Master's Thesis

The Impact of Workplace Inclusion on International Student Part-Time Workers

by

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Certification Page

I, Mardhana Ksatrya Subagja (Student ID 52121603) hereby declare that the contents of this Master's Thesis are original and true, and have not been submitted at any other university or educational institution for the award of degree or diploma.

All the information derived from other published or unpublished sources has been cited and acknowledged appropriately.

Mardhana Ksatrya Subagja

2023/08/25

Acknowledgments

Summary

Research Background

Employing part-time workers is a common business practice. Part of these part-time workers is international students. Previous studies have demonstrated how the duality of studying while working impacts the well-being of students and results in exhaustion. Considering this issue, this study investigates how workplace inclusion plays a role in determining international students' engagement and exhaustion at work. Specifically, it attempts to explore how workplace inclusion can benefit part-time workers by improving their engagement while preventing exhaustion. The data used for analysis is based on samples from a Japanese university. Given that Japan has one of the highest percentages of temporary workers and the inclusion of part-time workers is understudied, this study contributes to the literature on inclusion and offers practical implications.

Research Questions

This research aims to identify the mechanism of how workplace inclusion affects exhaustion and work engagement. To do so, the following research questions are formulated:

- How does workplace inclusion impact part-time international student workplace exhaustion and work engagement?
- Do different types of motivation affect the relationship of workplace inclusion with exhaustion and work engagement?

Research Methods

The study used a quantitative method through the deployment of a survey targeting international students at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, a Japanese university with high numbers and a diverse set of international students. The analysis is done through multiple linear regression analysis as well as moderation analysis to test out the impact of motivation types on the relationship of workplace inclusion with exhaustion and work engagement.

Results

The results show that workplace inclusion improves work engagement and self-efficacy while diminishing exhaustion among students. This conforms with the propositions of Job-Demand Resources theory. Additionally, not all motivation types are shown to have any effect on the relationships with internal motivation enjoyment being the only one showing significant strengthening effect. The results provide a basis for companies employing part-time workers to improve their inclusion policy as well as for students when considering a place of employment.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Businesses have long been using temporary contract workers such as part-time workers to fulfill various scope of work (Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2016). This practice brings together several benefits such as seen in the hospitality industry (Jaworski et al., 2018). One is that it enables firms to handle fluctuations in demand such as times of the high season when customers' handling capacity often exceeds that of the permanent workers. Employing part-time workers enables flexibility as they can be dismissed after the demand surge ended in the low season. Another reason is that part-time workers are usually paid less than permanent ones and only for a certain period thus enabling labor cost savings (Jaworski et al., 2018).

OECD (2023) describes part-time work as employment that is less than 30 hours per week whether employed or self-employed. However, defining part-time work using the working hours per week can differ between countries. For example, in Japan, one of the countries where part-time employment is often used (second largest following the Netherlands), the work hours per week limit for student visa holders is 28 hours during the semester and 40 hours during school break according to its laws (JASSO, 2022; OECD, 2023). Using Chadwick and Flinchbaugh (2016) list (see Table 1), what made part-time workers distinct especially from the standard full-time employment are the reduced workhour and no employment benefits such as health insurance. Additionally, part-time workers' jobs can possibly be segregated from the full-time and possible prohibition on associating themselves with the firm.

Table 1 Comparison of Employment Types (Chadwick & Flinchbaugh, 2016)

	Standard	Part-time	Temporary	Seasonal	Independent Contractor
Direct supervision of work	Yes	Yes	Possibly	Yes	No
Time horizon of employment	Indefinite	Indefinite	Fixed	Fixed	Fixed
Perform core work for the firm	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
Segregation of work from the general workforce	Yes	Possibly	No	No	Possibly
Identification with the firm desirable (reciprocity)	No	Possibly	Yes	Possibly	Possibly
Benefits provided	Yes	No	No	Possibly	No
Work schedule	Full-time	Reduced	Indeterminate	Full-time	Full-time

Research on part-time employment has been considered important for several reasons. Firstly, their sheer availability such as in Japan where 25.6% of its 69 million total employed labor forces are under part-time contracts (OECD, 2023). Secondly, they are considered a valuable supply of labor for businesses and provide employment opportunities for the young (16 to 24 years old), old (65 years old and over), and female demographic groups (Feldman, 1990). In recent years, part-time employment was also studied as it provides work opportunities during times of recessions when getting full-time employment is considered difficult (Warren et al., 2020).

1.1.1 Part-time Employment for Students

As mentioned above, part-time employment allows the younger demographic who are often still pursuing education the opportunity to engage in the workforce. Barron and

Anastasiadou (2009) noted that many part-time positions are often filled by students, and it is even considered as an essential part of the university student experience. Past studies such as by Rochford et al. (2009) also found that significant numbers of students engaged in working part-time for various reasons.

One such challenge as noted by Verulava and Jorbenadze (2022) is to fulfill personal material needs. As such, financial difficulties—inadequate income, lack of parental support, and debt—leading to the inability to fulfilling such needs are often regarded as an influential factor in rationalizing students to seek part-time employment (Rochford et al., 2009). Additionally, students may also seek part-time jobs to get training and experience as working may increase students' skills, teach responsibility, and reinforce their learning (Săvescu et al., 2017).

However, engaging in part-time employment while studying tends to affect students' academic performance and health. This is due to the stress of balancing their study and workload from their job (Verulava & Jorbenadze, 2022). Poor class attendance, lower academic achievement, lack of sleep, and even depression may result from this condition (Rochford et al., 2009; Săvescu et al., 2017; Takamoto & Komura, 2018). Within the work itself, occupational accidents resulting in physical injuries can also happen especially among students who work long hours, have several jobs, or work in risky jobs (Ishimaru et al., 2022). Studies have also been done examining the role that the workplace environment contributes to student stress (Sahari et al., 2013). These put into perspective the question of well-being for students engaging in part-time work.

1.1.2 The Case of International Students

International students who are non-residents of their current country of study and received prior education in another country are especially prone to disturbances in their wellbeing (OECD, 2022a). As international students they might face situations and environments that are different from their country of origin which can pose more challenges compared to their domestic counterpart. For example, some universities noted problems such as navigating language barrier and adapting to cultural differences to be issues that might affect international students' well-being (University of Birmingham, 2023; University of South Florida, 2023). Such issues have also been noted in prior study to cause international students higher levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms compared to the local students (Mbous et al., 2022). Additionally, international students' unique identity such as their sexual orientation which differs from what is prevalent in their host country might become a cause for discrimination (Herridge et al., 2023).

Issues of international students are especially important to be understood as international student mobility has been increasing rapidly in recent years (OECD, 2022b). Countries such as Japan also supported this in an effort of education internationalization by setting quantitative target of international students' number in their policy (Ota, 2018). This, in turn is also expected to increase their participation in the labor force as part-time workers. Thus, focusing on international students can provide us insight on how places of employment can assist in lessening the issues faced by this population subset as well as empowering them at work.

1.2 Research Significance

1.2.1 The Japanese Workplace Context

One of the countries where part-time employment is often utilized is in Japan (second largest following the Netherlands) where the rate of part-time employment is 25.6% out of their overall employment (OECD, 2023). Japan Student Service Organization (JASSO) has noted that as of 2021, there are more than 242,444 international students of all levels, mostly in undergraduate and professional training colleges, studying in Japan (JASSO, 2022). Out of those, it is estimated that around 67% of the students who are privately financing their studies undertook part-time work which brings them around 59 thousand Japanese yen of earnings per month on average. According to JASSO (2022), various types of businesses employ these students as part of their foreign workers with the restaurant business being the largest employer (employment ratio of 35%).

However, according to a study by Conrad and Meyer-Ohle (2022), there are issues faced by foreign workers within Japanese companies. The first one is the nature of the Japanese training regime focusing on On-the-Job training (OJT) which leads to confusion as employees wanting to work in a certain aspect must contend with being put in various positions and doing 'mundane' tasks said to develop well-roundedness. The second one is mismatches of expectations between employees and employers who initially believed they are recruited to enable the firm internationalized but ended up having to assimilate thus beckoning the employees to question why they were even hired in the first place. Finally, there are also issues of belonging and authenticity where some workers expressed the downside of having to suppress their own identities to become one with their coworkers.

For Japanese companies themselves, the country's social condition related to the shrinking population and the aging society put pressures on them to focus on D&I initiatives (Alcantara & Shinohara, 2022). To combat the issues, Japanese government has been creating policies to increase women's participation in the workforce. Additionally, Japanese companies are also increasing their hiring of foreign workers.

