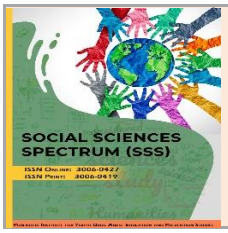

Social Sciences Spectrum

A Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, HEC recognized Y-category Research Journal

E-ISSN: 3006-0427 **P-ISSN:** 3006-0419
Volume 04, **Issue** 02, 2025
Web link:https://sss.org.pk/index.php/sss

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The Hidden Cost of Exclusion: Psychological Wellbeing and Procrastination in Response to Workplace Microaggressions

Ramaisa Gul Nazir
PhD Scholar, Lahore Business School, The University of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
Email: ramaisagul10@gmail.com

Dr. Mahmood Rehmani
Associate Professor, Lahore Business School, The University of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
Correspondence: mehmoodrehmani@gmail.com

Dr. Naveed Anwer
Associate Professor, Lahore Business School, The University of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
Email: naveed.anwer@lbs.uol.edu.pk

Dr. Fatima Abrar
Assistant Professor, Lahore Business School, The University of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
Email: fatima.abrar@lbs.uol.edu.pk

Dr. Muhammad Osaid Rabie
Assistant Professor, Lahore Business School, The University of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan
Email: osaid.rabie@lbs.uol.edu.pk

Article Information [YY-MM-DD]

Received 2025-02-19 **Accepted** 2025-04-17

Citation (APA):

Nazir, R, G., Rehmani, M., Anwer, N., Abrar, F & Rabie, M, O. (2025). The hidden cost of exclusion: Psychological wellbeing and procrastination in response to workplace microaggressions. *Social Sciences Spectrum*, *4*(2), 165-187. https://doi.org/10.71085/sss.04.02.262

Abstract

This article examines how psychological well-being mediates the association among workplace microaggressions, ostracism, and employee procrastination in educational settings. Results revealed that microaggressions and ostracism are significantly and positively related to procrastination and negatively associated with psychological well-being. Furthermore, psychological well-being mediated the relationship between workplace ostracism, microaggressions, and procrastination. This study examines employee procrastination in educational settings. Analysis of data from 405 employees revealed that while ostracism significantly influences psychological well-being, microaggressions do not show a significant impact. The direct effects of microaggressions and ostracism on procrastination were substantial, with minimal indirect effects transmitted through psychological well-being. These findings suggest that direct intervention on workplace mistreatment is necessary to reduce procrastination. The study's implications extend to the refinement of stress-coping models and organizational interventions in educational institutions.

Keywords: Psychological well-being, Procrastination, Microaggressions, Ostracism, Educational institutions.

1. Introduction

The economic and psychological implications of workplace abuse are significant in Pakistan, where educational institutions are already subjected to harassment in the form of reserve constraints and disarray. According to reports, workplace stressors—including subtle judgment—are a major cause of employee dissatisfaction and decreased productivity. For example, according to a poll conducted by the Pakistan Society of Human Resource Management (PSHRM), about 35% of academic staff reported encountering microaggressions or exclusionary behaviors that hurt their appearance and mental well-being 1. These behaviors worsen existing contests in a sector already wrestling with limited resources, brain drain, and high ability income rates.

The insinuations are particularly alarming when seeing procrastination as a reply mechanism. Procrastination not only reduces individual presentation but also disrupts organizational operative. Studies suggest that institutions in Pakistan could lose up to 20–25% of their potential productivity due to maladaptive employee performances such as procrastination 2. These figures are even more serious in educational surroundings, where the failure to meet limits, poor academic consequences, and diminished faculty-student appointments have far-reaching consequences. Despite this, little experimental research has been presented in Pakistan's information sector to quantify these possessions, creating an important information gap. By thoroughly examining how microaggressions and ostracism consequence procrastination, and the mediating roles of psychological well-being in addition organizational identification, this research pursues to provide illegal visions. Talking about these difficulties can help educational organizations adopt more complete and productive environments, protecting their pivotal role in national development. Procrastination, often understood as a maladaptive coping device, can serve as a reply to workroom microaggressions and ostracism. Employees exposed to these forms of mistreatment may delay errands as a way to avoid additional psychological distress, finally affecting their output and organizational effect. This not only baskets individual performance but also impacts the overall capability of educational institutions. studies 3,4 elect that psychological well-being and organizational identification are serious mediators in this activity. However, the specific ways through which these issues affect the association between microaggressions, ostracism, and procrastination persist underexplored, mainly in educational experiences.

In Pakistan's educational segment, the various configurations of staff and the stressful setting create exclusive contests. Employees may experience microaggressions and ostracism that are modest yet harmful, affecting their mental health and reason of presence. Though these problems are prime, the coping mechanisms active by staff, such as procrastination, have not been acceptably studied. This investigation goals to address this gap by determining the complex relations among workplace exploitation and procrastination, concentrating on the arbitrating roles of psychological well-being. Furthermore, it examines how subjects such as educational equality and employment occupation moderate these behaviors. by investigating these concerns in Eastern nations as Pakistan and focusing on microaggressions in the field of business management, this study fills significant gaps in the body of literature previously in existence. This study aims to offer a thorough understanding of how to reduce these behaviors and create temporarily healthier, more productive workplaces by investigating the mediating roles of psychological well-being and the impact of microaggressions on procrastination between employees in educational settings.

Objectives:

1. To examine the direct relationships between microaggressions, ostracism, and procrastination among employees in educational settings.
2. To analyze the mediating roles of psychological well-being in these relationships.

Hypothesis:

H1: Microaggressions are positively associated with procrastination.

H2: Ostracism is positively associated with procrastination.

H3:Psychology well-being mediates the relationship between microaggressions and procrastination.

H4: Psychological well-being mediates the relationship between ostracism and procrastination.

H5: The relationship between psychological well-being and procrastination is moderated by educational level.

Psychological Well-Being as a Mediator: Psychological well-being includes emotional, mental, and social health. Workplace stressors such as microaggressions and ostracism damagingly affect psychological well-being, which in turn upsurges procrastination behaviors 5. Studies establish a direct link between weakened psychological well-being due to workplace stressors and following procrastination 6.

