valued resources heightens CD and, in turn, facilitates MD, which escalates incivility toward coworkers and the organization. Continuous exposure to DL depletes emotional and personal resources, leaving employees disengaged and more prone to uncivil behavior.

Moreover, CD and MD serially mediate the relationship between DL and WPI. When despotic leaders issue unethical directives or exert abusive control, employees experience dissonance as their personal values conflict with these demands. To restore consonance, they activate MD mechanisms (e.g., moral justification, diffusion of responsibility), which lower inhibitions against incivility. DL often entails expectations that extend beyond formal job requirements and consume meaningful energy (Podsakoff et al., 2009). In line with the conservation-of-resources perspective (Hobfoll, 2001), Such depletion undermines employees' capacity to sustain positive conduct within the workplace. Ultimately, despotic leadership contributes to workplace incivility through the pivotal processes of cognitive dissonance (CD) and moral disengagement (MD), leaving employees cognitively strained and morally disengage (Maslach, 2003).

Implications and Future Directions

Our study supports the notion that cognitive dissonance (CD) is a central mechanism linking despotic leadership (DL) and other negative leadership behaviors to moral disengagement (MD) (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). In turn, MD impairs employees' ability to regulate emotions and diminishes their capacity to engage in respectful, positive interactions with colleagues, thereby increasing the likelihood of workplace incivility (WPI). Findings from this study highlight the interrelationship of workplace domains and underscore the necessity of a holistic leadership approach to safeguard employee well-being both within teams and beyond the workplace (Acton et al., 2020). In addition to socializing leaders with ethical values through regular formal and informal training (Mujtaba & Sims, 2006), the results carry important implications for strengthening the public sector workplace through carefully designed leadership and organizational strategies. Specifically, public sector organizations should (1) foster healthier work environments that enhance employee well-being (Kendrick et al., 2023), (2) reduce employee distress by ensuring physical and psychological safety (Mujtaba & Kaifi, 2023), and (3) promote positive colleague interactions by investing in leadership development and ongoing training (Mujtaba, 2023b).

Beyond the public sector, the findings of this study can also benefit educational institutions, healthcare organizations, multinational corporations, and other mission-driven enterprises. Employees who are subjected to despotic leaders often find it difficult to prevent such negative workplace experiences from spilling over into their personal lives. Despotic leadership–induced strain heightens cognitive dissonance (CD) and fosters moral disengagement (MD), which may manifest as incivility and adverse behaviors toward colleagues. These behaviors often act as a psychological venting mechanism for frustration but ultimately damage the interpersonal climate of the organization. Over time, this cycle blurs the boundaries between professional and personal domains, perpetuating workplace incivility.

For HR professionals, such patterns may be especially difficult to detect since incivility is not always displayed directly in formal workplace settings but may appear in subtle or indirect interactions. To address this challenge, organizations should establish formal reporting mechanisms that empower employees to raise concerns about despotic or abusive leadership without fear of retaliation. Equally important are protective systems to safeguard whistleblowers, ensuring that employees who highlight unethical behaviors are shielded from exploitation by their leaders.

Finally, the demonstrated serial mediation process (DL → CD → MD → WPI) underscores the critical role of leadership in shaping employee well-being. Organizations can leverage this knowledge to design leadership development and training programs that emphasize ethical decision-making, respect, and supportive supervisory practices thereby cultivating a healthier, more respectful workplace climate (Mujtaba & Sims, 2006).

Secondly, organizations can implement flexible work arrangements and employee assistance programs to help employees manage cognitive dissonance (CD) (Berber et al., 2022). Well-being initiatives of this kind contribute to the creation of a civil workplace culture in which employees feel valued and supported. Furthermore, a comprehensive framework targeting toxic leadership behaviors can reinforce an organizational duty of care, ensuring that leaders recognize and support employee needs across both work and personal domains.

Our study posits that by addressing moral disengagement (MD) at its source, organizations can prevent the cascading effects of cognitive dissonance and workplace incivility (WPI) that arise under despotic leadership. Tackling MD early not only reduces the justification of uncivil conduct but also helps sustain healthier and more respectful work environments.