These challenges make it important to study how the workplace in Japan can better improve to better accommodate foreign workers, particularly student part-time workers. Such improvement is deemed important for organizations as it can result in the improvement of workers' well-being where high well-being results in high performance and vice-versa in accordance with the 'happy-productive workers' thesis (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). To ensure that workers are happy and productive, Nielsen et al. (2017) studied workplace resources on all levels (individual, group, leader, and organizational) and found that building resources at any level can improve workers' well-being. In the context of students, Sahari et al. (2013) noted that altering and using their work environment can motivate them.

1.2.2 Diversity through Hiring of International Students as Part-time Workers

The hiring of international students as part of the part-time workforce means that there will be diversity, and multiple identity groups will be represented (Ferdman, 2013; Shore et al., 2018). Diversity in itself doesn't necessarily lead to positive or negative outcomes. However, for diversity to have a positive impact on an organization, there needs to be workplace inclusion—how workers perceived their belongingness and uniqueness within their work environment—which has become one of the emerging

concepts in the study of organizational behavior (Shore et al., 2011). Inclusion can be an important concept to study for international students doing part-time work in their country of study. Balancing their study and work in a foreign environment can be a significant challenge and might lead to more stress. For organizations employing international students, workplace inclusion might be a way to lessen stress and thus improve their part-time workers' well-being.

The students themselves might also come to the job with different types of motivation attached. Motivations such as to fulfil material needs, monetary obligations, or looking for improvement might result in different performances (Rochford et al., 2009; Săvescu et al., 2017; Verulava & Jorbenadze, 2022). This is also something that businesses need to take into consideration as motivation brings about production (Ryan & Deci, 2020).

1.2.3 Previous Gap

Previous studies have investigated how work status affects perceived inclusion & engagement between full-time and part-time workers (Sarich et al., 2021). Research on the lack of inclusion or even exclusion for international workers (migrants) thus hinders their potential (Ng et al., 2022). However, with companies employing international students as part-time workers, there is a lack of study in such context on how workplace inclusion impacts work engagement and exhaustion. This is especially so in Japan where inclusion is still understudied, a view that is mentioned by Alcantara & Shinohara (2022) in their book on D&I discourse in Japan. Additionally, as students have various motivations for undertaking part-time work, the study believes that it is important to understand how it affects the practice of inclusion. Hence, by studying said context, this research can help expand the current discourses of inclusion.

1.3 Research Questions

The lack of study on how inclusion influences wellbeing prompts this research to put forward the intention to identify the mechanism of how workplace inclusion affects exhaustion and work engagement. To do that, the following research questions (RQ) are considered:

- **RQ1**: How does workplace inclusion impact part-time international student workplace exhaustion and work engagement?

- **RQ2**: Do different types of motivation affect the relationship of workplace inclusion with exhaustion and work engagement?

1.4 Thesis Structure

Following this chapter, the paper will be using the following structure. In chapter two, the literature review will be discussed which elaborates on definitions of key construct of workplace inclusion. It will also discuss the present state of studies relating to the construct. Chapter three will discuss the theory which will be used as the viewing lens on how the main construct connects with other constructs of self-efficacy, work engagement, exhaustion, and motivation. Chapter four will discuss the methodology used for the research. Chapter five will explore the data analysis in detail. Finally, the sixth and final chapter will discuss the findings, its implications toward the theory, practical applications, research limitations, future research suggestions, as well as providing conclusion to the overall research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

As the main purpose of the study is to understand how workplace inclusion can affect part-time international student workers it is imperative to first understand what inclusion itself is. Hence, this chapter will focus on examining workplace inclusion to define and show how the construct has been studied in already existing works of literature. This can be achieved through the evaluation of multiple perspectives, summarizing them, and providing a critical review to fit into the research context (Jesson & Lacey, 2006) .

2.1 Workplace Inclusion

The study of inclusion was born out of earlier research in social work and social psychology but is still relatively new. The earliest systematic study on inclusion within work organizations was done by Mor-Barak and Cherin (1998) . The study proposed the inclusion-exclusion concept and measures to help expand organizations' understanding when faced with a diverse workforce. Although initial interest was in historically excluded identity groups, researchers have sought to prove that inclusion is for every individual of all backgrounds. It involves equal opportunities for all members to participate and contribute and support employees' engagement at all levels of organizations while maintaining their own authenticity (Shore et al., 2018).

The study of inclusion is especially intertwined with diversity and the term is often used interchangeably or conjointly as Diversity and Inclusion (D&I). In recent years equity is sometimes added to the mix forming Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion (DEI). There has been a growing interest in what role diversity has in the workplace. The term

diversity in an organization or workgroup refers to the representation of multiple identity groups such as women, people of color, and members of other marginalized groups (Ferdman, 2013; Shore et al., 2018). However, additional conditions might be needed to provide positive benefits to diversity. This is where inclusion became the focus to promote the potential benefits of having diversity inside an organization as it requires voluntary action to level the playing field (Shore et al., 2018).

There are several definitions for workplace inclusion. One definition is by Shore et al., (2011) who define inclusion as "the degree to which an employee perceives that he or she is an esteemed member of the work group through experiencing treatment that satisfies his or her needs for belongingness and uniqueness". Another definition is given by Mor Barak (2015) who defines inclusion as whether employees perceived appreciation towards their contribution and encouragement to participate in the organization. This is built upon Mor-Barak's earlier work which focused on work-group involvement, decision-making, and accessibility of communication and work resources (e.g. training and input from supervisor) (Mor-Barak & Cherin, 2008).

Recent development by companies such as Philip Morris (2022) have put forward additional dimensions to inclusion aside from belongingness and uniqueness such as psychological safety, fairness, participation, and authenticity. This is done for the purpose of answering the challenge faced within the company specific D&I initiatives. However, considering that Shore et al. (2011) work provide the foundation for current development, the study will focus on Shore et al. definition. Their work and the framework proposed have also been used in numerous other studies such as Byrd (2022) study on creating an inclusive culture in a remote work environment and Santilli et al. (2023) work on inclusion for workers with disability.

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                    Low                           High
                    Belongingness                 Belongingness
                    ┌─────────────────┐           ┌─────────────────┐
                    │                 │           │                 │
                    │                 │           │                 │
 Low                │    Exclusion    │           │   Assimilation  │
 Uniqueness         │                 │           │                 │
                    │                 │           │                 │
                    └─────────────────┘           └─────────────────┘
                    ┌─────────────────┐           ┌─────────────────┐
                    │                 │           │                 │
 High               │                 │           │                 │
 Uniqueness         │  Differentiation│           │    Inclusion    │
                    │                 │           │                 │
                    │                 │           │                 │
                    └─────────────────┘           └─────────────────┘
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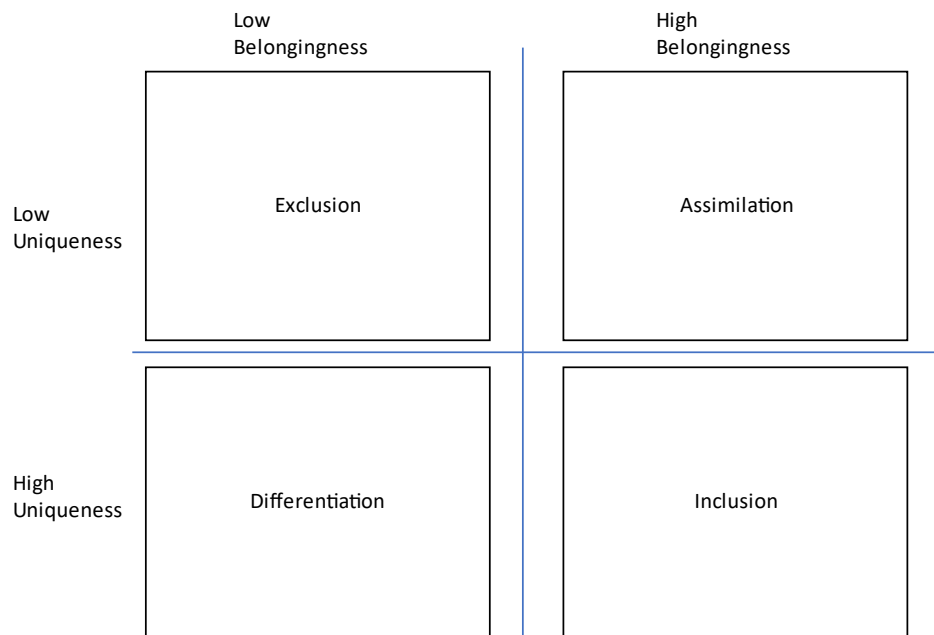
Figure 1 Framework of Inclusion adapted from Shore et al. (2011)

The framework proposed by Shore et al. (2011) identified 4 conditions based on the differences between the low and high levels of belongingness and uniqueness in an organization.

1. Exclusion: the person's distinctive qualities are viewed as inconsequential, and they are not considered as an insider within the organization.