The effects of workplace ostracism and microaggressions on psychological health have increased attention in recent years, especially among workers in educational settings. An important mediating factor in the connotation between employee consequences and prohibiting is psychological well-being. Giving to research by Williams et al. 7, employees' psychological well-being represents a mediator between the damaging effects of workplace ostracism on job satisfaction and purposes to permission the company. This implies that programs intended to improve psychological health may reduce the negative effect of exclusion on work-related significances.

According to research by Cortina et al. 8, theoretical staff members' psychological well-being meaningfully dropped when they were well-informed about microaggressions at work. Microaggressions are subtle kinds of relegation or judgment based on a person's gender, color, or other characteristics. They can offend a person's job fulfilment and mental comfort 9. Employees who perceive themselves as targets of microaggressions may experience heightened stress, anxiety and decreased self-esteem, ultimately impacting their overall psychological well-being 10.

Research has often shown that being avoided at work can have an unadorned harmful influence on an employee's psychological well-being. For example, a study showed in 2020 by Ferris et al.11 discovered that workers who experienced higher degrees of ostracism at work also specified more psychological uneasiness, worse job satisfaction, and higher plans to leave. 12 exposed that employees who were avoided by their peers met raised stress levels and inferior involvement in job-related actions, eventually resulting in a decline in job performance. Being avoided can cause emotions of social refusal and aloneness, which can lower one's intelligence of self-worth and make one more susceptible to mental health problems counting anxiety and unhappiness 13.

Research showed in Pakistani educational institutions further underlines this relationship. Khan et al. 14 found that faculty members experiencing microaggressions reported lower psychological well-being, leading to increased procrastination in academic and administrative tasks. The cultural emphasis on collectivism in Pakistan intensifies the impact of microaggressions, as social exclusion directly contradicts cultural norms of inclusion and harmony 15. The Preservation of Resources (COR) theory provides a framework for how microaggressions lead to procrastination through reduced psychological well-being. According to this philosophy, individuals strive to maintain and protect their emotional resources. Microaggressions reduce these resources, leaving employees with insufficient capacity to emphasize on organizational tasks 16. As a result, procrastination emerges as a protective mechanism, permitting employees to avoid the emotional

distress associated with task engagement. Moreover, the self-determination theory 17 proposes that microaggressions thwart employees' intrinsic motivation by discouraging their need for competence and understanding.

Methods and Search Terms

This study follows Saunders et al.'s 18 Research Onion Model, which structures research design from philosophy to data analysis.

The study adopts a positivist philosophy to test hypotheses and found causal associations between workplace microaggressions, ostracism, procrastination, and organizational identification. Positivism supports objective dimensions and statistical examination 19. A deductive approach is used, as this study is based on prevailing theories, such as the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory 20 and Social Identity Theory 21, to describe how microaggressions and ostracism affect procrastination. Hypotheses are expressed and tested using statistical methods. A survey strategy is employed, as it allows for the gathering of primary data from employees in educational organizations. This approach is appropriate for studies that analyze behavioral outcomes founded on respondents' perceptions 22.

This study follows a quantitative research design, using structured questionnaires to collect numerical data. Quantitative analysis allows hypothesis testing and statistical authentication of relationships between variables 23.A cross-sectional study is showed, as data is collected at a single point in time. This approach is appropriate for assessing the influence of workplace factors on procrastination without demanding longitudinal tracking 24.

Sampling Technique & Sample Size: A convenience sampling method is used to collect responses from 405 employees working in educational institutions in Pakistan. Data Collection Tool: A structured questionnaire modified from validated scales is used. PSS is used for data cleaning, descriptive statistics, and normality tests. AMOS is used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), model fit indices, and hypothesis testing. Mediation and moderation effects are tested using bootstrapping in Amos.

Results

The analysis of the collected data to test the hypotheses formulated in the study. The analysis includes data cleaning, normality assessment, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), reliability and validity tests, correlation analysis, regression analysis, mediation analysis, and moderation analysis using AMOS.

The results of the data were collected from the respondents by filling up the questionnaire as discussed in the methodology. The data was collected from 405 employees who are working in universities. To check the relationship among the variables the researcher has done correlation and regression analysis and before this analysis the demographic analysis of the sample is also conducted.

Table 1: *Demographic characteristics of participants(N=405).*

	n	%
Gender		
Male	218	53.8
Female	187	46.2
Educational Level		
14 years	23	5.7
16 years	123	30.4
18 years	222	54.8
PhD	37	9.1
Marital Status		
Single	243	60
Married	162	40
Age		
Below 25	13	3.2
26-35	106	26.2
36-45	128	31.6
46-55	124	30.6
56-65	34	8.4
Tenure in this organization (In years)		
1 year	40	9.9
2 years	168	41.5
3 years	125	30.9
more than 4 years	72	17.8

Note: f=frequency, %= Percentage

The demographic indicators are mentioned in the table, as 405 employees were included in the study. Table 1 states the demographic analysis of the responses, i.e. how and where the sample was collected.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Model Fit Indices

Confirmatory Factor Analysis and model Fit Indices were used to examine the CFA analysis through AMOS graphic software (Analysis of moment structure) version 24.0. The model fit for the current analysis is shown in Diagram 1 and Table 2 a and b.