This study is not without limitations. **First**, the use of a cross-sectional design limits the ability to establish causal relationships among despotic leadership (DL), cognitive dissonance (CD), moral disengagement (MD), and workplace incivility (WPI). Although the theoretical framework suggests a clear sequential mechanism, longitudinal or multi-wave panel designs are necessary to capture the temporal unfolding of these processes and provide stronger causal evidence. **Second**, the reliance on self-reported data raises concerns about common method variance and potential social desirability bias. While precautions were taken, future research should incorporate multi-source data, such as coworker or supervisor ratings and HR records, to enhance validity. **Third**, the study was conducted within a Pakistani SMEs specific cultural and organizational context, which may constrain generalizability. DL, CD, and MD may manifest differently across industries, organizational forms, and national cultures, suggesting the need for comparative research across diverse contexts. **Fourth,** the study did not account for boundary conditions that might buffer or intensify the relationship between DL and WPI. Factors such as moral identity, ethical climate, leader–member exchange (LMX), or psychological safety could serve as critical moderators and warrant examination through moderated mediation models. **Fifth**, while COR and Spill over theory provided the conceptual underpinning of the model, COR and Spill over was not empirically measured. Including JU as a distinct mediator in future studies would allow for a more nuanced understanding of how CD translates into MD. **Finally,** this study emphasized negative outcomes of DL while overlooking potential coping mechanisms or protective factors, such as resilience, mindfulness, or social support. Integrating insights from positive organizational scholarship may reveal how employees and teams resist or mitigate the harmful effects of DL, thus broadening the scope of future inquiry.

CONCLUSION

This study advances the workplace incivility literature by clarifying how despotic leadership (DL) translates into uncivil conduct through the serial mediation of cognitive dissonance (CD) and moral disengagement (MD) that is, DL → CD → MD → WPI. Framed by the COR and Spill over perspective, our model explains how DL-induced dissonance encourages self-justifications that enable MD, thereby lowering inhibitions against incivility.

Employees exposed to domineering, self-serving leaders frequently experience psychological strain, emotional exhaustion, and health complaints that deplete self-regulatory resources. Under these conditions, CD and MD operate as the cognitive pathway through which incivility emerges and spreads within work units, perpetuating a cycle that erodes respect and cooperation.

The findings suggest clear organizational levers: curb despotic tendencies through leader selection and development, strengthen ethical-leadership and justice climates, establish confidential reporting and civility norms, and provide resource-replenishment and recovery supports. Future research should assess JU directly, test boundary conditions (e.g., moral identity, ethical climate, leader–member exchange), and use longitudinal, multi-source designs to bolster causal inference and evaluate interventions aimed at interrupting the CD → MD pathway.

REFERENCES

1. Aasland, M. S., Skogstad, A., Notelaers, G., Nielsen, M. B., & Einarsen, S. (2010). The prevalence of destructive leadership behaviour. *British Journal of Management, 21*(2), 438–452. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2009.00672.x

2. Abdelmoteleb, S. A. (2020). A new look at the relationship between job stress and organizational commitment: A three-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 34*(3), 321–336. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9543-z

3. Acton, B., Braun, M., & Foti, R. J. (2020). Built for unity: Assessing the impact of team composition on team cohesion trajectories. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 35*(6), 751–766. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-019-09654-7

4. Albashiti, B., Hamid, Z., & Aboramadan, M. (2021). Fire in the belly: The impact of despotic leadership on employees' work-related outcomes in the hospitality setting. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 33*(10), 3564–3584. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2021-0394

5. Anasori, E., Kucukergin, K. G., Soliman, M., Tulucu, F., & Altinay, L. (2022). How can the subjective well-being of nurses be predicted? Understanding the mediating effect of psychological distress, psychological resilience and emotional exhaustion. *Journal of Service Theory and Practice, 32*(6), 762–780. https://doi.org/10.1108/JSTP-02-2022-0036