2. Assimilation: The individual is considered as part of the workgroup, but they are expected to conform to the organization's dominant norm and thus downplaying their uniqueness. An example of this is a female attorney adopting a more masculine behavior to fit in a male-dominated work environment.

3. Differentiation: the uniqueness of the individual is considered valuable to the organization's successes, but they are not considered insiders within the organization. An example of the way organizations utilize differentiation is by hiring talented people temporarily in a free agent contract instead of permanently.

4. Inclusion: the individual is treated as part of the workgroup and retains his/her unique characteristics.

Further studies by Shore et al. (2018), proposed a model for the inclusive organization which is an organization that can consistently show and manifest inclusion practices and processes in all its aspects (climate, practices, organization, leader, and workgroup). The study identified six themes of inclusion practices and processes:

1. Feeling of safety: psychological and physical safety when sharing opinions and views that are different from other members.

2. Involvement in Work Group: feeling like an insider and having access to critical information and resources.

3. Feeling respected and valued: being treated and appreciated as an esteemed member of the group and organization.

4. Influence on Decision-making: belief that ideas and perspectives are listened to and have an impact on the organization's decision-making.

5. Authenticity: support for transparency and sharing of valued identity by the organization.

6. Recognizing, Honoring, and Advancing of Diversity: treating others fairly, sharing of differing ideas for mutual learning and progress, and top management embodying ideals in both words and deeds.

Additionally, Shore et al. (2018) also argued that there are two potential processes for an organization to achieve the goal of perceived organizational inclusion. The first is through prevention orientation in which the inclusion practices are done by the organization to comply with the laws and secure the safety of the organization. The

second one is promotion orientation where the organization's leadership and managers commit and focus on enhancing inclusion within the organization.

However, despite the increasing attention towards managing diversity and incorporating inclusion in corporate settings, many so-called diversity programs are unsuccessful (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). For example, programs such as diversity training which trains employees on how to deal with diversity failed because of negative messages and resistance to compulsory training to establish autonomy (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Dobbin & Kalev (2016) also noted that the failure of hiring test due to selective usage and cherry-picking on results which leads to more bias. Furthermore, a study by Williams et al. (2014) on women in the oil and gas industry found that programs such as diversity training and mentoring do not help them fight discrimination and instead may reinforce their marginalized status or even push them to resign from the industry altogether.

Other studies also followed how the lack of inclusion or exclusion affects an organization when it prevails. Findings from studies on underrepresented minorities experiencing exclusion, such as in the form of racism, have shown that such a case negatively affects well-being (Griffin et al., 2011; Hassouneh et al., 2014). Those who experienced social exclusion also have worse physical health than those who are connected socially (Williamson et al., 2018). A study on male nurses also shows the feeling of exclusion as a stressor within their job (Blackley et al., 2019). Thus, enhancing inclusion within an organization becomes imperative to avoid the negative outcomes of exclusion.

Shore et. al framework (2011) and their further study (2018) provided a groundwork for the study of inclusion. In particular, the studies brought forth the basis

for Chung et al. (2020) work on measuring inclusion (further details on the measurement can be read in Chapter 4) which is used by this study to understand inclusion amongst international students' part-time workers. Additionally, other works of literature established that introducing inclusion in the corporate setting can be a difficult endeavor. However, throwing out inclusion entirely or giving little attention to it can lead to negative consequences for business. Hence, understanding the mechanism on how inclusion can affect aspects of workers well-being such as work engagement and exhaustion should prove to be beneficial for companies and workers.

2.1.1 *Ie* and Inclusion in Japanese Companies

Within the context of the Japanese workplace for foreign workers, Conrad and Meyer-Ohle (2020) identified the tendency toward assimilation. This is due to the pressure on workers to conform to company norms. Another reason is the treatment by companies that emphasize sameness on Japanese employees or foreign ones. This can lead to dissatisfaction as foreign workers' initial expectation was to contribute toward the company becoming international.

To better understand how companies in Japan treat their employees, the concept of *ie* in Japanese culture needs to be discussed (Bhappu, 2000). *Ie* which refers to the traditional family system dating back to feudal times in Japan is influenced by Confucian values. Within *ie*, the duty to parents and reciprocal relationships between family members are emphasized. Hence, in Japanese companies, employers act as parents while employees are the children, and the reciprocal relationship between both parties serves the long-term development of the company (Shinohara & Alcantara, 2022).

The *ie* system also creates a distinction between those that are inside and outside of the group (Alcantara & Shinohara, 2022). This distinction can be understood in the concept of *uchi* and *soto* which can be in various interactions in Japan and linguistically in the Japanese language (Goekler, 2011). *Uchi* which means inside refers to those who are considered part of the group. On the other hand, *soto* (meaning outside) refers to those who are considered an outsider to the group. As noted by Goekler (2011) what is considered one's own group is dynamic as it can change depending on the context and situation.

In the context of a company, the inside is those who are employed by the company. However, Shinohara & Alcantara (2022) noted that this includes only full-time employees. While full-time employees might gain the benefit of being treated as family members inside the company and difficulty getting fired even when having poor performances, part-time workers might get excluded from such treatment. Hence, part-time employees might have limited inclusion or even exclusion within a Japanese workplace.

It is also to be noted that Japanese companies tend to be more collectivist with a team-based approach (Rottig et al., 2017). This is shown by the individualism and collectivism dimension, referring to how the society is more interdependent with each of its members, in Hofstede cultural dimension (Hofstede Insights, 2022; Rottig et al., 2017). Japan scored 46 which implies tendency for collectivistic society exemplified by the belief that group harmony is of utmost importance (Hofstede Insights, 2022). Research by Rottig et al. (2017) on the merger and acquisition of Japanese camera-maker company, Canon, with Dutch printers manufacturer, Océ N.V., found that one of the challenges in merging the two companies was that the Japanese side's collectivist style (e.g. decision

making by consensus of all members) clashes with the Dutch more individualistic approach.

Based on these past studies on the characteristics of Japanese company, it appears that the prevalent practice of assimilating its workers into the *ie* system results in withholding uniqueness to become part of the collective. It also separates those who are considered as insiders and those who are outside and thus excluded from the parent-child style relationship. This would pose a barrier for international students whose identity and culture differs from the locals and in addition their status as part-time workers might further prevent them from being included. As mentioned in section 2.1, lack of inclusion and exclusion can have adverse consequences. By exploring how inclusion affects workers wellbeing, the study aims to provide insights on how Japanese companies can improve their international part-time employees' wellbeing by fostering inclusion at the workplace in spite of the traditional prevalent *ie* system.

CHAPTER 3: THEORY & HYPOTHESIS

To understand how workplace inclusion can affect workers' wellbeing, the study investigated two theories, the Job-Demand Resources theory and Self-Determination theory. Both theories have been studied and improved in the past decades to explain how workers can improve their wellbeing which in turn will lead to higher work performance. The two are used as the lens to view the relationship between key constructs or variables in the research. By understanding them, this study expects that the two can provide explanation on how the variables are related to each other thus forming the basis for the research conceptual framework.

3.1 Job-Demand Resources Theory

Numerous pieces of research on burnout have tried to explain the factors in work that resulted in it. One such theory that is often used to explain the intricacies is the Job-Demand Resources theory (JDR) first proposed by Demerouti et al. (2001). At its essence, the theory states that in all kinds of jobs there exist certain risk factors that can be associated with job stress thus leading to burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). These factors can be divided into two groups: job demands and job resources.

Job demands refer to the physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require continuous physical or mental effort (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). These aspects thus come with certain physiological and psychological costs. Examples of job demands are pressures from work tasks and interactions with demanding customers. In the context of student part-time workers, the study surmises that pressures on doing work while also

balancing their study to be part of job demands and thus how students believe (such as through their self-efficacy) they can deal with it becomes an important aspect to be investigated.

On the other hand, there are job resources that refer to aspects of a job that can similarly be physical, social, or organizational, but have functionality in achieving work goals. Job resources also reduce the costs of job demands and promote personal growth and development. Job resources exist at different levels of organizations such as job security, within the social relationships of work such as support from co-workers, in how work is organized (decision-making scheme), and at the task level (e.g., task significance and autonomy to do tasks) (source). A recent study in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic by Pal et al. (2021) found that one of the underutilized job resources is workplace inclusion which benefited workers' health and well-being especially in recovering from adverse life events.

Job demands and job resources instigate two different processes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Firstly, job demands instigated a health-impairment process. For example, when one is tasked with an unbearable workload, it can lead to exhaustion and even burnout over time. On the other hand, job resources instigated a motivational process where it increases work engagement. For example, a worker who has resources that support him/her to do the work tends to find it easier to focus.

Further development of JDR introduced another factor called personal resources which refers to the belief that one has control over one's environment. Like job resources, personal resources are also believed to improve work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). An example of personal resources which this study will focus on is self-efficacy

which is an individual belief in their own ability to perform and meet demands in a variety of situations (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) noted that the availability of job resources enables the activation of personal resources such as self-efficacy thus making workers more empowered over their environmental control.