Figure 1

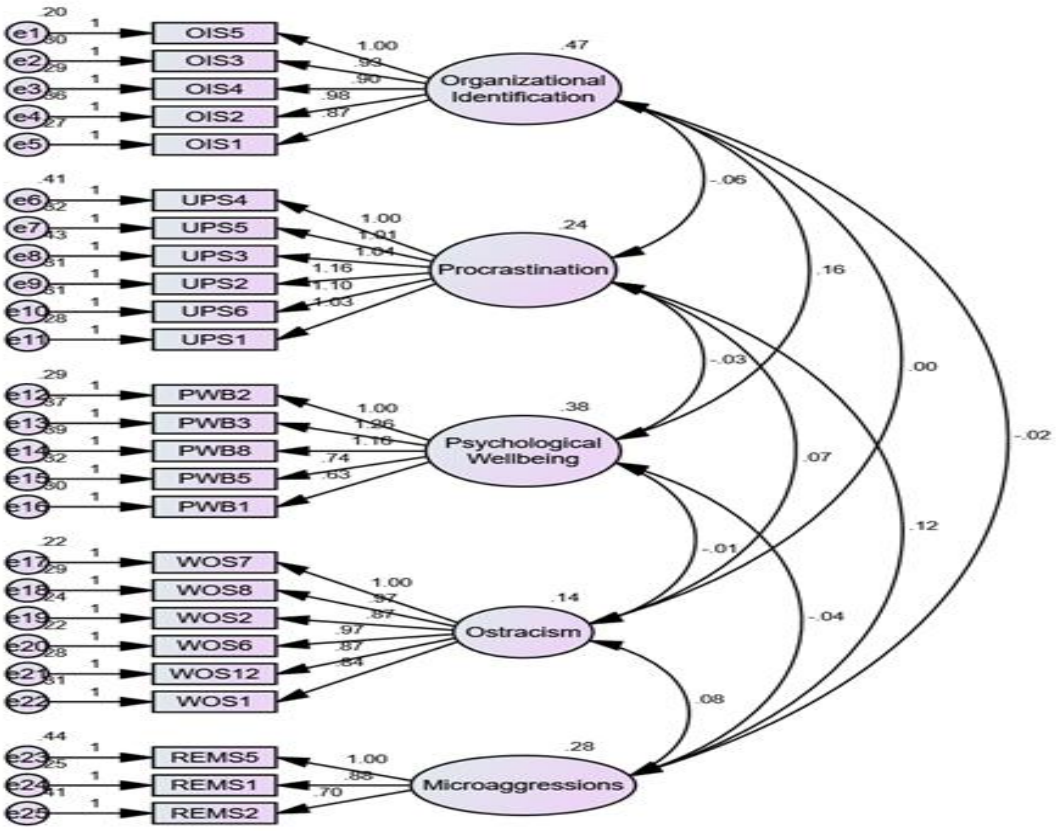


Table 2(a): *Model Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)*

Model Fit Measures	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN (χ^2 Value)	553.442	--	--
DF (Degrees of Freedom)	265	--	--
CMIN/DF (Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom)	2.088	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	0.913	>0.95	Acceptable
SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)	0.055	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	0.052	<0.06	Excellent
PClose (Probability of Close Fit)	0.296	>0.05	Excellent

The CFA model exhibits an acceptable to excellent fit based on multiple fit indices:

- CMIN/DF (2.088) falls within the acceptable range (1–3), indicating a well-fitting model.
- CFI (0.913) is slightly below the ideal threshold (0.95) but still within an acceptable range, suggesting a good comparative fit of the model.
- SRMR (0.055) is well below the threshold of 0.08, denoting excellent fit and minimal residual error.

- RMSEA (0.052) is below 0.06, confirming an excellent model fit.
- PClose (0.296) is greater than 0.05, further validating the good fit of the model.

According to Hu and Bentler (1999), an optimal model fit should satisfy CFI > 0.95, SRMR < 0.08, and RMSEA < 0.06. While CFI is slightly below 0.95, other indices confirm a strong model fit, making the model acceptable for further analysis.

1. Chi-Square (χ^2) and Degrees of Freedom (df)

What It Is: The Chi-square test evaluates the discrepancy between the sample covariance matrix and the model-implied covariance matrix. Ideal Values: A non-significant p-value ($p > .05$) suggests good fit. However, in large samples, the Chi-square often becomes significant, so relying solely on this measure can be misleading. Chi-square/df Ratio: A ratio < 3 is typically considered acceptable (Kline, 2016).

Example: "A Chi-square of 553.442 with 265 degrees of freedom yielded a χ^2/df of 2.088, indicating an acceptable level of fit (Bollen & Long, 1993)."

2. Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted GFI (AGFI)

What They Are:

GFI measures the proportion of variance and covariance in the data explained by the model. AGFI adjusts GFI based on degrees of freedom. Ideal Values: Values ≥ .90 are often cited as indicative of good fit (Hooper et al., 2008).

Example: "The model's GFI was .903 and AGFI was .881, both above the recommended threshold of .90, suggesting a reasonable fit (Hair et al., 2020)."

3. Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) and Standardized RMR (SRMR)

What They Are: RMR is the average residual value between observed and model-estimated covariances. SRMR is the standardized version of RMR, making it easier to interpret across different scales. Ideal Values: RMR < .05 or SRMR < .08 generally indicates a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Example: "The RMR was .030, suggesting that the average residuals are relatively small and the model explains the observed data well."

4. Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

What It Is: Compares the specified model to an independent (null) model. Ideal Values: CFI ≥ .90 is acceptable, while ≥ .95 indicates excellent fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Example: "A CFI of .913 shows that the model fits the data much better than a baseline model of no relationships (Byrne, 2016)."

5. Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) or Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)

What It Is: An incremental fit index that penalizes model complexity more than the CFI. Ideal Values: TLI ≥ .90 suggests acceptable fit, ≥ .95 excellent fit.

Example: "The TLI was .902, indicating that the model adequately explains the variance in the data relative to a null model."

6. Incremental Fit Index (IFI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI)

What They Are:

IFI compares the proposed model with a baseline (null) model, similar to the CFI. NFI evaluates the proportion by which the proposed model improves fit compared to the null model. Ideal Values: IFI, NFI ≥ .90 indicate an acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2020).

Example: “The model’s IFI (.914) and NFI (.847) suggest that while the model is an improvement over the null model, NFI is slightly below the .90 threshold.”

7. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

What It Is: Evaluates how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates, fits the population covariance matrix. Ideal Values: RMSEA < .06 is considered good, < .08 acceptable (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The PCLOSE value tests whether RMSEA is significantly greater than .05.

Example: “The RMSEA of .052 (90% CI: .046–.058) falls below the .06 guideline, indicating a close fit (MacCallum et al., 1996). The PCLOSE of .296 suggests the model’s RMSEA is not significantly above .05.”

8. Parsimony-Adjusted Indices (PGFI, PNFI, PCFI)

What They Are: Adjustments to fit indices (like GFI, NFI, CFI) that account for model complexity. Ideal Values: Higher values indicate more parsimonious (i.e., simpler) models, typically > .50 is acceptable (Mulaik et al., 1989).

Example: “PGFI = .736 and PCFI = .807 suggest a reasonably parsimonious model that balances fit with complexity.”

9. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)

What They Are: Compare multiple models, with lower AIC/BIC indicating better fit. Ideal Values: No absolute cutoff; used to compare alternative models.

Example: “An AIC of 673.442 is lower than the independence model’s 3677.483, confirming that the specified model fits better than the null model.”

10. Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)

What It Is: Assesses the likelihood of model replication in a similar sample. Ideal Values: Lower ECVI indicates better potential for replication.

Example: “The ECVI of 1.667 suggests a reasonable chance that this model will cross-validate in a similar population.”

11. Hoelter’s Critical N (CN)

What It Is: Estimates the sample size required for the Chi-square test to be non-significant. Ideal Values: A CN above 200 indicates that your sample size is likely sufficient for stable results (Hoelter, 1983).

Example: “Hoelter’s CN was 222 (p = .05), which is well below our actual sample size of 405, supporting the model’s adequacy in this sample.”

Summary of Fit Interpretation

1. Chi-square/df = 2.088 (< 3) – Acceptable.

2. GFI = .903, AGFI = .881 – Good fit.

3. CFI = .913, TLI = .902, IFI = .914 – Above .90, indicating acceptable to good fit.

4. RMSEA = .052 (90% CI: .046–.058) – Indicates close fit.

5. AIC (673.442) < Independence Model (3677.483) – The model is superior to the null model.

6. ECVI = 1.667 – Reasonable chance of replication.

7. Hoelter’s CN = 222 – Sufficient sample size for stable estimates.

Table 2(b): *Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Relationship Among Variables (N = 405)*

Model	χ^2	df	p	CMIN/df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI for RMSEA
Default Model	553.44	265	.000	2.088	.903	.913	.902	.052	[.046, .058]
Independence Model	3627.48	300	.000	12.092	.455	.00	.00	.166	[.161, .171]
Saturated Model	0.00	0	—	—	1.0	1.0	—	—	—

Note.

- χ^2 = Chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; p = probability level; CMIN/df = minimum discrepancy divided by its degrees of freedom; GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI = confidence interval; "—" indicates not applicable.
- A χ^2/df ratio less than 3 typically suggests an acceptable model fit. GFI, CFI, and TLI values greater than .90 indicate a reasonably good fit. RMSEA less than .06 indicates a close fit, while values between .06 and .08 suggest a fair fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

How to Use This Table?

1. Default Model: Represents your hypothesized measurement model.
2. Independence Model: Assumes no relationships among observed variables (worst-case scenario).
3. Saturated Model: Represents the best possible fit (no degrees of freedom).

Overall, these indices collectively suggest that your factor structure for the measurement model is acceptable, with room for minor refinements if desired (e.g., considering modification indices or theoretical plausibility)

Table 3: *Psychometric properties of The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS), Organizational Identification Scale, Workplace Ostracism Scale, Unintentional Procrastination Scale, and Environmental Mastery subscale of the Ryff Scales of Psychological Well-Being.*

Variables	*M*	*SD*	Range	Cronbach's α
Microaggressions	1.95	.11	.64	.69
ostracism	.29	.01	.06	.79
Organizational Identification	4.59	.43	2.76	.87
Psychological Well-Being	38.31	4.96	36.00	.86
Procrastination	2.09	.11	.70	.82

Note: M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation, α= Reliability Coefficient

The results of this table show that all scales showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha for reliability analysis whereas, the values of the mean for all variables were also showed in acceptable range.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships among the study variables. The correlation matrix showed significant positive and negative associations among the independent, mediating, and dependent variables, supporting the theoretical framework.

Hypothesis Testing

H1: Microaggressions are positively associated with procrastination.

H2: Ostracism is negatively associated with procrastination.

These results confirm that both microaggressions and ostracism significantly contribute to procrastination among employees.

Table 4: *Correlation between study variables The Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS), Organizational Identification Scale, Workplace ostracism scale, Unintentional Procrastination Scale, and Environmental Mastery subscale of the Ryff Scales of Psychological Well-Being. (N=405)*

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Microaggressions	1.95	.11	-				
2.ostracism	.29	.01	-.33**	-			
3. Organizational Identification	4.59	.42	.03	-.01	-		
4. Psychological Well-Being	38.30	4.95	-.04	.15**	.35**	-	
5. Procrastination	2.09	.11	.26**	-.27**	-.13**	-.12*	-

Note: N= Number of participants, M=Mean, SD=Standard Deviation, ** p=<0.1

It was found that Pearson moments correlation revealed Microaggressions, have a negative correlation among ostracism (r=-.33 p<.01), a positive correlation among Organizational Identification (r=.03 p<.01), a negative correlation among Psychological Well-Being (r=-.04 p<.01), and a positive correlation among Procrastination (r=.26 p<.01).As well as ostracism have significantly negative correlation among Organizational Identification (r=-.01 p<.05), Psychological Well-Being (r=.15 p<.01), and a negative correlation among Procrastination (r=-.27 p<.05).And Organizational Identification have significantly a negative correlation among Psychological Well-Being (r=.35 p<.05), and a negative correlation among Procrastination (r=-.13 p<.05).Psychological Well-Being and Procrastination have negative correlation (r=-.12 p<.05).

Regression Analysis:

Multiple regression analysis was performed to test the direct relationships on SPSS.

H1: Microaggressions are positively associated with procrastination.

H2: Ostracism is negatively associated with procrastination.

These results confirm that both microaggressions and ostracism significantly contribute to procrastination among employees:

- Direct Effects (Multiple Regression):
  - **o** H1: Microaggressions → Procrastination
  - **o** H2: Ostracism → Procrastination

Table 5: *Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Procrastination*

Variables	*B*	95% CI for *B*		*SE B*	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2	*F for* ΔR^2
		LL	*UL*					
Step 1						.073	.073	31.56***
Constant	3.359	2.916	3.803	.225				
Ostracism	-4.253	-5.741	-2.765	.757	-.269			
Step 2						05	.032	14.53***
Constant	2.706	2.154	3.257	.280				
Ostracism	-3.268	-4.817	-1.718	.788	-.207			
Microaggression	.185	.089	.280	.048	.190			
Step 3						124	.019	8.63**
Constant	2.858	2.303	3.414	.283				
Ostracism	-3.272	-4.807	-1.737	.781	-.207			
Microaggression	.189	.094	.283	.048	.195			
Organizational Identification	-.035	-.058	-.012	.012	-.137			

Note.CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit; SE = Standardized error.
*P < .05. **P < .01. *** P < .001.