6. Aronson, E. (2001). Integrating leadership styles and ethical perspectives. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 18*(4), 244–256. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.2001.tb00260.x

7. Aryee, S., Chen, Z. X., Sun, L. Y., & Debrah, Y. A. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle-down model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 191–201. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.191

8. Ashforth, B. (1994). Petty tyranny in organizations. *Human Relations, 47*(7), 755–778. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679404700701

9. Bai, Q., Lin, W., & Wang, L. (2016). Family incivility and counterproductive work behavior: A moderated mediation model of self-esteem and emotional regulation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 94*, 11–19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.01.006

10. Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the perpetration of inhumanities. Personality and Social Psychology Review, 3(3), 193–209.

11. Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Mechanisms of moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71(2), 364–374.

12. Berber, N., Gašić, D., Katić, I., & Borocki, J. (2022). The mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between FWAs and turnover intentions. *Sustainability, 14*(8), 4502. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14084502

13. Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). Work–family conflict in the organization: Do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management, 26*(5), 1031–1054. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600502

14. Chan, C. M. H., Wong, J. E., Wee, L. H., Jamil, N. A., Yeap, L. L. L., Nantha, S. Y., & Siau, C. S. (2020). Psychological and work-related factors predicting work engagement in Malaysian employees. *Occupational Medicine, 70*(6), 400–406. https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqaa112

15. Chaudhary, A., & Islam, T. (2022). Unravelling the mechanism between despotic leadership and psychological distress: The roles of bullying behavior and hostile attribution bias. *Kybernetes, 52*(12), 5829–5848. https://doi.org/10.1108/K-10-2021-0987

16. Clark, M. A., Early, R. J., Baltes, B. B., & Krenn, D. (2020). Work-family behavioral role conflict: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 34*(1), 39–53. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-017-9529-2

17. Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations, 53*(6), 747–770. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726700536001

18. Cortina, L. M., & Kabat-Farr, D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6(1), 64–80.

19. Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6(1), 64–80. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64

20. Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 6(1), 64–80. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64

21. De Clercq, D., Fatima, T., & Khan, B. (2022). Family incivility, work alienation beliefs and submissive behaviors among Pakistani employees: The mitigating role of ego resilience. Personnel Review. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2022-0281

22. De Clercq, D., Haq, I. U., Azeem, M. U., & Raja, U. (2018). Family incivility, emotional exhaustion at work, and being a good soldier: The buffering roles of waypower and willpower. Journal of Business Research, 89, 27–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.04.001

23. De Hoogh, A. H. B., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: A multi-method study. The Leadership Quarterly, 19(3), 297–311.

24. De Hoogh, A. H., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness and subordinates' optimism: A multimethod study. The Leadership Quarterly, 19(3), 297–311. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.03.002

25. Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. Academy of Management Journal, 45(2), 331–351. https://doi.org/10.5465/3069350

26. Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. The Leadership Quarterly, 18(3), 207–216. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.03.002

27. Elliot, A. J., & Devine, P. G. (1994). On the motivational nature of cognitive dissonance: Dissonance as psychological discomfort. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67(3), 382–394.

28. Ferguson, M. (2012). You cannot leave it at the office: Spillover and crossover of coworker incivility. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33(4), 571–588. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.774

29. Fornell, C., & Bookstein, F. L. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. Journal of Marketing Research, 19(4), 440–452. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378201900406

30. Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. Journal of Marketing Research, 18(1), 39–50.

31. Gilani, S. R. S., Mujtaba, B. G., Zahoor, S., & AlMatrooshi, A. M. (2023). Exploring cybercrime history through a typology of computer mediated offences: Applying Islamic principles to promote good and prevent harm. Computing and Artificial Intelligence, 1(1), 321. https://ojs.acad-pub.com/index.php/CAI/index

32. Grandey, A. A., Dickter, D. N., & Sin, H. P. (2004). The customer is not always right: Customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25(3), 397–418. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.252

33. Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective (7th ed.). Pearson.

34. Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). Multivariate data analysis (7th ed.). Pearson.

35. Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2016). A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) (2nd ed.). Sage.

36. Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2020). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using R: A workbook. Springer.

37. Halbesleben, J. R., Neveu, J. P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the COR: Understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. Journal of Management, 40(5), 1334–1364.   https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527130

38. Harman, H. H. (1976). Modern factor analysis (3rd ed.). University of Chicago Press.

39. Harvey, P., Harris, K. J., & Martinko, M. J. (2008). The mediated influence of hostile attributional style on turnover intentions. Journal of Business and Psychology, 22(4), 333–343. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-008-9062-7

40. Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43(1), 115–135.

41. Heras, M., Galafassi, D., Oteros-Rozas, E., Ravera, F., Berraquero-Díaz, L., & Ruiz-Mallén, I. (2021). Realising potentials for arts-based sustainability science. Sustainability Science, 16(1), 1875–1889. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-021-01002-0

42. Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. American Psychologist, 44(3), 513–524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513

43. Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. Applied Psychology, 50(3), 337–421. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062

44. Hofstede, G. J. (2015). Culture's causes: The next challenge. Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 22(4), 545–569. https://doi.org/10.1108/CCM-03-2015-0040

45. Hoobler, J. M., & Hu, J. (2013). A model of injustice, abusive supervision, and negative affect. The Leadership Quarterly, 24(1), 256–269. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.11.005

46. Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1992). The ethics of charismatic leadership: Submission or liberation? Academy of Management Perspectives, 6(2), 43–54. https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1992.4274395

47. Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. Structural Equation Modeling, 6(1), 1–55.

48. Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. Structural Equation Modeling, 6(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

49. Islam, T., Ahmed, I., Ali, M., Ahmer, Z., & Usman, B. (2022). Understanding despotic leadership through the lens of Islamic work ethics. Journal of Public Affairs, 22(3), e2521. https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.2521

50. Javed, B., Fatima, T., Yasin, R. M., Jahanzeb, S., & Rawwas, M. Y. (2019). Impact of abusive supervision on deviant work behavior: The role of Islamic work ethic. Business Ethics: A European Review, 28(2), 221–233. https://doi.org/10.1111/beer.12214

51. Johnson, H. A. M., & Spector, P. E. (2007). Service with a smile: Do emotional intelligence, gender, and autonomy moderate the emotional labor process? Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12(4), 319–333. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.4.319

52. Kanaris, M. E., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2024). Trust shaping the social relationship of diverse learners in the online education environment. Environment and Social Psychology, 9(2), 1–21. https://doi.org/10.54517/esp.v9i2.2197

53. Kendrick, T., Artley, J., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2023). Mental health intervention in the workplace amidst the COVID-19 pandemic. Health, 15(4), 289–311. https://doi.org/10.4236/health.2023.154021

54. Kessler, R. C., Andrews, G., Colpe, L. J., Hiripi, E., Mroczek, D. K., Normand, S. L., Walters, E. E., & Zaslavsky, A. M. (2002). Short screening scales to monitor population prevalences and trends in nonspecific psychological distress. Psychological Medicine, 32(6), 959–976. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291702006074

55. Kline, R. B. (2016). Principles and practice of structural equation modeling (4th ed.). Guilford Press.

56. Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30(3), 607–610.

57. Kuriakose, V., Paul Vincent, M. T., & Bishwas, S. (2022). Examining the pathway linking workplace incivility and employee well-being: A study among frontline hotel employees in India. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 35(7), 2465–2480. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2022-0142

58. Lee, S., & Na, C. (2023). Public service motivation and job satisfaction amid COVID-19: Exploring the effects of work environment changes. Public Personnel Management. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1177/00910260231207332

59. Lim, S., & Tai, K. (2014). Family incivility and job performance: A moderated mediation model of psychological distress and core self-evaluation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 99(2), 351–359. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034486

60. Lin, W. M., Oetringer, D. A., Bakker-Marshall, I., Emmerzaal, J., Wilsch, A., Elshafei, H. A., Rassi, E., & Haegens, S. (2022). No behavioral evidence for rhythmic facilitation of perceptual discrimination. European Journal of Neuroscience, 55(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.15208

61. MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., & Williams, J. (2004). Confidence limits for the indirect effect: Distribution of the product and resampling methods. Multivariate Behavioral Research, 39(1), 99–128. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr3901_4

62. Majeed, M., & Fatima, T. (2020). Impact of exploitative leadership on psychological distress: A study of nurses. Journal of Nursing Management, 28(7), 1713–1724. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.13085

63. Maslach, C. (2003). Burnout: The cost of caring. Ishk.

64. Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. Annual Review of Psychology, 52, 397–422. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

65. Masood, H., & Singh, P. (2023). The post-pandemic work-life initiatives across cultures: Recommendations from human resource management. SAM Advanced Management Journal, 88(2), 64–74.

66. Mirowsky, J., & Ross, C. E. (2002). Depression, parenthood, and age at first birth. Social Science & Medicine, 54(8), 1281–1298. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(01)00096-X

67. Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92(4), 1159–1168. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1159

68. Mujtaba, B. G. (2023a). Operational sustainability and digital leadership for cybercrime prevention. International Journal of Internet and Distributed Systems, 5(2), 19–40. https://doi.org/10.4236/ijids.2023.52002

69. Mujtaba, B. G. (2023b). Task and relationship orientation of aspiring leaders: A study of male and female adults in business education. Business Ethics and Leadership, 7(3), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.61093/bel

70. Mujtaba, B. G. (2024). Cybercrimes and safety policies to protect data and organizations. Journal of Crime and Criminal Behavior, 4(1). https://www.arfjournals.com/jccb

71. Mujtaba, B. G., & Kaifi, B. A. (2023). Safety audit considerations for a healthy workplace that puts "People Before Profit" and OSHA compliance. Health Economics and Management Review, 4(1), 11–25. https://doi.org/10.21272/hem.2023.1-02

72. Mujtaba, B. G., & Sims, R. L. (2006). Socializing retail employees in ethical values: The effectiveness of the formal versus informal methods. Journal of Business and Psychology, 21(2), 261–272. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-006-9028-3

73. Naeem, M., Weng, Q., Ali, A., & Hameed, Z. (2020). Linking family incivility to workplace incivility: Mediating role of negative emotions and moderating role of self-efficacy for emotional regulation. Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 23(1), 69–81. https://doi.org/10.1111/ajsp.12392

74. Naseer, S., Raja, U., Syed, F., Donia, M. B., & Darr, W. (2016). Perils of being close to a bad leader in a bad environment: Exploring the combined effects of despotic leadership, leader–member exchange, and perceived organizational politics on behaviors. The Leadership Quarterly, 27(1), 14–33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.09.005

75. Nauman, S., Fatima, T., & Haq, I. U. (2018). Does despotic leadership harm employee family life: Exploring the effects of emotional exhaustion and anxiety. Frontiers in Psychology, 9, 601. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00601

76. Noori, R., Shoaib, S., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2023). Antecedents and consequences of perception of organizational politics: Empirical evidence for public sector universities in Eastern Afghanistan. Public Organization Review, 23(4), 1477–1503. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11115-022-00685-y

77. O'Brien, R. M. (2007). A caution regarding rules of thumb for variance inflation factors. Quality & Quantity, 41(5), 673–690.

78. Paul Vincent, M. T., Aboobaker, N., & Devi, N. U. (2022). Family incivility and burnout: A moderated mediation model of life satisfaction and psychological capital. Benchmarking: An International Journal, 28(6), 2110–2129. https://doi.org/10.1108/BIJ-10-2020-0534

79. Penn State Eberly College of Science. (n.d.). STAT 462: Regression analysis. Retrieved from https://online.stat.psu.edu/stat462

80. Pines, A., & Aronson, E. (1988). Career burnout: Causes and cures. Free Press.

Open Access

81. Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94(1), 122–141. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013079

82. Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. Journal of Management, 12(4), 531–544.

83. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. Annual Review of Psychology, 63, 539–569. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100452

84. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

85. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(5), 879–903.

86. Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. Multivariate Behavioral Research, 42(1), 185–227. https://doi.org/10.1080/00273170701341316

87. Raza, M. A., Hadi, N. U., Hossain, M. M., Malik, I. A., Imran, M., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2022). Impact of experienced workplace incivility (EWI) on instigated workplace incivility (IWI): The mediating role of stress and moderating role of Islamic work ethics (IWE). Sustainability, 14(23), 16187. https://doi.org/10.3390/su142316187

88. Raza, M. A., Imran, M., Rosak-Szyrocka, J., Vasa, L., & Hadi, N. U. (2023). Organizational change and workplace incivility: Mediated by stress, moderated by emotional exhaustion. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 20(3), 2008. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20032008

89. Raza, M. A., Khan, M. M., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2018). The impact of organizational change on employee turnover intention: Does stress play a mediating role? Public Organization Review, 18(3), 313–327. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11115-017-0380-8

90. Raza, M. A., Ul-Hadi, N., Khan, M., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2021). Empirical evidence of organizational justice and incivility in the tourism industry: Assessing the moderating role of Islamic work ethics and trust in leader. Journal of Transnational Management, 25(4), 274–299. https://doi.org/10.1080/15475778.2020.1854025

91. Rhee, S. Y., Hur, W. M., & Kim, M. (2017). The relationship of coworker incivility to job performance and the moderating role of self-efficacy and compassion at work: The job demands-resources (JD-R) approach. Journal of Business and Psychology, 32(6), 711–726. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-016-9469-2

92. Richman, J. A., Flaherty, J. A., Rospenda, K. M., & Christensen, M. L. (1992). Mental health consequences and correlates of reported medical student abuse. JAMA, 267(5), 692–694. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.1992.03480050076036

93. Sarwar, A., Khan, M. M., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2017). Managing despotic leadership, workplace ostracism and knowledge hoarding: A serial mediation model. Advanced Management Journal, 82(4), 4–19. https://www.proquest.com/openview/efc9935d5212ac03b0ee86fcfd66d4a2/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=40946

94. Sarwar, S., Sarwar, A., Mujtaba, B. G., & Sarwar, Z. R. (2021). Impact of perceptions of COVID-19-related risks on partner "Social Undermining" of healthcare workers through the spillover theory. International Journal of Human Resource Studies, 11(3), 100–117. https://doi.org/10.5296/ijhrs.v11i3.18903

95. Saunders, M. N. (2011). Research methods for business students (5th ed.). Pearson Education India.

96. Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2019). Research methods for business students (8th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

97. Schilbach, M., Baethge, A., & Rigotti, T. (2023). How past work stressors influence psychological well-being in the face of current adversity: Affective reactivity to adversity as an explanatory mechanism. Journal of Business and Psychology. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-023-09922-7

98. Schilling, J. (2009). From ineffectiveness to destruction: A qualitative study on the meaning of negative leadership. Leadership, 5(1), 102–128. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715008098300

99. Schyns, B., & Hansbrough, T. (2010). When leadership goes wrong: Destructive leadership, mistakes, and ethical failures. IAP.

100. Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. The Leadership Quarterly, 24(1), 138–158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001

101. Shah, S. B., Afshan, G., Mirani, M. A., & Solangi, R. (2023). Effect of supervisors' stress on subordinates' unethical behavior: Moderating role of managers' despotic leadership. Management Research Review, 46(1), 148–171. https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-02-2021-0147

102. Sharma, D., & Mishra, M. (2022). Family incivility and instigated workplace incivility: How and when does rudeness spill over from family to work? Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 39(4), 1257–1285. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-021-09764-y

103. Sharma, S., Mukherjee, S., Kumar, A., & Dillon, W. R. (2005). A simulation study to investigate the use of cutoff values for assessing model fit in covariance structure models. Journal of Business Research, 58(7), 935–943. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2003.10.007