Subsequent improvement on JDR as discussed by Bakker et al. (2023) resulted in nine propositions as follow:

1. The distinction of job demand and resources as mentioned prior.

2. The different processes instigated by job demand and resources.

3. Job resources mitigate the impact of job demand on strain, while job demands amplify the impact of job resources on work engagement.

4. Personal resources are positively associated with job resources, allowing employees with personal resources to access more job resources.

5. Personal resources moderate the impact of job demands on employee well-being as they can deal with job demands better.

6. Employees proactively optimize their own job demand and job resources to better align with their skills and preferences.

7. Work engagement fosters a cycle of proactive work behaviors, leading to resource enhancement and demand optimization.

8. Job demands and strain can potentially result in self-undermining behavior, creating obstacles and hindering performance.

9. Job strain can trigger a self-undermining cycle, which may generate new job demands in the future.

JDR theory provides an important lens to understand the relationship of resources that workers can utilize and how it affected well-being. In the case of this study, workplace inclusion is considered as a job resource. Following the proposition of JDR, workplace inclusion should be able to affect and improve part-time workers' well-being (work engagement and exhaustion) as well as self-efficacy as a personal resource.

3.1.1 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to people's confidence in achieving goals with the abilities that they have (Fort & Puget, 2022). The concept was developed by Bandura stemming from research on behavioural change (Bandura, 1977). In his influential book on self-efficacy, Bandura (1997) noted that self-efficacy stems from people's desire to be able to have control over their environment so they can attain their desires while thwarting undesired outcomes. It is considered an important basis of action as people will not act without the belief that their action can produce the desired result.

The concept of self-efficacy has been used in a wide variety of studies such as in business, education, and health. For example, the study on developing intention for entrepreneurship by Salamzadeh et al. (2023) found low self-efficacy among university students without prior entrepreneurship experiences in starting up their own businesses. In the education field, self-efficacy has been studied in its connection with language learning (Wang et al., 2018). In the study of health, self-efficacy has been used to see its connection with attempts to quit smoking among rural smokers (Berg et al., 2008).

Self-efficacy was explored as a personal resource in a study by Xanthopoulou et al. (2007). Personal resources refer to an individual personal view of their ability to

successfully affect their environment. In the context of work, resources such as self-efficacy allow a worker to control and make an impact on his/her workplace.

The study surmise that workplace inclusion will improve self-efficacy on the basis that JDR propose job resources will improve personal resources (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Previous study on ethnic minorities also found that higher inclusion enables higher self-efficacy (Adamovic et al., 2022). This can help businesses as high self-efficacy workers will put more effort and engagement into their work, thus producing better performance (Tian et al., 2019). Thus, this paper put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Workplace inclusion positively affects Self-efficacy.

3.1.2 Work Engagement

Researchers have also looked at the positive antithesis of burnout, and by extension exhaustion, which is work engagement (Shanafelt & Noseworthy, 2017). Contrary to the negativity experienced with exhaustion, engagement is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Swensen & Shanafelt, 2017). Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental stamina when working, the willingness to put effort into one's task, and persistence even when facing challenging setbacks. With dedication, someone is completely invested in their own work and experience pride, challenge, inspiration, and a sense of purpose. Finally, absorption is characterized by one's immersion into their own task, and in their blissful engrossment time passed quickly (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

Maintaining work engagement is considered crucial to organizations as exhaustion (as part of burnout) has personal and professional repercussions which can include suicide or its ideation, decreased effort, and turnover (Lin et al., 2020; Swensen & Shanafelt, 2017). On their study in the medical sector, Swensen and Shanafelt (2017) advised several strategies to enhance well-being and work engagement in organizations such as by providing resources that can promote resiliency and self-care.

Although work engagement is generally considered to be beneficial and positive, there is also the view that it comes at a cost (Baethge et al., 2021). The cost is resources such as energetic resources that are limited and the loss of them is considered stressful. Engaged workers also devote more time and effort toward their work and can work excessively more than their colleagues. This, in turn, comes at a potential health risk to the workers even if their work productivity is beneficial to the organization. Baethge et al. (2021) consider this as the double-edged sword of work engagement.

A study on inclusion and work engagement in the context of part-time work (voluntary and involuntary) and full-time work was done by (Sarich et al., 2021). In the study, it was found that work design initiatives (proactivity, autonomy, and job crafting) may improve perceived inclusion and work engagement for all employees no matter their work status. However, as the study focuses on employment in Australia, further research could be done in different countries to gain more insight into the context of part-time work.

As a job resources, workplace inclusion is expected to improve the overall condition of work engagement as proposed by JDR (Bakker et al., 2023). Past study on workplace inclusion also noted its potential to foster engagement while limiting negative

impact (less exhaustion) (Qu & Wang, 2022). Hence, the following hypothesis was formulated:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Workplace inclusion positively affects work engagement.

3.1.2 Exhaustion

Discussion about work-related exhaustion begins by understanding job stress. Job stress occurs when the demands of the workplace do not align with a worker's abilities, resources, or needs thus eliciting detrimental physical and emotional reactions which can be damaging to one's health (NIOSH, 2014). The demands, internal or external environment, influencing physical and emotional well-being are called stressors (Hamaideh, 2011). Robbins and Judge (2022) noted two types of stressors: challenge stressors associated with the amount of work, pressure to finish, and deadlines; hindrance stressors associated with bureaucratic red tape, office politics, or conflicting work responsibilities.

In the context of students, Hamaideh (2011) identified several common stressors often affecting their lives. The most common is self-imposed stressors with examples of personal feeling of "competing and winning" and "being noticed and loved". The second common stressor is pressure stressors such as grades, work, and relationships with friends and overloading themselves when attempting to do many things at the same time. Other common stressors are conflict, frustration, and change.

Prolonged response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job resulted in psychological syndrome identified as burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Key dimensions of burnout, often measured using Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), are overwhelming

exhaustion, the feeling of cynicism and detachment from the job, and a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment. However, different measures to assess the dimensions of burnout continue to this day reflecting how researchers conceptualize burnout differently. For example, the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI) was proposed with the argument that the three dimensions should be studied on their own and thus focus on fatigue and exhaustion as its core (Kristensen et al., 2005).

Exhaustion discourses are complex and have been tied to various factors such as social and economic changes. The arguments are founded on the hypothesis that there is a persistent shortage of inner resources when the historically constant human energy level is confronted with significantly higher cognitive, emotional, and temporal demands in contemporary times (Schaffner, 2018). Due to its complexities, exhaustion can be understood as an individual state of physical, mental, and spiritual, and as a broader cultural phenomenon. Exhaustion can manifest itself within an individual physically as fatigue and lethargy. It can also manifest emotionally and spiritually as weariness, disillusionment, apathy, and lack of motivation (Schaffner, 2018).

Organizations can minimize the impact of exhaustion by providing a supportive environment to their workers (Matthews & Edmondson, 2020). Although the characteristics of the workers are important (such as having creativity and a determined spirit), the environment is noted as having the utmost importance (Matthews & Edmondson, 2020). This can be through allowing autonomy, and authority in terms of decision-making, flexibility, and creativity. Therefore, organizations need to monitor workers' perceptions and provide support.

Within JDR, workplace inclusion role as job resources should minimize the exhaustion (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). As noted by Qu and Wang (2022) workplace inclusion can limit negative impact is expected to lessen work engagement negative effect. Thus, the study hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Workplace inclusion decreases exhaustion.

3.2 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is one of the theories for explaining motivation which concerns every aspect of activation and intention (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It proposed that the sense of control over one's actions, how compelling a task is in and of itself, how rewards affect motivation, and how employment satisfies psychological needs all have an impact on an employee's well-being and performance (Robbins & Judge, 2022). Understanding motivation is considered valuable for business as it produces, meaning motivation leads to results in work (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Additionally, Gagné et al. (2022) also noted that the understanding of workers motivation is essential considering the changing work nature amidst changes brought upon by technological innovation.

Further research established that individuals act based on different types of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2009; Trépanier et al., 2013). These types of motivation existed on a continuum of autonomy within SDT. Highly autonomous are those that truly believe in or enjoy their work. This is also referred to as intrinsic motivation where the action taken is based on inherent satisfaction. Deci and Ryan (2009) noted that intrinsic motivation is based on people's desire to feel competent and self-determined. Meanwhile, the least autonomous are those that act to satisfy external demands or avoid the feeling of

guilt or shame. This is often referred to as external motivation. Gagné et al. (2022) noted that external motivation can be divided based on how they can be internalized and the more internalized it is, the more positive its influences on work attitudes and performances.

