



Detrimental impact of employees' job demand on their workplace incivility behaviour: Restorative role of self-efficacy

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ABSTRACT

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This study aimed to measure the impact of employees' job demands as a stressor on exhibiting their uncivil behavior at the workplace and the remedial role of self-efficacy for the detrimental effect of job demand on workplace incivility behavior. Research on employees' uncivil behavior in the workplace is crucial to understanding its causes, impacts, and potential interventions, enabling organizations to foster a respectful and productive work environment, enhance employee well-being, and optimize organizational performance. Employees of the Nepalese cooperative industry participated in a survey to gather empirical data. The perceptual cross-sectional data were analyzed using a positivist research methodology and deductive reasoning. Altogether, 495 responses were analyzed quantitatively using "Analysis of Moment Structure" (AMOS) software and graphically presented. The result revealed that employees' perceived job demand positively affected ($B = 0.43, p < 0.001$) their workplace incivility behavior. At the same time, self-efficacy had a negative impact ($B = -0.32, p < 0.001$) on uncivil behavior at the workplace. In addition, self-efficacy moderated ($B = -0.47, p < 0.001$) the connection between job demand and workplace incivility behavior. Job demands positively impacted incivility for employees with low self-efficacy, but the effect was insignificant for those with high self-efficacy. Moreover, employees with low perceived job demand exhibit higher workplace incivility behavior (WIB) when they have high self-efficacy compared to low self-efficacy. These findings have implications for addressing job demands and fostering self-efficacy to mitigate workplace incivility. Further avenues for research are discussed.

Contribution/Originality: This study developed and tested a model that incorporates job nature as a source of employees' workplace incivility behavior and self-efficacy as a mitigator of the detrimental effect of job demand on workplace incivility behavior.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to the fast-paced nature of modern work life and the use of technology, some people claim that their busy schedules leave them with little room to show compassion (Pearson & Porath, 2005). There has been a dramatic rise in reports of coworkers being unpleasant to workers (Irum, Ghosh, & Pandey, 2020). Usually, managers witness employees' acts of violence, aggressiveness, or simply uncivil behavior in the working environment. According to Lim and Lee (2011), nine out of ten workers claim that some unfriendly behavior has occurred in their workplace.

The prevalence of workplace incivility is higher than that of other harmful behaviors. Similarly, according to [Porath and Pearson \(2013\)](#), 99% of workers saw and experienced incivility at work. Evidence indicates that workplace incivility can fundamentally contribute to employees' psychological fatigue, sadness, vengefulness, antisocial behavior, and drop-in productivity at work ([Naeem, Weng, Ali, & Hameed, 2020](#)). According to empirical evidence, workplace incivility has a negative impact on employee retention, organizational commitment, and job happiness by raising administrative costs and lowering profits ([Estes & Wang, 2008](#)). Though formal studies are insufficient, it is easily predictable that many managers fail to anticipate the negative impacts of unruly behavior in an organization. Therefore, studies on identifying different sources and routes of employees' uncivil behavior at the workplace are essential so managers can appropriately intervene in its origins and pathways.

[Zhou, Meier, and Spector \(2019\)](#) state that supervisors, leaders, seniors, colleagues, customers, clients, etc., are the significant sources of employees' workplace incivility behavior empirically tested in different contexts. All these sources are human beings with whom employees are connected directly or indirectly while fulfilling their responsibilities. But other factors, besides human beings, are an integral part of the employees' working environment. Job nature, human beings, and equipment are all necessary factors in the workplace. Additionally, the characteristics of the jobs connect and demand human beings and equipment. Therefore, the aspect of the job itself might impact employee behavior. If the job is stressful, that might create strain and frustration ([Diestel & Schmidt, 2009](#)) for employees, who might exhibit incivility behavior at the workplace. But, to the best review of this study, researchers have paid little attention to the survey that measures job demand as a source of employees' workplace incivility behavior.

Moreover, employees' WIB is inevitable at the workplace ([Irum et al., 2020; Lim & Lee, 2011; Porath & Pearson, 2013](#)), and no organization is free from such behavior. WIB's presence at the workplace is miserable because it is detrimental to employees and the organization ([Estes & Wang, 2008](#)). Organizations cannot eliminate it, but proper intervention can mitigate its impact. Therefore, a study exploring the factors that reduce the effect of sources of WIB is necessary. According to the Job-Demand-Resource (JDR) model, using personal resources is crucial for dealing with a depleting work environment ([Boudrias et al., 2011](#)). According to [Hobfoll \(2002\)](#), personal resources pertain to the psychological abilities that empower individuals to exhibit flexibility and adaptability in situations that deplete their resources. Besides many personal resources, self-efficacy is a vital, unique asset with an excellent relationship to resiliency and perceived control ([Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003](#)). Hence, the impact of job demands on WIB could be different for people with high and low self-efficacy. However, based on a thorough examination of the current study, no empirical research has been conducted to verify the mentioned association.