104. Song, X., Khosa, M., Ahmed, Z., Faqera, A. F. O., Nguyen, N. T., Rehman, S. U., & He, Y. (2022). Linking transformational and despotic leadership to employee engagement: Unfolding the role of psychological distress as a mediator. Sustainability, 14(14), 8851. https://doi.org/10.3390/su14148851

105. Spector, J. M. (2014). Conceptualizing the emerging field of smart learning environments. Smart Learning Environments, 1(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40561-014-0002-7

106. Speights, S., Bochantin, J. E., & Cowan, R. L. (2020). Feeling, expressing, and managing emotions in work-family conflict. Journal of Business and Psychology, 35(3), 363–380. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-019-09626-x

107. Staines, G. L. (1980). Spillover versus compensation: A review of the literature on the relationship between work and nonwork. Human Relations, 33(2), 111–129. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872678003300203

108. Stone-Romero, E. F., & Rosopa, P. J. (2008). The relative validity of inferences about mediation as a function of research design characteristics. Organizational Research Methods, 11(2), 326–352. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428107300342

109. Subramaniam, S. A. P., Salamzadeh, Y., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2023). The mediating role of dynamic capability on the relationship between E-leadership qualities and innovation management: Insights from Malaysia's medical device industry. Sustainability, 15(24), 16778. https://doi.org/10.3390/su152416778

110. Tayfur Ekmekci, O., Metin Camgoz, S., Guney, S., & Kemal Oktem, M. (2021). The mediating effect of perceived stress on transformational and passive-avoidant leadership-commitment linkages. International Journal of Organizational Leadership, 10(4), 348–366. https://doi.org/10.33844/ijol.2021.60436

111. Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. Academy of Management Journal, 43(2), 178–190. https://doi.org/10.5465/1556375

112. Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. Journal of Management, 33(3), 261–289. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300812

113. Tepper, B. J., Duffy, M. K., Hoobler, J., & Ensley, M. D. (2004). Moderators of the relationships between coworkers' organizational citizenship behavior and fellow employees' attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89(3), 455–465. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.3.455

114. Thompson, M. J., Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., & Vogel, R. M. (2020). The cost of being ignored: Emotional exhaustion in the work and family domains. Journal of Applied Psychology, 105(2), 186–199. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000436

115. Tourish, D., & Willmott, H. (2023). Despotic leadership and ideological manipulation at Theranos: Towards a theory of hegemonic totalism in the workplace. Organization Studies, 44(11), 1801–1824. https://doi.org/10.1177/01708406231161123

116. Vincent, J. L., Coulanger, C., van Mol, M. M. C., Hawryluck, L., & Azoulay, E. (2022). Ten areas for ICU clinicians to be aware of to help retain nurses in the ICU. Critical Care, 26(310), 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-022-04149-6

117. Wagner, D. T., Barnes, C. M., & Scott, B. A. (2014). Driving it home: How workplace emotional labor harms employee home life. Personnel Psychology, 67(2), 487–516. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12044

118. Wee, L. H., Yeap, L. L. L., Chan, C. M. H., Wong, J. E., Jamil, N. A., Nantha, S. Y., & Siau, C. S. (2019). Anteceding factors predicting absenteeism and presenteeism in urban area in Malaysia. BMC Public Health, 19(4), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-6870-6

119. Westman, M., Etzion, D., & Gortler, E. (2004). The work-family interface and burnout. International Journal of Stress Management, 11(4), 413–428. https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.11.4.413

120. Witt, L. A., & Carlson, D. S. (2006). The work-family interface and job performance: Moderating effects of conscientiousness and perceived organizational support. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11(4), 343–357. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.11.4.343

121. Wu, T. Y., & Hu, C. (2009). Abusive supervision and employee emotional exhaustion: Dispositional antecedents and boundaries. Group & Organization Management, 34(2), 143–169. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601108331217

122. Zabel, K. L., Biermeier-Hanson, B. B., Baltes, B. B., Early, B. J., & Shepard, A. (2017). Generational differences in work ethic: Fact or fiction? Journal of Business and Psychology, 32(3), 301–315. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-016-9466-5