Recent work by Trépanier et al. (2020) noted that the quality of one's motivation can affect how job resources impact a person's health and well-being. Employees who have poor motivation (low autonomous) are more sensitive toward their external environment thus rather than having a positive effect, job resources produced adverse effects instead. On the other hand, those with high-quality (high autonomous) motivation will be more adept in facing their external environment thus having positive impact on utilizing job resources.

In this study, four types of motivations are identified based on Yan and Horiuchi (2017) and Gagné et al. (2015) as well as initial discussions with students engaging in part-time work. The types are Extrinsic Motivation Social, Extrinsic Motivation Monetary, Extrinsic Motivation Growth, and Extrinsic Motivation Enjoyment. Extrinsic Motivation Social refers to the motivation of doing part-time work to satisfy social expectations such as to not being looked down upon by the students' peers or to not be judged by the local people. This can be considered as extrinsic motivation with introjected regulation where the behavior is controlled by self-administered consequences such as guilt and shame (Deci & Ryan, 2009). Extrinsic Motivation Monetary refers to the drive of doing part-time job due to fulfilling monetary obligations such as to have money for daily life. Monetary motivation can be considered as a classic type of extrinsic motivation in which the behavior is completely controlled by external regulation and is not internalized (Deci & Ryan, 2009). Motivation Internal Growth refers to the motivation of

working to pursue learning and growth such as to improve on the knowledge learnt in school. Finally, Motivation Internal Enjoyment refers to the pursuit of enjoyment within the work.

Based on Deci and Ryan (2009), Trépanier et al. (2020), as well as Gagné et al. (2022), the study surmises that autonomous motivation such as being motivated due to inherent interest in the work will result in stronger overall relationships between the variables. On the contrary, low-quality, or low autonomous motivation such as motivated by monetary benefit will not make the variables relationship stronger. However, a more internalized extrinsic motivation such as Extrinsic Motivation Social should improve the variables relationship better than Extrinsic Motivation Monetary. Hence, the study put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): High-quality motivation boosts the relationship of H1, H2, and H3 better than low-quality motivation. Hence, workplace inclusion works better on workers with high-quality motivation.

3.3 Conceptual Framework

The relationship is thus illustrated in the following conceptual framework:
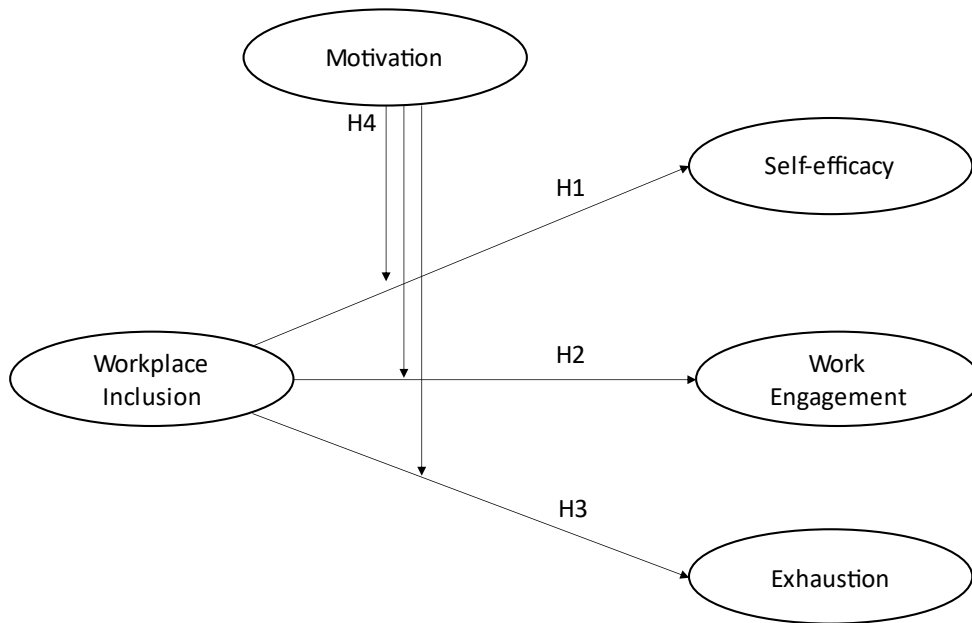
Figure 2 Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Method

The study used quantitative methods to study the subject of interest. Quantitative method is described by Creswell (2012) as involving collection of numerical data from a large pool of people with the usage of measuring instruments containing questions and responses. It serves the purpose of verifying the relationships of variables or constructs and how they affect each other. The method also involved the usage of statistical analysis and interpretation of its results with the hypothesis and existing literature to draw the conclusion. It suits this study as the study is trying to understand the relationship between work inclusion and the other constructs of self-efficacy, work engagement, and exhaustion, as well as motivation.

Using survey questionnaire as a research method is a common practice that was first introduced in social science such as the attempt to understand poverty and working-class life in Victorian Britain (Kelley et al., 2003). Recent development with online connection has enabled survey to be done and distributed with relative ease. The method is not without its criticism and disadvantages such as being seen as an 'easy approach', possibility on lacking depth from the data gathered as well as difficulties in controlling for the response rate (Kelley et al., 2003). The online form also poses additional issues of possible fraud, bias, and data privacy issues (Singh & Sagar, 2021).

Despite its flaws, the survey questionnaire is still used in a wide variety or research. Within the field of biomedical and health, it is considered as an indispensable tool in gaining insight on various topics of interest (Sharma, 2022). As noted by Jones et al.,

(2013) if done appropriately it is useful in assessing large amount of the population with ease. This includes making adequate preparation in planning, execution, and reporting of the survey.

4.2 Research Participants

The research participants are international students in an international university located in Japan. The university is Japan's first true international university and ranks first in terms of international student ratio and international faculty ratio. As of November 2022, the total number of registered students in the university amounts to 5,691 with 2,694 (47.3%) of them being international students. This number is also compounded by the diversity in the student's country of origin which in total amounted to 102 countries. This diversity, which has also been acknowledged in a study by Nguyen et al. (2019), creates a uniquely multicultural environment that makes it an appropriate place to conduct the study.

Convenience sampling method, acquiring respondents that are conveniently available, was used to gather the research participants (Babin & Zikmund, 2016). The method is used due to its advantages of being able to gather results quickly and economically. However, its generalizability is questionable as members of the samples doesn't have an equal and independent chance of being selected. Psychological experiments often used this method especially with participation of university students as a captive audience and they can be motivated to participate for gaining university credit (Salkind, 2009). Considering these, the method was also deemed fit for the study as the

target respondents are in one specific university and assistance from lecturers to spread the survey can also be gained.

The study used a web-based questionnaire (using Google Forms) targeting students with non-Japanese nationalities who partake in part-time jobs during the semester. The questionnaire was trialed at the end of the Fall semester for the 2022 academic year and the actual questionnaire was launched during the beginning of the semester break (February 2023). However, only a small number of students participated during the collection period which mandates an extended collection during the beginning of the Spring semester of 2023 (April 2023). Permission was asked from several lecturers to share the survey in their classes and an in-person approach was also conducted by the author to increase the number of respondents. As a result, data from a total of 282 students was successfully collected.

4.3 Measurements

The following part will detail what measurement tools are used in this study to be able to measure the constructs which are abstract. To do so, measuring instruments consisting of questions (items) with scales indicating agreement with the series of statement in each item is needed (Blunch, 2013). The complete questions can be found on Appendix A.

4.3.1 Measures of Self-Efficacy

The measurement of self-efficacy was done using the New General Self-Efficacy Scale proposed by (Chen et al., 2001). Examples of the questions are "In general, I think

that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me" and "Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well". The full questions can be seen in the appendix. The scale uses a 5-point Likert scale with range of 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). The new general self-efficacy scale has been used in various pieces of research such as on how self-efficacy moderate's human-machine interactions as well as self-efficacy effect on entrepreneurship (Alshebami, 2023; Feng & Meng, 2023).

4.3.2 Measures of Motivation

Motivation was measured using the amalgamation of the motivation scale for part-time employment of international students in Japan by Yan and Horiuchi (2017) and Multi Dimention Work Motivation Scale first proposed by (Gagné et al., 2015) and further revised by Trépanier et al. (2022). The combination is trialed and tested during the pretesting phase of the questionnaire. Following the trial, several questions were discarded to form the finalized version. Examples of the questions asked are "I will face an economic problem and cannot continue my life in Japan if I don't do my part-time job" and "I like my part-time job.". The full questions can be referred to in the appendix. The scale uses a 6-point Likert scale with range of 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree).