It is a well-known perception in Nepali organizations that *Bhansun* primarily influences employment opportunities and relationships ([Bhattarai, 2021](#)). [Bhattarai and Budhathoki \(2023\)](#) have stated that *Bhansun* is "to affect the course of decision-making for one's advantage through political leaders, union leaders, or any other prominent individual." Nepalese society has a deep-rooted concept that without *Bhansun*, it is hard to get a job, get a promotion, and contact proper authorities and responsibilities. Consequently, employees' perceptions of bias and insecurity in the workplace are common. Moreover, due to the influence of *Bhansun* in the employment process, there are fewer chances of selecting and deploying the correct individuals for the right task using the appropriate methods. It results in lower job demand due to the less compatibility of the job's nature and person. Therefore, the perception of job demands and WIB is inevitable in Nepali organizations that always demand solutions. Similarly, it is imperative to consider the specific context when formulating and evaluating theories, as cultural variations across different contexts can impact a particular concept.

Hence, it is essential to understand the association between and among job demand, self-efficacy, and WIB in the Nepali context. In such a context, as a response to the gaps underscored in previous paragraphs, this study was

motivated to measure the impact of job demand on WIB and the remedial role of self-efficacy for the detrimental effect of job demands on WIB.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Workplace Incivility

WIB refers to, according to [Andersson and Pearson \(1999\)](#), "low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, violating workplace norms for mutual respect." It means that the motivation behind an unruly act or behavior is unclear and that the perpetrator, target, or observer may interpret it differently. In their study, [Schilpzand, Leavitt, and Lim \(2016\)](#) categorized workplace incivility into three dimensions: 'experienced incivility,' 'observed incivility,' and 'initiated incivility'. This study focused solely on individual-initiated workplace incivility, specifically looking at the characteristics and actions of workers who act rudely at work. Instances of provoked workplace rudeness, as outlined by [Torkelson, Holm, Bäckström, and Schad \(2016\)](#), encompass actions such as exploiting the work and ideas of others, spreading rumors about coworkers, failing to offer support to subordinates, disregarding colleagues' requests, shouting at coworkers, and undermining the opinions of colleagues with divergent viewpoints. Acts such as being impolite, discourteous, launching personal attacks, or demeaning others in public settings have become prevalent and can be classified as 'uncivil conduct.' According to [Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, and Magley \(2013\)](#), although the underlying causes of such incivility are still unknown, the consequences of such behavior can have grave negative effects. Actions that contravene an organization's established standards of courtesy are defined as workplace incivility, and this pervasive occurrence imposes significant costs on employers ([Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000](#)).

2.2. Job Demands

Job demands are defined by [Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli \(2001\)](#) as "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs." Illustrations of job demands comprise heavy workloads, time pressure, and emotionally challenging client interactions. According to [Diestel and Schmidt \(2009\)](#), work demands are widely recognized organizational stressors associated with multiple measures of job stress, such as anxiety and depression. [Bakker et al. \(2001\)](#) further underscored that persistent job demands, such as excessive workloads, can lead to long-term job strain. According to prior research by [Baillien, De Cuyper, and De Witte \(2011\)](#), having little control over work expectations is frequently associated with workplace bullying. As a result, [Agervold \(2009\)](#) highlighted organizational factors like high work pressure, demanding performance expectations, a lack of social support, and ambiguous job roles. Additionally, according to research by [Francis, Holmvall, and O'Brien \(2015\)](#), overworked workers are more likely to misbehave. Hence, high task expectations in the workplace will impact workers' behavior.

2.3. Job Demand and Workplace Incivility

Employees have been shown to behave inappropriately and defiantly due to workplace stress. According to [Batista and Reio \(2019\)](#), workers who cannot manage their work-related stress are likelier to provoke contempt in others. Ambiguous and excessively demanding work environments can result in emotional exhaustion, manifested in interactions with others ([Koon & Pun, 2018](#)). Furthermore, arduous work duties typically deplete an individual's resources and occasionally make them behave aggressively towards other people. Consequently, disagreements, heavy workloads, and stressful work environments in job roles can be identified as contributing factors to uncivil behaviors, as [Taylor, Bedeian, and Kluemper \(2012\)](#) suggested.

According to [Pearson et al. \(2000\)](#), employees also appear to be under time pressure as a result of having an excessive amount of work and information, which reduces their propensity to behave politely in the workplace.