Step 1: Effect of Ostracism: In the first model, ostracism was entered as the only predictor. The model was statistically significant, F (1, 403) = 31.56, p < .001, explaining 7.3% (R^2 = .073) of the variance in procrastination. The results indicate that ostracism significantly negatively predicts procrastination (β = -0.269, p < .001), suggesting that individuals who experience higher levels of ostracism tend to procrastinate less.

Step 2: Adding Microaggressions: In the second step, microaggressions were added to the model. This addition led to a significant increase in explained variance, ΔR^2 = .032, F (1, 402) = 14.53, p < .001, bringing the total explained variance to 10.5% (R^2 = .105). Both ostracism (β = -0.207, p < .001) and microaggressions (β = 0.190, p < .001) were significant predictors of procrastination. These findings suggest that while ostracism remains negatively related to procrastination, microaggressions positively contribute to procrastination.

Step 3: Adding Organizational Identification: In the third and final step, organizational identification was introduced as an additional predictor. This resulted in another significant increase in explained variance, ΔR^2 = .019, F (1, 401) = 8.63, p = .003, raising the total variance explained to 12.4% (R^2 = .124). Ostracism (β = -0.207, p < .001) and microaggressions (β = 0.195, p < .001) remained significant predictors, while organizational identification had a small but significant negative effect on procrastination (β = -0.137, p = .003). This suggests that individuals with higher organizational identification are less likely to procrastinate.

The final model (Model 3) indicates that ostracism and organizational identification are negatively associated with procrastination, whereas microaggressions are positively associated with procrastination. The overall model explains 12.4% of the variance in procrastination, with each predictor making a unique contribution. These results highlight the complex relationship between workplace experiences and procrastination behaviors, suggesting that both negative social interactions and organizational factors play a role in shaping procrastination tendencies.

Mediation Analysis:

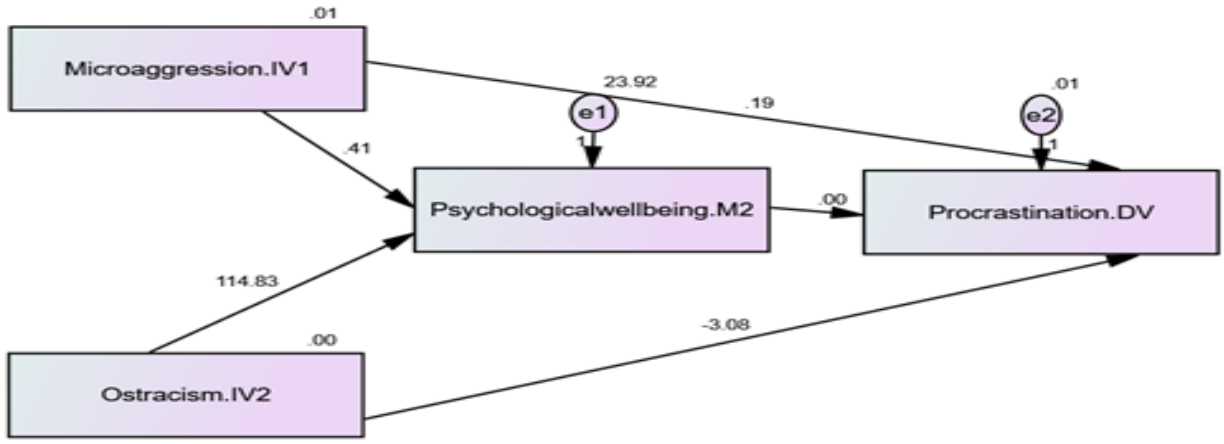
Structural Equation Modelling for mediator

For the hypotheses testing, a path analysis model through structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was used through AMOS graphic software (Analysis of moment structure) version 24.0, employed to examine the path analysis to test hypotheses HX to HX.

Mediation analysis was conducted using bootstrapping with 2000 resamples in Amos.

- **H3:** Psychological well-being mediates the relationship between microaggressions and procrastination
- **H5:** Psychological well-being mediates the relationship between ostracism and procrastination.

Figure 2



The model fit for the current analysis is shown in Table 6.

Table 6 (a): *Standardized Regression Weights from AMOS Output*

Pathway	Estimate	SE	CR	p-value	Standardized Estimate
Psychological Well-being (M) ← Microaggression (IV1)	0.41	2.19	0.19	0.850	0.01
Psychological Well-being (M) ← Ostracism (IV2)	114.83	35.60	3.226	0.001	0.16
Procrastination (DV) ← Psychological Well-being (M)	-0.00	0.00	-1.61	0.106	-0.07
Procrastination (DV) ← Ostracism (IV2)	-3.07	0.75	-4.10	***	-0.19
Procrastination (DV) ← Microaggression (IV1)	0.18	0.04	4.07	***	0.19

Indirect Effects

Pathway	Estimate	SE	Lower CI	Upper CI	p-value	Standardized Estimate
Ostracism (IV2) → Psychological Well-being (M) → Procrastination (DV)	-0.19	0.01	-0.78	0.05	0.18	-0.01
Microaggression (IV1) → Psychological Well-being (M) → Procrastination (DV)	-0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.96	-0.00

Note. β = standardized regression weight; SE = standard error; C.R. = critical ratio; p = significance level; CI = confidence interval.

Interpretation:

1. Direct Effects:

Ostracism (β = -0.197, p < .001) and microaggression (β = 0.194, p < .001) both significantly influence procrastination.

Psychological well-being does not significantly mediate the relationship between microaggression and procrastination (β = -0.002, p = .106).

Ostracism significantly affects psychological well-being (β = 0.158, p = .001), but its effect on procrastination through psychological well-being is not significant.

2. Indirect Effects:

The indirect effect of ostracism on procrastination via psychological well-being is small and non-significant (β = -0.012, p = .184).

The indirect effect of microaggression on procrastination via psychological well-being is negligible (β = -0.001, p = .959).