4.3.3 Measures of Workplace Inclusion

Measurement for workplace inclusion was done using the scale proposed by Chung et al. (2020). Examples of the questions are "I am treated as a valued member at work" and "I can share a perspective on work issues that is different from others". The scale uses a 5-point Likert scale with range of 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

4.3.4 Measures of Work Engagement

Work engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) proposed by Schaufeli et al. (2006). The UWES-9 which consists of 9 items was used in the pretesting. Following the pretesting feedback, UWES-3 which simplifies the scale into 3 items was chosen to lessen the length of the overall questionnaire. UWES-3 was used in research by Reina-Tamayo et al. (2017) in understanding the relationship of episodic job demands with work engagement. An example of the question is "I am enthusiastic about my job". The scale uses a 7-point Likert scale with range of 0 (Never) to 6 (Always/Every day).

4.3.5 Measures of Exhaustion

Measurement for exhaustion was adapted from the Burnout Assessment Scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2020). The short version of the survey consisting of 3 items was chosen after feedback from pretesting over the length and time to finish the overall questionnaire. An example of the question is "At work I feel mentally exhausted". The scale uses a 5-point Likert scale with range of 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

4.4 Ethical Consideration

Prior to the main part of the questionnaire, the respondents were given the information that all the data collected will be confidential and they will not be identified in the study publication. This is done to respect the respondents right to privacy and that they are participating based on informed consent which is understanding and agreeing on

the researcher request (Babin & Zikmund, 2016). It is also the obligation of the author to safely handle the information collected to prevent harm done towards the participants should they be identified.

CHAPTER 5 – DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the data analysis results are presented. Data analysis was conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 29.0. The chapter includes data preparation by checking for missing data, demographic results, and hypothesis testing.

5.1 Data Preparation

In total 282 responses were collected. However, subsequent checking found data that are subject to removal as they were incomplete due to not passing the initial respondents' check questions of being an APU student and of non-Japanese nationality. This is considered a failure in completing the survey and warrants deletion (Collier, 2020). The reason for this can be attributed to the survey distribution in classes attended by Japanese students and first-semester students who haven't done any part-time jobs yet. Further removal was done for 5 that have missing data on some questions and 2 were found to be of Japanese nationality bypassing the initial check. In total, 185 responses were deemed to be valid for further analysis.

5.2 Reliability and Validity Testing

Prior to conducting analysis on the data, reliability is assessed using Cronbach alpha. This is done as observed results from the measurement contain both true value and measurement error (Meyers et al., 2013). It is imperative to determine whether the items used to measure the constructs have minimal or relatively free from measurement error

as a prerequisite to achieving validity (whether the measurements correctly measure the intended construct). Cronbach alpha is a widely used reliability coefficient that measures the error-free degree of a scale hence providing an assessment of reliability (Meyers et al., 2013).

Table 2 Cronbach Alpha Testing Results

Construct	Items	Cronbach Alpha	Reliability
Self-efficacy (SE)	8	.886	Good
Workplace Inclusion (WI)	10	.926	High
Work Engagement (WE)	3	.825	Good
Exhaustion	3	.752	Acceptable
External Motivation Social (ES)	3	.888	Good
External Motivation Monetary (EM)	3	.794	Acceptable

			Inadequate
Internal Motivation Growth (IG)	3	.642	
Internal Motivation Enjoyment (IE)	3	.852	Good

A generally accepted guideline as noted by Meyers et al. (2013) is an alpha score of .70 as the lowest acceptable number with ≥ .80 being considered good and ≥ .90 as high reliability. Following the testing, nearly all items are found to demonstrate acceptable to high reliability. However, items measuring Internal Motivation (Growth) were found to be unreliable with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.642. As such, growth was discarded from subsequent data analysis and only three remaining types of motivation are discussed.

5.3 Demographics

The following describes the demographics of the sample (refer Appendix B for the full demographic data table). In the questionnaire, respondents were asked about their respective age group, gender, nationality, university study program, year of study, number of part-time they are currently working, the industry of their part-time work, amount of

workhour, classes/courses they are taking per week, and their latest GPA. The table detailing the demographics can be found in the appendix.

In terms of age, most of the respondents (two-thirds) are in the 20-25 years old age group bracket followed by those that are below 20 years old. Gender data show almost equal distribution, slightly more for females, of the respondents with only a couple preferring not to identify themselves. A total of 39 nationalities were represented by the respondents which account for almost 40% of the international students' nationalities (a total of 104) in the university. Students from Indonesia account for almost one-third of the respondents followed by Bangladesh (13%) and Vietnam (10.3%). The three countries are within the top 10 in regard to student numbers with Indonesian students being the second largest student group in the university. However, the overall number of respondents' nationalities shows a respectable representation of the students' diversity.

The students surveyed were asked which study program they are currently enrolled in. Most of the respondents involved were enrolled in the APM program accounting for 62.2% of the total. This is likely due to the survey being shared in three APM classes during the additional data-gathering phase on the first week of school. During the new academic year of Spring 2023, a new program was introduced in the university, the College of Sustainability & Tourism (ST). However, students from the ST program were not considered to be part of the research as first-semester international students who just arrived in Japan and generally do not work any part-time jobs yet.

A relatively equal distribution occurred among the respondents where 1st, 2nd, and 3rd-year students each contributed to more than a quarter of the total. 4th-year and beyond undergraduate students account for the remaining number of respondents. 5th-

year and beyond were also considered despite the low number as students generally finish their study within 4 years for the undergraduate program.

In terms of part-time demographic, most students who participated in the survey worked only one part-time job followed by those who worked 2 jobs. Only a small number of participants reported working 4 jobs concurrently. To identify which industry the jobs belong to, respondents were asked to fill in multiple-response answers. Three industries stand out: education, food, and hospitality. Examples of education jobs that were given in the questionnaire were English tutors and teaching assistants. Their high numbers might be explained by the fact that the university offers part-time teaching assistant positions to students. The food industry examples were restaurants and café while the hospitality example was the hotel business. Considering that the university is in Beppu city, which is a renowned tourist spot, especially for *onsen*, a traditional Japanese bath, many local businesses catering to tourist needs such as food and lodging employ part-time workers to run. This is also supported by data from JASSO which noted that restaurant businesses are the top employer of international students (JASSO, 2022). On the other hand, some respondents also work outside of the listed industries such as being a voice actor, doing translation work, campus social media (Facebook) management, part-time product manager for an automotive company, and golf range attendants.

Respondents were also asked about the number of hours they work per week in several ranges. Most answers are between the range of 4 hours to less than 16 hours with those that worked 12 hours to less than 16 hours per week as the most frequent. Despite the 28-hour per week restriction by the regulation, a small number of participants responded that they work more than the limit. The choice of more than 28 hours per week was given considering the possibility that some students might exceed the legal limit by

working with businesses that pay under the table to avoid legal repercussions. However, this research does not determine the reasoning for such illegality.

The students were also asked about the courses/classes they take per week. This was asked as numerous studies have established that managing academic life with part-time work is a considerable challenge for students trying to balance their life. Thus, knowing how many classes alongside the work that they do was deemed important to this study. The most frequent response was taking more than 6 courses/classes per week followed by 5 to 6 courses. Only a small number of students were taking no class at all during the semester.

Finally, the respondents were asked about their GPA as it is the number representing their academic achievement. The most common answers were those that are in the 3.50 to 4.00 range followed by those that are between the 3.00 to 3.50 range. Only a relatively small number of students reported a GPA of less than 2.50.

5.4 Hypothesis Testing and Analysis

5.4.1 Control Variable

To conduct the analysis, several control variables were included which are age, gender, workhour per week, courses/classes per week, and GPA. These are used to ascertain potential influences that they have and prevent bias in the analysis. Running a multiple linear regression on those also provides a glimpse into their influence on the dependent variables. Firstly, age and GPA are found to be statistically significant ($p = 0.033$ and $p = 0.030$ respectively) in relation to self-efficacy (SE) where the older the student is the less SE he/she will have while a higher GPA correlates with higher SE.

Course/classes per week are found to be statistically significant (p = 0.018) to work engagement (WE) showing that the more classes a student take the less likely he/she will be engaged in the part-time work. Finally, work hours per week are shown to affect student exhaustion in their part-time job (p = 0.024) where more hours will lead to more exhaustion confirming past research finding such as that by Ishimaru et al. (2022). Additionally, 'number of part-time' was not included as it did not show significance on all dependent variables, while gender is kept as a common control variable.

As the control variables are mostly categorical, it is imperative to create dummy variables for their regression (Meyers et al., 2013). After considering that some options have a low number of answers, it was decided for some of the options to be combined. For regressing categorical variables, one of the dummy variables was also selected as a reference group representing alternative outcome (Meyers et al., 2013). The reference groups are the least for age, workhour per week, GPA, and male for gender.

5.4.2 Regression Analysis

To analyze the data, multiple linear regression analysis was performed. Multiple linear regression is a method to predict one variable value based on the multiple other variables (Meyers et al., 2013). The following table, Table 3, summarized the results of the multiple linear regressions done on all the variables (regression coefficient, standard errors in the bracket, and its significance, p-value, are shown).