Additionally, studies by [Van Jaarsveld, Walker, and Skarlicki \(2010\)](#) have shown that employees who experience emotional exhaustion are more likely to behave rudely at work. Recent research by [Torkelson et al. \(2016\)](#) proved that several organizational factors, such as organizational changes, job instability, a lack of social support from coworkers and managers, increased working expectations, and little discretion over one's work schedules, have been identified as potential contributors to workplace incivility. According to earlier studies by [Bennett and Robinson \(2000\)](#) found that employees who are dissatisfied with their current working conditions are more likely to engage in antisocial behavior at work. Moreover, from the perspective of the JDR model of [Bakker et al. \(2001\)](#), job demands can act as stressors that deplete employees' psychological and emotional resources, making them more prone to uncivil behaviors. For example, a heavy caseload, time constraints, and ambiguous roles can create frustration and exhaustion, leading to uncivil actions towards colleagues or supervisors. Moreover, [Chowhan and Pike \(2023\)](#) empirically tested a JDR model reflecting the negative impact of job demand and the positive effect of job resources on employees' job performance via the different roots (i.e., first, work interference, then job stress and job satisfaction). Likewise, [Katou, Koupkas, and Triantafillidou \(2022\)](#) tested the hypothesis that personal resources entirely and negatively mediate the relationship between job resources and work fatigue and partially and positively mediate the relationship between job resources and work engagement. This empirical evidence and arguments expose that employees who feel their job is highly demanding are prone to exhibit WIB as a response to stress and strain created by the job demands. Therefore, this study has postulated the following first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Employees' job demand is a source of their WIB.

2.4. Self-efficacy and Workplace Incivility

According to [Stajkovic and Luthans \(1998\)](#), self-efficacy is among the most influential predictors of employee outcomes, which is conceptualized as "an individual's conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to execute a specific task within a given context successfully" ([Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998](#)). Likewise, [Bandura \(1997\)](#) found several strong associations between the mentioned factor and employee outcomes, indicating a positive relationship. [Bandura \(1997\)](#) research highlights the association between self-efficacy and a range of workplace motivational and behavioral outcomes in a favorable way. Employees who feel confident in their abilities are more likely to exhibit enhanced performance in cognitive skills, motivation, emotional regulation, and decision-making processes. According to [Rhee, Hur, and Kim \(2017\)](#), self-efficacy plays a vital role as a personal resource positively linked to resilience, perceived control, and the ability to make a positive environmental impact. Their study highlights that those with greater levels of self-efficacy are more likely to demonstrate greater resilience, perceive a greater sense of control over their lives, and positively influence the environment. Besides, highly motivated employees believe in coping effectively with job demands and challenging situations. When faced with stressful or demanding circumstances, they are more likely to perceive them as manageable and approach them confidently. This positive belief in their coping abilities reduces the likelihood of experiencing feelings of helplessness or frustration that can contribute to uncivil behavior. Consequently, this investigation has proposed the second hypothesis outlined below.

Hypothesis 2: An increase in employees' self-efficacy causes a decrease in their WIB.

2.5. Self-efficacy as a Moderator

[Bandura \(2010\)](#) highlights that individuals with self-efficacy are likelier to achieve their personal goals. Individuals with greater self-efficacy seemed better equipped to handle challenging and critical tasks. This belief in their abilities enables them to set ambitious goals, persevere in their pursuit, and exemplify resiliency when facing adversity. Moreover, individuals with self-efficacy are more prepared to confront setbacks, bounce back from them, and regain their motivation. [Karatepe and Olugbade \(2009\)](#) propose the JDR model, which emphasizes the significance of personal resources in effectively managing a challenging work environment. Empirically, this model

is tested in different contexts with modifications to reflect the different natures of job demands and resources. For example, extending the JDR model, Bakker and de Vries (2021) state that essential personal resources like proactive personality and emotional intelligence moderate the negative relationship between job strain (created from job demand) and adaptive self-regulation (i.e., recovery and job crafting). These relationships will become positive when employees have more key personal resources. Likewise, Gelaidan, Al-Swidi, and Al-Hakimi (2023) empirically tested that creative self-efficacy (job resource) moderated the relationship between authentic leadership and employees' creativity. Similarly, Tetteh, Dei Mensah, Opata, and Mensah (2023) tested a JDR model where the employee's proactive behavior (job resources) moderated the relationship between autonomy and creativity. Highly proactive workers are in an excellent position to generate more innovative results when given freedom.