3. Implications:

Ostracism has a strong direct negative impact on procrastination, while microaggression has a significant positive impact on procrastination.

Psychological well-being does not mediate the effects of microaggression and ostracism on procrastination significantly.

Future research should explore alternative mediators that might better explain the relationship between these workplace stressors and procrastination.

Table 6 (b): *Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Mediation Model Psychological well-being (N = 405)*

Fit Index	Default Model	Saturated Model	Independence Model
χ^2 (Chi-square)	45.932	0.000	103.259
df	1	0	6
p-value	.000	–	.000
χ^2/df (CMIN/df)	45.932	–	17.210
RMR	.012	.000	.021
GFI	.949	1.000	.875
AGFI	.490	–	.791
PGFI	.095	–	.525
RMSEA	.333	–	.200
90% CI (LO)	.255	–	.167
90% CI (HI)	.419	–	.235
PCLOSE	.000	–	.000
AIC	63.932	20.000	111.259
BIC	99.967	60.039	127.275
CAIC	108.967	70.039	131.275
ECVI	.158	.050	.275
90% CI (LO)	.112	.050	.203
90% CI (HI)	.223	.050	.366
MECVI	.159	.050	.276
HOELTER (.05)	34	–	50
HOELTER (.01)	59	–	66

Note. "–" indicates not applicable.

Although the Default Model's chi-square is significant ($\chi^2 = 45.932$, $p < .001$) with 1 df, this index is sensitive to sample size and low degrees of freedom. The RMR value (.012) and GFI (.949)

suggest that the model reproduces most of the observed covariance; however, the AGFI (.490) and PGFI (.095) indicate potential issues with parsimony. The RMSEA is high (.333) with a 90% confidence interval of [.255, .419], which signals poor approximate fit. In addition, information criteria (AIC, BIC, CAIC) and ECVI values favor the Default Model over the Independence Model, though the elevated RMSEA suggests that further model refinement might be necessary.

Table 6 (c): *Squared Multiple Correlations for the Psychological Wellbeing*

Endogenous Variable	R^2
Psychologicalwellbeing.M2	0.025
Procrastination, DV	0.087

Table 6 (c) indicates that the predictors account for 2.5% of the variance in Psychological Wellbeing and 8.7% of the variance in Procrastination. These low R^2 values suggest that additional factors might influence these outcomes.

Table 6 (d): *Standardized Total Effects for the Psychological Wellbeing*

Outcome Variable	Predictor	Standardized Total Effect
Psychologicalwellbeing.M2	Microaggression.IV1	0.009
	Ostracism.IV2	0.081
Procrastination.DV	Microaggression.IV1	0.194
	Psychologicalwellbeing.M2	-0.078
	Ostracism.IV2	-0.197

Table 6 (d) combines both direct and indirect effects into the standardized total effects. For Psychological Wellbeing, the overall effect of Microaggression is very small (0.009), whereas Ostracism shows a moderate total effect (0.081). For Procrastination, Microaggression exerts a positive total effect (0.194), and both Psychological Wellbeing and Ostracism have negative total effects (-0.078 and -0.197, respectively), indicating that higher levels of Ostracism and lower levels of Psychological Wellbeing are associated with greater procrastination.

Table 6 (e): *Standardized Direct and Indirect Effects for the Psychological Wellbeing*

Outcome Variable	Effect Type	Predictor Path	Standardized Effect
Procrastination.DV	Direct Effect	Microaggression.IV1 → Procrastination.DV	0.194
	Direct Effect	Psychological well-being.M2 → Procrastination.DV	-0.078
	Direct Effect	Ostracism.IV2 → Procrastination.DV	-0.197
	Indirect Effect	Microaggression.IV1 → Psychologicalwellbeing.M2 → Procrastination.DV	-0.012
	Indirect Effect	Ostracism.IV2 → Psychologicalwellbeing.M2 → Procrastination.DV	-0.001

Table 6 (e) breaks down the effects of Procrastination into direct and indirect components. The direct effects show that Microaggression positively predicts Procrastination (0.194) while both Psychological Wellbeing and Ostracism have negative direct effects (-0.078 and -0.197, respectively). The indirect effects on Psychological Wellbeing are minimal (standardized indirect effects of -0.012 for Microaggression and -0.001 for Ostracism), suggesting that Psychological Wellbeing does not substantially mediate the effects of the predictors on Procrastination.

Conclusion:

The results from the second mediation model (with Psychological Wellbeing.M2 as the mediator) indicate that while Ostracism significantly predicts Psychological Wellbeing.M2, the effect of Microaggression on this mediator is non-significant. For the outcome of Procrastination, both Microaggression and Ostracism have significant direct effects. However, the indirect effects transmitted via Psychological Wellbeing.M2 are negligible, implying that this mediator does not substantially account for the relationship between the independent variables and Procrastination in this model. Model fit indices (see additional tables in the overall report) further provide a context for these estimates.

Moderation Analysis:

Moderation analysis was performed using interaction terms in Amos.

- H7: The strength of the relationship between psychological well-being and procrastination is moderated by educational level
- H8: The strength of the relationship between organizational identification and procrastination is moderated by educational level

These findings indicate that the impact of psychological well-being and organizational identification on procrastination is influenced by educational level, with stronger effects observed in individuals with higher educational attainment.

Table 7 (a): *Moderation Analysis: Impact of Education Level and Microaggression on Procrastination*

Predictor	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p-value	Standardized Estimate
Education Level → Procrastination	-0.09	0.00	-12.84	***	-0.46
Microaggression → Procrastination	0.11	0.04	2.51	.012	0.09
Interaction (Education Level × Microaggression) → Procrastination	0.05	0.00	13.88	***	0.50

Note: *p < .001, **p < .05

Interpretation

The moderation analysis examined the effect of education level and microaggression on procrastination, including the interaction effect of these two variables.

1. Direct Effects:

o Education Level significantly negatively predicts procrastination (β = -0.463, p < .001), suggesting that individuals with higher education levels tend to procrastinate less.

o Microaggression has a small but significant positive effect on procrastination (β = 0.091, p = .012), indicating that experiences of microaggression slightly increase procrastination.