Table 3 Multiple Regression Analysis Results Summary

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
WI	0.203*** (0.052)	0.821*** (0.086)	-0.385*** (0.078)	0.201***(0.053)	0.832*** (0.088)	-0.401*** (0.079)	0.204*** (0.053)	0.828*** (0.086)	-0.389*** (0.078)	0.185** (0.068)	0.231* (0.095)	-0.207* (0.103)
MotES				0.065* (0.029)	0.044 (0.048)	0.082 (0.043)						
Interaction WIxMotES				-0.011 (0.033)	-0.045 (0.055)	0.021 (0.050)						
MotEM							0.019 (0.034)	0.083 (0.056)	0.043 (0.051)			
Interaction WIxMotEM							-0.005 (0.041)	-0.060 (0.067)	0.046 (0.061)			
MotIE										0.066 (0.048)	0.593*** (0.067)	-0.200** (0.073)
Interaction WIxMotIE										0.126** (0.034)	-0.091 (0.048)	-0.030 (0.052)
Control Variables												
Age												
20 to 25 years old	-0.327** (0.117)	-0.09 (0.193)	-0.083 (0.175)	-0.318** (0.113)	-0.104 (0.194)	-0.072 (0.175)	-0.325* (0.118)	-0.089 (0.194)	-0.063 (0.176)	-0.318** (0.113)	-0.045 (0.158)	-0.100 (0.172)

26 years old and beyond	-0.309 (0.158)	0.245 (0.261)	-0.548* (0.236)	-0.259 (0.153)	0.286 (0.263)	-0.494* (0.237)	-0.304 (0.159)	0.271 (0.261)	-0.548* (0.236)	-0.259 (0.153)	0.308 (0.214)	-0.588* (0.233)
Gender												
Female	-0.160 (0.091)	-0.102 (0.149)	0.175 (0.135)	-0.224* (0.090)	-0.129 (0.151)	0.134 (0.136)	-0.156 (0.092)	-0.076 (0.151)	0.164 (0.137)	-0.224* (0.090)	-0.311* (0.126)	0.264 (0.137)
Number of Part-time job	0.087 (0.059)	0.131 (0.097)	0.013 (0.088)	0.095 (0.057)	0.136 (0.099)	-0.001 (0.089)	0.083 (0.060)	0.112 (0.098)	0.007 (0.089)	0.095 (0.057)	0.103 (0.080)	0.017 (0.087)
Workhour per week												
8 hours to less than 16 hours per week	-0.111 (0.109)	-0.205 (0.179)	0.370* (0.162)	-0.085 (0.106)	-0.214 (0.179)	0.362* (0.161)	-0.118 (0.110)	-0.226 (0.181)	0.339* (0.0164)	-0.085 (0.106)	-0.029 (0.148)	0.308 (0.161)
16 hours to less than 24 hours per week	0.033 (0.132)	0.051 (0.217)	0.420* (0.196)	0.046 (0.127)	0.003 (0.221)	0.397* (0.198)	0.018 (0.135)	-0.007 (0.221)	0.377 (0.201)	0.046 (0.127)	0.029 (0.178)	0.421* (0.193)
24 hours per week and beyond	0.106 (0.151)	-0.012 (0.248)	0.531* (0.224)	0.082 (0.146)	-0.039 (0.253)	0.568* (0.228)	0.087 (0.158)	-0.072	0.453 (0.234)	0.082 (0.146)	-0.06 (0.203)	0.556* (0.221)
GPA												
2.50 to less than 3.00	0.243 (0.175)	-0.195 (0.289)	0.009 (0.261)	0.280 (0.170)	-0.216 (0.290)	-0.022 (0.260)	0.249 (0.177)	-0.157	0.006 (0.262)	0.280 (0.170)	-0.322 (0.237)	0.029 (0.258)
3.00 to less than 3.50	0.189 (0.155)	-0.014 (0.256)	0.014 (0.231)	0.213 (0.151)	-0.028 (0.257)	0.019 (0.231)	0.195 (0.157)	0.022	0.019 (0.233)	0.213 (0.151)	-0.176 (0.211)	0.050 (0.229)

3.50 to 4.00	0.323* (0.155)	-0.182 (0.255)	-0.018 (0.230)	0.354* (0.150)	-0.201 (0.256)	-0.008 (0.230)	0.329 (0.156)	-0.15	-0.018 (0.231)	0.354* (0.150)	-0.295 (0.209)	0.001 (0.227)
Constant	3.204*** (0.267)	0.755 (0.440)	4.368 (0.398)	3.252*** (0.267)	0.761 (0.445)	4.368*** (0.398)	3.206 (0.270)	0.736	4.414*** (0.401)	3.152** (0.316)	3.124** (0.442)	3.708** (0.480)
Model Summary												
R	.435	.621	.454	.463	.626	.454	.437	.629	.462	.503	.770	.490
R square	0.189	0.386	0.206	0.214	0.392	0.206	0.191	0.395	0.213	.253	0.593	0.240
F	3.674	9.872	4.090	3.59	3.783	3.783	3.101	8.590	3.565	4.460	19.157	4.152
p	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001

Symbol	Meaning
ns	$p > 0.05$
*	$p \leq 0.05$
**	$p \leq 0.01$
***	$p \leq 0.001$

5.4.2.1 Workplace Inclusion to Self-Efficacy, Work Engagement, and Exhaustion

Model 1 shows multiple linear regression on SE as a dependent variable with Workplace Inclusion (WI) as the independent variable. While accounting for the control variables, it shows that WI is statistically significant in predicting SE (p-value of less than 0.001 and F = 3.674). R square shows that the overall model explains 18.9% of the variance in SE. WI plays some role in shaping SE with a positive effect (b = .203, p < .001) of WI toward SE. This result provided evidence in support of H1.

Multiple linear regression on WE as the dependent variable with WI as the independent variable alongside the control variables is shown in Model 2. The result shows that WI is statistically significant in predicting WE (p-value of less than 0.001 and F = 9.872). R square shows that the overall model explains 38.6% of the variance in WE. WI plays a great role in shaping WE with a high positive effect of WI toward WE (b = .821, p < .001). Based on this, the study concluded that H2 is supported.

The testing for H3 is done in Model 3 with multiple linear regression on the dependent variable of Exhaustion. It is shown that WI is statistically significant in predicting Exhaustion (p-value of less than 0.001 and F = 4.090). R square shows that the overall model explains 20.6% of the variance in Exhaustion. The result shows a negative effect of WI toward Exhaustion (b = -.385, p < .001). This supports H3 that having WI will reduce exhaustion in the workplace.

5.4.3 Moderating Analysis on Motivation Types

To test out the effect several motivation types have on the relationships of H1 to H3, moderation analysis was conducted. Moderation analysis measures how a third

variable (referred to as moderator) between the independent and dependent variables influences the strength of the relationship (Collier, 2020). In total, there are three types of motivation that will be tested: External Social (ES), External Monetary (EM), and Internal Enjoyment (IE). One type of motivation, Internal Growth (IG) was not analyzed due to low Cronbach Alpha for the measurement rendering it unreliable.

Prior to conducting moderation analysis, mean centering was done to the independent, dependent, and moderator variables. This is done by subtracting the variable mean from all observations hence making the variable new mean zero thus centering it. The purpose is to avoid multicollinearity and to help clarify the regression coefficient without changing its R square (Iacobucci et al., 2017). Multicollinearity refers to sufficiently high correlations among predictor variables that can lead to bias and difficulties in interpreting the result (Iacobucci et al., 2016). As a result of mean centering, Iacobucci et al. (2016) noted that the resulting regression coefficients can be clarified to shine a light on the independent variables' individual contributions. The overall results can be seen in Model 4 to 12 in Table 3.

5.4.3.1 External Motivation Social moderation effect testing

Firstly, the research tested the moderation effect of external motivation social (ES) on H1, H2, and H3 relationships. The results were analyzed as follows:

Moderation analysis between the H1 relationship (WI to SE) with External Motivation Social (ES) is shown in Model 4. It shows that ES direct effect is statistically significant ($p = 0.025$) while its interaction is not statistically significant ($p = 0.740$). This

shows that ES does not moderate the H1 relationship while ES's direct effect only slightly influenced SE (b = 0.065, t = 1.994).

Model 5 shows the moderation analysis between the H2 relationship (WI to WE) with ES. The result shows that ES and its interaction are not statistically significant with p-values of 0.359 and 0.420 respectively. This provides evidence that ES does not have a direct effect to WE or moderate the relationship of H2.

Similar results can be seen in moderation analysis between H3 relationship (WI to Exhaustion) with ES as shown in Model 6. Both direct effect of ES and its interaction were shown to be insignificant, p = 0.057 and 0.679 respectively. As a result, it is proven that ES does not moderate the relationship of H3.