According to the JDR model (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009), individual resources play an essential role in the demands and pressures of work. These resources encompass various psychological capacities that enable individuals to navigate and adapt to the taxing aspects of their jobs. By leveraging personal resources, individuals are more prepared to handle their demands and maintain their well-being in a draining work environment. In an uncivil work environment, personal resources encompass the psychological capacities that empower individuals to exhibit flexibility and adaptability in circumstances that deplete their resources (Hobfoll, 2002). These capacities enable individuals to effectively navigate the challenges posed by an uncivil workplace, allowing them to respond and cope with the demands placed upon them in a resilient and versatile manner.

The spiraling framework suggests that individual factors influence their ability to enhance emotional and behavioral responses (Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009). Naeem et al. (2020) incorporated self-efficacy for emotional regulation in their study, which pertains to an individual's confidence in effectively managing negative emotions. According to Wang et al. (2013), those who are pretty confident in their abilities to regulate emotions may be more adept at modifying unfavorable feelings and adjusting their perception of challenging situations, such as job demands or stress.

A person with a strong belief can regulate and adapt to their internal negative emotions, facilitating their recovery from stressful situations (Naeem et al., 2020). Salovey and Grewal (2005) found that people who effectively control their emotions are likelier to bounce back from a stressful event in one area and less likely to transfer their bad feelings to another. This is attributed to their utilization of effective coping strategies and their ability to manage and address negative emotions that arise in the specific incident domain. Conversely, people who don't have confidence in their capacity to self-regulate their feelings are more likely to exhibit inappropriate workplace behavior and externalize their negative emotions (Eisenberg et al., 2005). Furthermore, the JDR model suggests that employment prospects provide things like autonomy, social support, and the possibility for progress, which can offset the adverse effects of job demands and promote positive outcomes. When employees have access to adequate resources (e.g., self-efficacy), they can better cope with job demands, reducing the likelihood of engaging in uncivil behaviors. Therefore, adopting this empirical evidence and theoretical explanation, this study has hypothesized the third proposition as follows:

Hypothesis 3: Employees' self-efficacy mitigates the detrimental impact of job demands on WIB.

3. METHODS

3.1. Measure

Job Demands. This study assessed how workers perceived the demands of their jobs using a six-item Karasek (1979) measures. A five-point Likert scale, with 1 representing the strongest disagreement and 5 being the strongest agreement, was used to evaluate participant replies. An example item from the scale assessing job demands could be, "My job requires me to work fast." The composite reliability of the construction job demand was reported to be 0.92.

Workplace incivility behavior. Cortina, Chen, and Dunlap (2001) first developed the seven-item scale, which Blau and Andersson (2005) updated and used to assess workplace incivility that employees initiated. The scale was evaluated using a Likert-type scale with a maximum score of 5, with one denoting never and five denoting often. One such item was, "I gossiped about someone behind their back." The composite reliability of the construct IWB was reported as 0.93.

Self-efficacy. Rapp, Baker, Bachrach, Ogilvie, and Beitelspacher (2015) created a four-item measure for the measurement of self-efficacy. A representative item on the scale is "I am confident I could deal efficiently with unexpected events." Five-point scales were used to gather responses, with one denoting "not at all true" and five denoting "exactly true." The composite reliability of the construct self-efficacy was 0.86 in the study sample.

3.2. Common Method Variance

While collecting cross-sectional and perceptual data on the Likert scale, there are chances of inflating (or deflating) the association of the variables in the model due to common method variance (CMV). Therefore, the research applied procedural remedies by safeguarding respondent anonymity, lowering assessment anxiety, refining item wording, and splitting the predictor and result factor measurements, as Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012) suggest. After remedial measures, this research verified the CMV before doing additional analyses to ensure that no one primary factor accounted for most of the explained variation. The unrotated factor analysis showed that the first component accounted for just 34.50% (less than 50%) of the total 70.04% variation, providing that it did not present a risk to a common method bias in the research. Hence, the measurement and path models were not controlled for common method bias.

3.3. Sample and Procedure

Empirical evidence (data) was gathered from Nepal's cooperative industry workforce. The Nepalese cooperative industry works for different sectors at the grassroots levels. Moreover, cooperative organizations are less systematic in managing their job and people due to their low capital base, poor access to technology, low economic level of members, uneducated clients, and inadequate knowledge and information regarding business opportunities and marketing capacity. Therefore, it is expected that employees working in such an industry might be more stressed on the job, and due to stress, they might be exposed to uncivil behavior at work.

The survey process began with the collection of a set of questionnaires in the Likert scale format from the Cooperative Division of Nepal. Twenty-five cooperatives were randomly selected from the provided list. Each selected cooperative requested a reference person to facilitate the survey process. With the help of the referent person, 700 questionnaires were sent out to the staff members of 25 chosen cooperatives, providing one week for fill-up. After one week, 557 questionnaires were filled out and returned. The data were screened by removing unengaged and incomplete respondents. Finally, 495 (70.71 %) of the distributed questionnaires were retained for analysis.