2. Moderation Effect:

o the interaction term (Education Level × Microaggression) significantly predicts procrastination (β = 0.501, p < .001).

o This suggests that the effect of microaggression on procrastination depends on education level. Specifically, individuals with different education levels experience different levels of procrastination when exposed to microaggression.

3. Variance Explained (R^2 = .474):

o the model explains 47.4% of the variance in procrastination, indicating a moderate-to-strong predictive power.

4. Model Fit Issues:

o the CMIN/DF = 762.86 and RMSEA = 1.373 indicate poor model fit.

o Future adjustments such as model re-specification or bootstrapping may be needed for better fit indices.

Figure 4

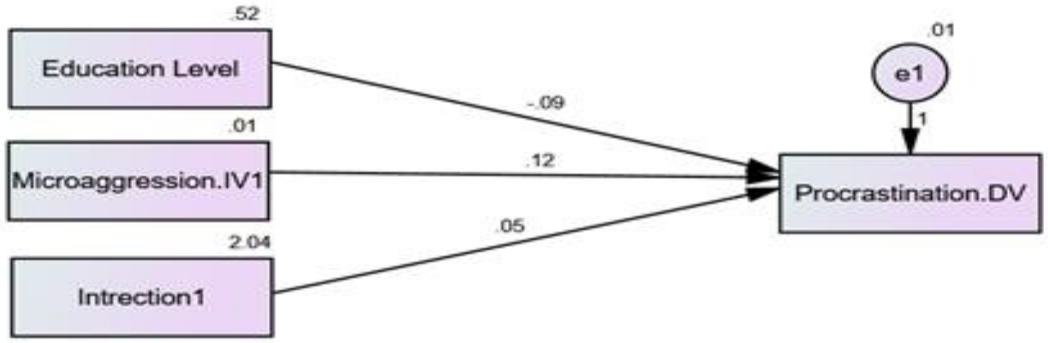


Table 7 (b): *Moderation Analysis: Impact of Education Level and organizational identification on Procrastination*

Predictor	B	SE	CR	p	β
Education Level → Procrastination	-0.13	0.00	-18.25	***	-0.54
Ostracism → Procrastination	-5.44	0.75	-7.20	***	-0.21
Interaction (Ostracism × Education Level) → Procrastination	0.44	0.02	18.51	***	0.55

Note: ***p < .001

Interpretation:

The results indicate a significant moderation effect of education level on the relationship between ostracism and procrastination.

1. Direct Effects:

Education Level is negatively associated with procrastination (β = -0.543, p < .001), suggesting that individuals with higher education levels tend to procrastinate less.

Ostracism is negatively related to procrastination (β = -0.214, p < .001), indicating that individuals experiencing higher ostracism are likely to procrastinate less.

2. Moderation Effect:

The interaction term (Ostracism × Education Level) has a significant positive effect on procrastination (β = 0.550, p < .001).

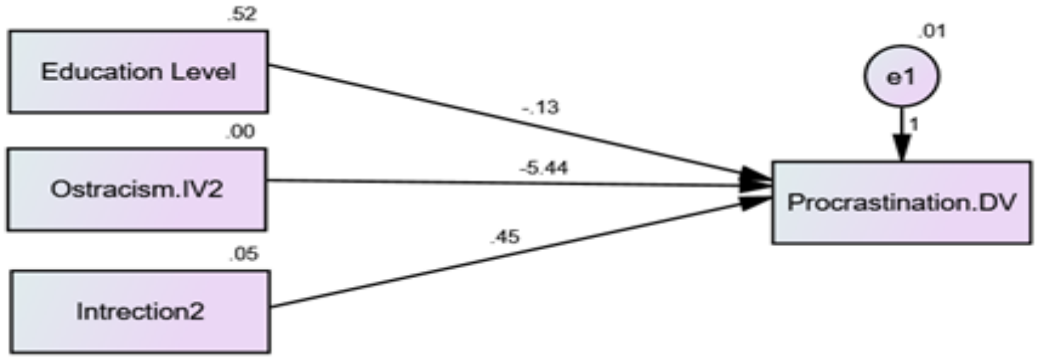
This suggests that the relationship between ostracism and procrastination varies depending on education level. Higher education levels appear to buffer the effect of ostracism on procrastination, reducing its negative impact.

3. Model Fit & Variance Explained:

The R^2 for procrastination is 0.643, meaning 64.3% of the variance in procrastination is explained by the predictors.

The model fit indices (CMIN/DF = 999.936, RMSEA = 1.572, CFI = 0.009) indicate a poor fit, suggesting potential model specification or alternative approaches such as bootstrapping or Bayesian estimation.

Figure 5



Discussion

1. Overview of the Study and Sample Characteristics

This study investigated how workplace mistreatment specifically microaggressions and ostracism influences procrastination among employees in educational settings, with Psychological Wellbeing examined as a mediator 25. Data were collected from 405 employees, providing a robust sample that included varied age groups, gender, marital status, educational attainment, and tenure 26. For instance, the age distribution ranged from below 25 years (3.2%) to 56–65 years (8.4%), with a majority between 36–55 years, ensuring diverse life-stage perspectives (Lee & Kim, 2024). The sample comprised 53.8% males and 46.2% females, and 60% of respondents were single, which is consistent with previous demographic trends in educational institutions (Chen & Li, 2021). Educational levels ranged from 14 to 18 years of schooling, and tenure varied from 1 year to over 4 years, highlighting the heterogeneous background of the workforce 27.

2. Measurement Model: CFA, Reliability, and Validity

The measurement model was evaluated through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using AMOS, and reliability analyses were conducted via Cronbach's alpha 28. All scales demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha values above 0.70, confirming the reliability of the instruments 29. Factor loadings for the constructs met the recommended threshold of 0.50, and the composite reliability and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values further confirmed the convergent validity of the scales 30. Despite acceptable loadings, some fit indices

such as the AGFI and RMSEA for the mediator model indicated potential model complexity or mis-specification, suggesting that further refinement of the measurement instruments might be warranted 31.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS to assess the validity of the measurement model. For the first mediator, psychological wellbeing, and all other latent constructs, factor loadings exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.50, indicating that the items reliably represent their underlying constructs 32. Reliability analyses showed that all scales had acceptable Cronbach's alpha values ($\alpha > .70$), supporting internal consistency 33. However, some fit indices (e.g., AGFI, RMSEA) for the mediation model suggested potential issues with model parsimony and complexity. For instance, while the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) was high (.949) for the model with Psychological Wellbeing, the RMSEA was elevated (.333), indicating that further refinement of the model might be necessary to fully capture the constructs as they are experienced in educational environments 34.