3.4. Measurement Model

Before hypothesis testing, to do a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), version 23 of AMOS was used. However, not all statements used to measure the three latent variables were appropriately loaded. As a result, one item assessing WIB was eliminated from the measurement model due to its corresponding latent construct loading below the threshold of .60, as Awang (2015) recommended, to be included in the model. To enhance a "Goodness-of-Fit Index" (GFI), firstly, the three pairs of error terms were correlated; secondly, free parameter estimations were established due to their covariance error term exceeding .30. These pairs included two within the WIB construct and one within the job demand construct, resulting in an improvement in the overall model fit (Awang, 2015). After this, the "Model Fit Measure" was calculated and showed an acceptable threshold value, as suggested

by Gaskin and Lim (2016) and Hu and Bentler (1999). This study estimated that "Minimum Discrepancy Function by Degrees of Freedom Divided" (CMIN/DF) = 2.79 (the threshold for the excellent model is between 1 and 3), "Comparative Fit Index" (CFI) = .97 (a cutoff point for the excellent model is >.95), "Root Mean Square Error of Approximation" (RMSEA) = .059 (a cutoff point for the acceptable model is <.06), and "Probability of a Close Fit" (Pclose) = .02 (a cutoff point for an acceptable model is between .01 and .05). Therefore, the model fit index is acceptable for further analysis.

3.5. Structural Equation Model

A "Structural Equation Model" (SEM) was made to look at the possible paths among hidden variables. Its equality was confirmed by measurements of the fit index. The indicator of the GFI of the hypothesized model exceeded the minimum standards set by Awang (2015) and Gaskin and Lim (2016). The unstandardized regression coefficients of the SEM were used to evaluate the hypothesized direct effects. Figure 1 depicts all the paths with their corresponding unstandardized coefficients, with the oval shapes representing the latent variables. This figure was extracted from the complete structural equation modeling analysis that utilized data imputation (Bhattarai, 2022).

This study has applied the universally accepted procedures and practices of research methods to test workplace management and human behavior theory. Most of the prior model was dedicated to measuring human beings (i.e., supervisors, leaders, seniors, colleagues, customers, clients, etc.) as sources of WIB (Zhou et al., 2019). However, this study has taken the job itself (i.e., the demand for the job) as a source of WIB in the context of Nepalese employment. Moreover, the study model has incorporated the individual's inherent resources (i.e., self-efficacy) as a moderator in connecting job demand to WIB. The moderator (self-efficacy) has been incorporated with the rationale that employees with high and low self-efficacy may not equally exhibit WIB due to job stress.

3.6. Reliability and Validity

According to Peterson and Kim (2013), Composite Reliability (CR) is preferred over Cronbach's alpha in SEM due to their minimal difference. In our study, as presented in Table 1, all latent constructs exhibited CR values exceeding the established criterion of 0.70 set by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010). This indicates that the internal consistency of the measures utilized in this study is assured for each construct.

Table 1. Indicator of the reliability and validity.

Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	1	2	3
1) Self-efficacy	0.86	0.61	0.11	0.87	(0.78)	-	-
2) Workplace incivility behavior	0.93	0.70	0.10	0.95	-0.15**	(0.84)	-
3) Job demands	0.92	0.66	0.11	0.93	0.33***	0.31***	(0.81)

Note: The value in the bracket represents the AVE's square root.
*** and ** indicate the correlation coefficient's significance at the 001 and 01 levels.

Convergent validity was established in two ways. As shown in Table 1, the "Average Variance Extracted" (AVE) initially surpassed the threshold of 0.50 set by Hair et al. (2010) for all latent constructs. Furthermore, the composite reliabilities were higher than the Malhotra and Dash (2011). Therefore, the convergent validity of the inferences was ensured. Likewise, discriminant validity was recognized in three ways. As shown in Table 1, according to Hair et al. (2010), the "Maximum Shared Variance" (MSV) is consistently lower than the AVE. Secondly, as per (Awang, 2015), the link between all hidden variables (i.e., latent variables) is never found to be higher than 0.85. Last but not least, according to Gaskin and Lim (2016), the square roots of all AVE values are always greater than their comparable inter-construct connections. As a result, the measures used in this study guaranteed discriminant validity in the findings derived.