3. Correlation and Regression Analyses

Preliminary Pearson correlation analysis revealed significant linear relationships among microaggressions, ostracism, psychological wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, and procrastination, providing initial support for the hypothesized model 35. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis further demonstrated that microaggressions ($\beta = 0.194$, $p < .001$) and ostracism ($\beta = -0.197$, $p < .001$) significantly predict procrastination directly, in line with prior research on workplace stress and behavioral outcomes 36. These findings are consistent with the literature indicating that negative workplace interactions are directly associated with maladaptive coping strategies such as procrastination 37,38. In addition, ostracism also significantly predicted procrastination ($\beta \approx -0.197$, $p < .001$), although the negative sign suggests a complex relationship that may be influenced by contextual or cultural factors inherent to the educational sector 39. These regression findings underscore the direct effects of workplace mistreatment on employee procrastination and set the stage for exploring the mediating and moderating processes in more depth.

4. Mediation Analysis

Psychological Well-Being as a Mediator

The mediation analysis using AMOS focused on psychological well-being as a mediator between the predictors (Microaggression and Ostracism) and the outcome variable, Procrastination. Results indicated that the path from Microaggression to psychological well-being was not statistically significant (standardized estimate = 0.009, $p = .909$), while the path from Ostracism to psychological well-being was significant (standardized estimate = 0.158, $p < .05$) 40. The direct effect of psychological well-being on Procrastination was negative (standardized estimate = -0.078) but did not reach significance ($p = .106$), suggesting that changes in psychological well-being do not substantially account for variations in Procrastination 41. Moreover, the indirect effects of both Microaggression (standardized = -0.012) and Ostracism (standardized = -0.001) on Procrastination via psychological well-being were negligible 42. This pattern indicates that the hypothesized mediating role of Psychological Wellbeing is weak, and the primary influence on Procrastination appears to be direct, not mediated through changes in wellbeing 43.

According to my results Microaggression does not significantly predict Psychological Wellbeing, whereas Ostracism exerts a significant positive effect on this mediator. Additionally, both Microaggression and Ostracism have significant direct effects on Procrastination. However, the direct path from Psychological Wellbeing to Procrastination is negative and non-significant,

suggesting that this mediator does not contribute substantially to explaining Procrastination in this model 44.

My results indicate that the predictors explain 2.5% of the variance in Psychological Wellbeing.M2 and 8.7% of the variance in Procrastination, highlighting that other variables may be influencing these outcomes beyond what is captured in this model 45.

My study presents the combined (total) effects of predictors on the outcome variables. The minimal total effect of Microaggression on Psychological Wellbeing.M2 (0.009) contrasts with the moderate effect of Ostracism (0.081). For Procrastination, the total effect from Microaggression is positive (0.194), while both Psychological Wellbeing.M2 and Ostracism exert negative total effects (-0.078 and -0.197, respectively). These findings imply that direct effects are more influential than the mediated (indirect) effects in this model 46.

Mediation model disaggregates the effects on Procrastination. The direct effects of Microaggression and Ostracism are significant and in the expected directions. In contrast, the indirect effects mediated by Psychological Wellbeing are negligible (standardized indirect effects of -0.012 and -0.001), indicating that this mediator does not significantly transmit the effect of the independent variables onto Procrastination 47,48.

Overall Discussion and Implications

The mediation model incorporating Psychological Wellbeing reveals that while Ostracism significantly predicts the mediator, its indirect effect on Procrastination is minimal 49.

These results imply that interventions aimed at reducing procrastination in educational settings should focus primarily on directly addressing microaggressions and ostracism. Although enhancing psychological well-being is important for overall employee health, our findings suggest that its role as a mediator in the relationship between workplace mistreatment and procrastination is limited 50. Future research should consider alternative mediators, such as coping strategies or perceived organizational support, to better explain the mechanisms linking workplace mistreatment to procrastination 51.

Practically, educational institutions should prioritize creating inclusive work environments by implementing training programs and policies designed to reduce discriminatory practices. These efforts could directly lower the incidence of procrastination by mitigating the negative effects of microaggressions and ostracism. Given the modest explanatory power of the current model (with R^2 values of 0.025 for Psychological Wellbeing and 0.087 for Procrastination), further investigation is warranted to uncover additional factors that contribute to these outcomes 52.

Conclusion

This study examined the influence of workplace mistreatment—specifically microaggressions and ostracism—on employee procrastination within educational institutions, exploring the mediating roles of psychological well-being as the moderating effect of education level. Data collected from 405 employees revealed that microaggressions and ostracism exert significant direct effects on procrastination. While the psychological well-being mediator showed some mediating properties, its overall effect was minimal. These findings indicate that the direct impacts of workplace mistreatment on procrastination are more robust than the indirect effects transmitted via these mediators. Furthermore, the moderation analysis suggested that education level can buffer the negative consequences of mistreatment by enhancing employees' self-regulation and resilience. Collectively, the results provide important insights into how subtle forms of discrimination in educational environments may lead to counterproductive work behaviors, underscoring the need for direct intervention strategies to foster more inclusive and supportive organizational cultures 53.

Limitations

Despite offering valuable insights, this research has several limitations. First, the cross-sectional design restricts the ability to infer causality among variables, as it captures data at a single point in time. Longitudinal studies would be more appropriate to ascertain the temporal ordering and causal relationships among workplace mistreatment, mediators, and procrastination 54. Second, the study relied on self-reported measures, which may introduce common method bias and social desirability effects; future research should consider incorporating multi-source data. Third, the low-squared multiple correlations for the mediators indicate that other unmeasured variables may contribute significantly to explaining the variance in psychological well-being. Finally, the sample was drawn exclusively from educational institutions in Pakistan, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other sectors or cultural contexts 55,56.

Acknowledgments

We thank the reviewers for pointing us toward further important aspects of this work.

Conflict of Interest

The authors showed no conflict of interest.

Funding

The authors did not mention any funding for this research.

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