4. RESULTS

After ensuring the reliability and validity of the data, this study has developed a path model [Figure 1](#) to test the stated hypothesis. As shown in [Figure 1](#), when self-efficacy and job demand were taken into account together (i.e., job demand x self-efficacy), the unstandardized path coefficient of job demand to predict WIB was positive and statistically significant ($B = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$). Hence, Hypothesis 1 was accepted. The unstandardized path coefficient of self-efficacy to predict WIB was also negative and statistically significant ($B = -.32$, $p < 0.001$). This was true even when job demands and the interaction effect of job demands and the interaction effect of job demands and self-efficacy were taken into account. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was accepted. The unstandardized path coefficient of the interactive effect of job demand and self-efficacy to predict the WIB was also negative and statistically significant ($B = -0.47$, $p < 0.001$). Other factors that affected the outcome were also taken into account. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

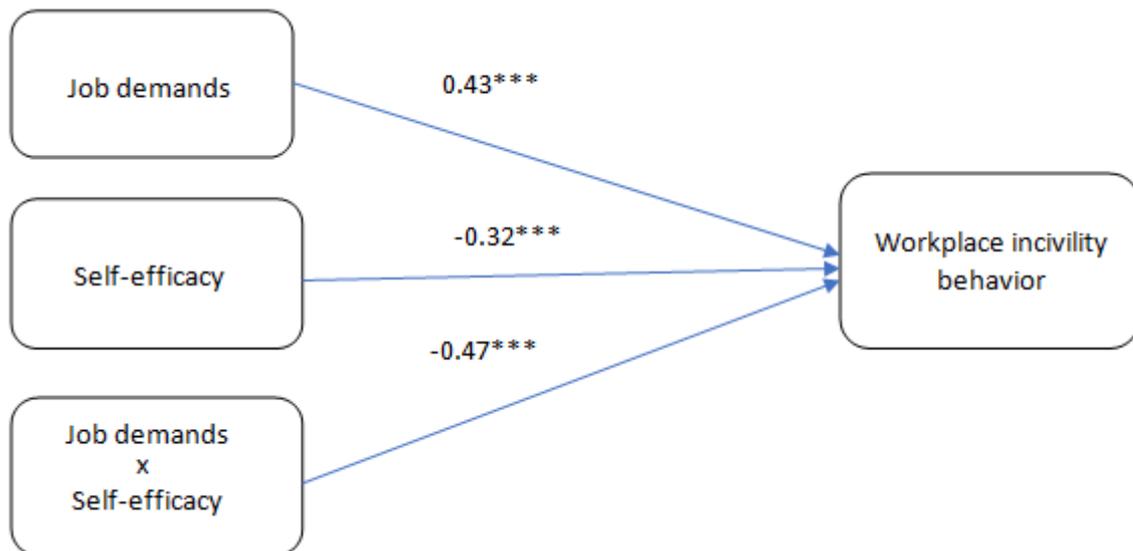


Figure 1. Path-reflecting model- direct and interactive effect of job demand and self-efficacy on WIB.

Note: *** shows the regression coefficient's significance (at the 001 level).

The interactive coefficient size shows the average effect size of moderation ([Witt, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000](#)). This study used a simple graph to show the form of moderation by self-efficacy under different job demand and WIB conditions, as suggested by [Aiken and West \(1991\)](#). [Figure 2](#) is a graph that shows how self-efficacy affects the relationship between job demand and WIB. It shows how the relationship changes when job demand and self-efficacy are low and high, respectively. The low level represents the -1SD, and the high level represents the +1SD with the mean value.

As shown in [Figure 2](#), the graph reflecting low self-efficacy is steeper and on an increasing trend as job demand increases. Likewise, the chart reflecting high self-efficacy is almost straight. These graphs in [Figure 2](#) show the amount of empirical evidence. Firstly, for employees with low self-efficacy, job demand positively impacted WIB. Secondly, the impact of job demand on WIB was insignificant for employees with high self-efficacy. Thirdly, for employees who perceive low job demand, WIB is higher for having high self-efficacy than low self-efficacy. Fourthly, for employees who perceive high job demand, WIB is less about having high self-efficacy than low self-efficacy. Lastly, for employees who perceive near to medium levels of job demand (cross point of low and high self-efficacy representing graph lines), WIB is the same whether their self-efficacy is high or low.

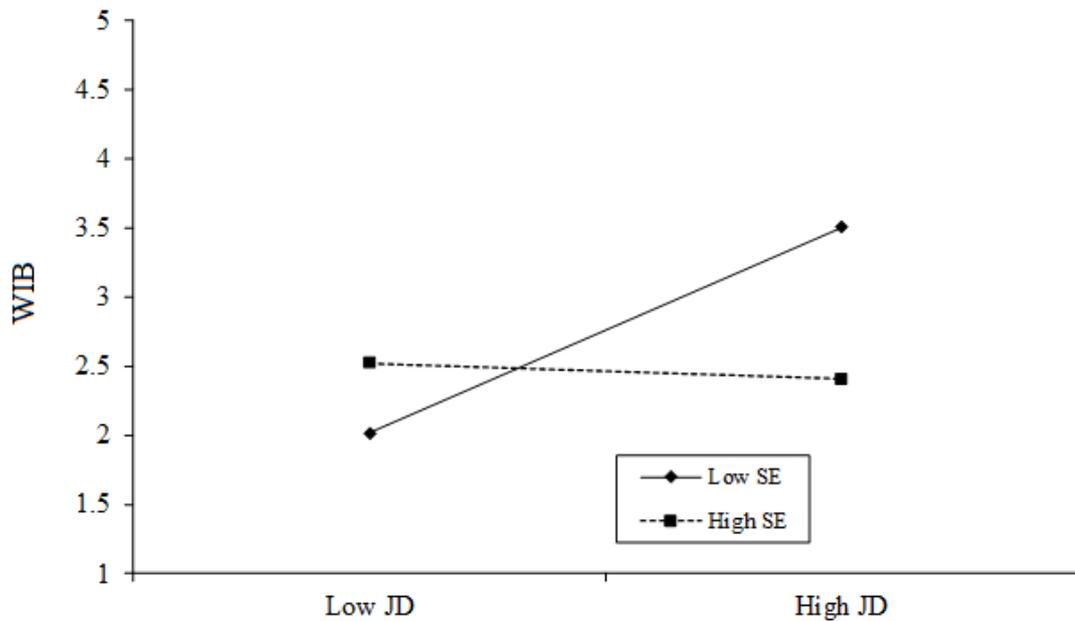


Figure 2. Graphic presentation of moderation by SE in the relationship between JD and WIB.

Note: SE = Self-efficacy, JD = Job demand, WIB = Workplace incivility behavior.

5. DISCUSSION

The current study confirmed that employees' perceived job demand positively impacts their WIB. The findings show that when employees perceive their assigned jobs to be extremely demanding in terms of high workloads, time constraints, role ambiguity, and interpersonal conflict, they are more likely to engage in uncivil behavior as a result of the stress these jobs cause. This finding consists of the theoretical framework of the JDR model of Bakker et al. (2001), which states that employees' job demands are a detrimental factor that triggers unfavorable employee outcomes and destroys favorable results. Likewise, this finding supports the theoretical arguments and empirical evidence of Batista and Reio (2019), Koon and Pun (2018), Taylor et al. (2012), Torkelson et al. (2016), Van Jaarsveld et al. (2010), etc. As a detrimental factor, job demands and their impacts on employee outcomes consistent with these different studies revealed that employees take job demands as strain-inducing hindrance-stressors rather than challenge stressors.

Hindrance stressors encompass requirements or situations at work and can impede or prevent people from achieving their goals and growing (Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004). Obstacle stresses are seen as having the potential to harm success and well-being, which causes unhappy feelings and the adoption of passive coping mechanisms (Rosen & Levy, 2013). Nevertheless, challenge stressors are characterized by demands or circumstances within the work environment that possess the capacity to provide chances for individual success, development, learning, and achievement (LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). Similar to hindrance stressors, challenge stressors can also evoke strain. However, those who can satisfy the requirements posed by challenging stressors often feel a sense of achievement, fulfillment, and mastery (Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011). Therefore, the impact of job demands on employees' outcomes might be influenced by whether they take job demands as a challenge-stressor or a hindrance-stressor. Therefore, further research on 'job demand and its impact' will be more fruitful and reliable if it takes into account the challenge-stressor and hindrance-stressor that job demands produce.

Likewise, this study tested employees' self-efficacy, which negatively impacted WIB. This result indicates that employees with high self-efficacy will exhibit less uncivil behavior in the workplace with others. These findings support (Hobfoll, 1989) "Conservation of Resource" (COR) Theory. According to COR theory, individuals follow two primary principles. Initially, people deploy resources to handle dangerous situations and protect themselves from harmful effects. Second, people work hard to amass new resources and preserve their current ones. Resources tend to generate other resources, leading to the formation of resource caravans. This process can result in positive

outcomes and benefits (Hobfoll, 2002), like good behavior in the workplace. In addition, by extrapolating the second assumption of the COR theory to the driving force behind the JDR model, we can foresee that more positive outcomes will follow from more access to resources inside the workplace. Similarly, this result consists of the arguments of Ozyilmaz, Erdogan, and Karaeminogullari (2018), who argue that self-efficacy is a self-regulatory mechanism that influences motivation, attitudes, and behaviors. However, as self-efficacy deals with a specific personal resource, it might vary from case to case; therefore, other personal resources like self-esteem and optimism would be essential factors while studying self-efficacy as individual resources.

One of the goals of this investigation was to determine the moderating effect of employees' self-efficacy on the positive effect of job demand on WIB. The research demonstrated that self-efficacy moderated the relationship between job demand and WIB. The result means that if employees perceive the job demand, that will enhance their uncivil workplace behavior, but the effect of job demand on WIB will change as the level of their self-efficacy changes. More simply, the employees' self-efficacy is an antidote to the detrimental effect of job demand on WIB. These findings support the notion of the JDR model of Bakker et al. (2001). The JDR model suggests that employees can benefit from increasing their job resources to better deal with job demands as a coping strategy. By enhancing their access to supportive resources (e.g., self-efficacy), employees can reduce the negative impact of job demands, increase their ability to handle stress, and improve their overall well-being. Moreover, this empirical evidence supports the theoretical arguments of Bandura (2010), Hobfoll (2002), Karatepe and Olugbade (2009); Milam et al. (2009), and Naeem et al. (2020), where self-efficacy is regarded as a personal resource and mitigates the detrimental effect created by job and organization on employees' outcomes. Though theoretical arguments are consistent with these findings, prior empirical evidence is lacking for comparison. Therefore, to test the remedial role of self-efficacy in relation to job demand and WIB, such a study can be replicated in different contexts before generalizing the findings.

Moreover, this study revealed many findings regarding the moderation of self-efficacy in the relationship between job demand and WIB. Firstly, for employees with low self-efficacy, job demand positively impacted WIB. It means that whoever possesses low self-efficacy, their perception of job demand causes them to be exposed to WIB. Secondly, the impact of job demand on WIB was insignificant for employees with high self-efficacy. It means employees who possess a high level of self-efficacy in their perception of job demand do not impact WIB. Thirdly, for employees who perceive low job demand, WIB is higher for having high self-efficacy than low self-efficacy. Fourthly, for employees who perceive high job demand, WIB is less about having high self-efficacy than low self-efficacy. Lastly, for employees who perceive near to medium levels of job demand (cross points of low and high self-efficacy representing graph lines), WIB is the same whether their self-efficacy is high or low. These different forms of the interactive effect of job demand and self-efficacy on WIB have yet to be empirically examined. Therefore, additional research should be conducted in other contexts to refine the results.

According to the empirical studies, people who experience antisocial behavior at home are more likely to do so in other contexts, such as their relationships, professional networks, and academic pursuits (Naeem et al., 2020). Therefore, it is essential to consider that, while self-efficacy can act as a protective factor against workplace incivility, it is not the sole determinant. Other factors, such as organizational culture, leadership, job resources, and individual traits, interact with self-efficacy to shape employees' behavior. However, those who believe in their abilities are more likely to use adaptive coping strategies, maintain positive relationships, and exhibit respectful behavior, reducing the likelihood of workplace incivility. Therefore, further study will be more accurate if it incorporates these factors.

6. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

After thoroughly examining and analyzing the findings, and in the discussion section, it is essential to summarize the primary outcomes and provide a conclusive synthesis in the following conclusion. The current study

was motivated to measure whether the employee's job demand, as a stressor, is the source of incivility behavior at the workplace or not. Assume that job demand is the source of incivility behavior at the workplace. Does self-efficacy play a remedial role in the detrimental effect of job demands on the incivility behavior of employees at the workplace? The study's results revealed that employees' perceived job demands enhance their uncivil behavior at the workplace. However, the effect of job demand on uncivil behavior at the workplace is different for employees possessing a high and a low level of self-efficacy. Specifically, for employees with low self-efficacy, job demand positively impacts their uncivil behavior at the workplace. However, job demand does not enhance workplace incivility behavior for employees possessing high self-efficacy.

Therefore, practicing managers can mitigate their employees' WIB at the workplace by minimizing the job demands shown in different forms like time pressure, work overload, physical demands, emotional demands, cognitive demands, role ambiguity, role conflict, work-life imbalance, job insecurity, etc. Moreover, to mitigate the WIB, managers can focus on minimizing job demands for employees with low self-efficacy rather than high self-efficacy. Employees with low self-efficacy exhibit WIB due to job demands, but not with high self-efficacy. Theoretically, this study has developed a model that deals with job demands as a source of WIB with the mitigating role of self-efficacy for the detrimental effect of job demands on WIB. This model can be a foundation for further studies in the literature on sources of WIB and its mitigation by personal resources.

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