5.4.3.2 External Motivation Monetary moderation effect testing

The second moderation effect that was tested is external motivation monetary (EM) on H1, H2, and H3 relationships. The results were analyzed as follows:

Moderation analysis between H1 relationship (WI to SE) with EM can be seen in Model 7. It shows that EM and its interaction are not statistically significant (p-value of 0.588 and 0.905 respectively). This shows that EM does not have a direct effect or even moderate the relationship of H1.

Model 8 shows the moderation analysis between H2 relationship (WI to WE) with EM. The result shows that EM and its interaction are not statistically significant (p-value of 0.144 and 0.374 respectively). As such, it can be concluded that moderation does not happen through EM for H2 relationship.

A similar result was also found for the moderation analysis between the H3 relationship (WI to exhaustion) with EM (refer to Model 9). The result shows that its direct effect and interaction are not statistically significant (p-value of 0.394 and 0.544 respectively). This signifies the lack of moderating role for EM across all of H1 to H3 relationships.

5.4.3.3 Internal Motivation Enjoyment moderation effect testing

Finally, the research tested the moderation effect of internal motivation enjoyment (IE) on H1, H2, and H3 relationships. The results were analyzed as follows:

Moderation analysis between H1 relationship (WI to SE) with IE, as shown in Model 10, shows that the direct effect to SE itself is insignificant (p = 0.175) but its interaction term is statistically significant (p ≤ 0.001). This might be interpreted as in itself IE does not significantly influence SE, but depending on the condition it can significantly affect WI and SE relationship (b = 0.126). To get a better understanding, further analysis was conducted on the condition of low (-1 SD) and high IE (+1 SD). As shown in Figure 3, at low WI, low IE has slightly higher SE than high IE. However, in high WI, high IE produces significantly higher SE than low IE creating a cross-over interaction.
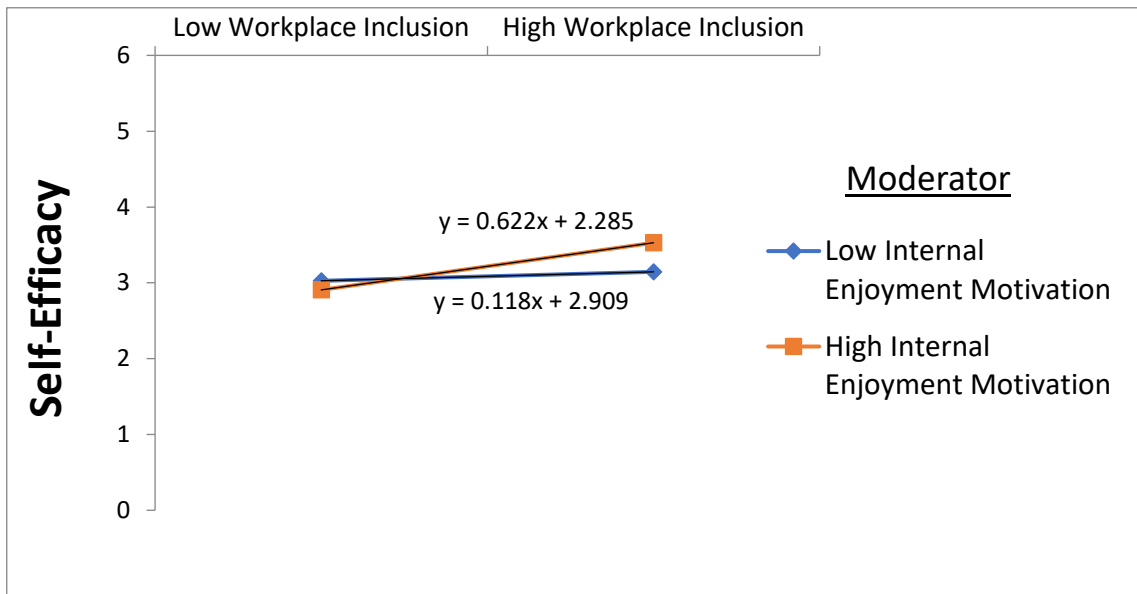
Figure 3 Comparison of High & Low Internal Motivation Enjoyment on H1

Moderation analysis between H2 relationship (WI to WE) with IE, as shown in Model 11, shows that while the direct effect is statistically significant (p-value of <.000), its interaction is statistically insignificant (p-value of 0.057). The direct effect is shown to be quite high (b = 0.593, t = 8.824) meaning that by itself, IE can improve WE. However, it can be established that IE does not moderate the relationship.

Moderation analysis between H3 relationship (WI to exhaustion) with IE, shown in Model 12, again shows that the direct effect is significant while its interaction is not (p-value of 0.007 and 0.566 respectively). This shows that IE is an influential factor by itself that reduces exhaustion (b = -0.200, t =-2.735). Hence, it does not moderate but instead directly dampens exhaustion. Additionally, it should be noted that WI significance in the model diminished (p = 0.46) when compared to the other motivation types. This seems to indicate that IE can almost be interchanged with WI.

5.4.7 Overall Testing Results

In overall, it shows that the two External motivations (ES and EM) did not have a moderation effect on the relationship between H1 to H3. On the other hand, IE showed a cross-over interaction for H1 (WI to SE), but not so for the other relationships. The positive effect of inclusion on self-efficacy is initially greater for students with low IE motivation, but high IE motivation triumphs in condition of high inclusion. Hence, the study concluded that H4 is only partially supported.

CHAPTER 6 – DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

This study aims to examine the mechanism of how workplace inclusion affected work engagement and exhaustion. As described in the first chapter, the key objectives of the study were to understand how workplace inclusion impacts international student part-time workers' work engagement and exhaustion as well as to understand how different types of motivation that the students have impacted each relationship. To understand those objectives, the study used a questionnaire to gather the relevant information and used regression techniques for analysis. This chapter will discuss the findings in the previous chapter and how it relates to existing theory and previous study. Practical implications will also be discussed to provide insight into how businesses can adopt the findings in their practice. Finally, the chapter will also discuss the limitations found in the study and suggestions for future research.

6.1 Theoretical Implications

Following the data analysis in Chapter 6, this study summarized the following regarding the hypothesis.

Hypothesis		Accepted/Rejected
H1	Workplace Inclusion have a positive effect on Self-efficacy	Accepted
H2	Workplace Inclusion have a positive effect on Work Engagement	Accepted

H3	Workplace Inclusion have a negative effect on Exhaustion	Accepted
H4	High-quality motivation moderates H1 to H3 relationships better than low-quality motivation	Partially accepted

Firstly, workplace inclusion was proven to have a direct impact on self-efficacy in a positive way. In other words, when workplace inclusion exists in the workplace, student part-timers' self-efficacy will improve. In this way, workplace inclusion as a job resource strengthens self-efficacy that acts as a personal resource to workers. This confirms the proposition of JDR in which job resources strengthen the personal resources that workers have (Bakker et al., 2023; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). As such, this can become a basis for workplaces to help empower student part-timers in their job.

The second hypothesis was similarly accepted on the grounds that the relationship between workplace inclusion and work engagement were statistically significant. Not only that, but work engagement greatly improved when workplace inclusion exists in the workplace. This shows that as a job resource, work inclusion greatly affected the work engagement of workers which is in line with the proposition of a 'motivational process' where job resources satisfy workers' needs thus fostering engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). This is seen as invaluable for a company as engagement leads to better performance. Hence, the study provides proof that even student part-time workers' engagement can be improved through the introduction and administering of workplace inclusion.

The third hypothesis proposed that workplace inclusion can help decrease the exhaustion that student part-time workers feel in their job. It was accepted based on the findings in the previous chapter. Similar to the other hypothesis, this is in line with the JDR proposition where job resources can lessen the exhaustion that affects workers with demands in their job (Bakker et al., 2023; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). In the context of student part-time workers, the act of balancing their studies and job can lead to exhaustion affecting their academic performance and overall well-being (Verulava & Jorbenadze, 2022). This negative impact on overall well-being can lead to dire consequences and as such the enforcement of inclusion in the workplace is hoped to lessen it.

Previous studies which studied the lack of inclusion or exclusion (e.g., due to gender or racism) have found that it is detrimental to workers' well-being (Blackley et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2014). However, the findings from H1 to H3 prove the contrasting situation. As such, the study provides proof to the propositions that workplace inclusion has positive influences on workers' well-being and should be cultivated and managed.

Subsequently, the final hypothesis deals with how different types of motivation moderate the relationship between inclusion and international part-time workers. The findings show that low-quality motivation such as extrinsic motivation social and extrinsic motivation monetary do not moderate the relationship of workplace inclusion with others. However, it was shown that extrinsic motivation social as a more internalized form of extrinsic motivation positively influences self-efficacy. This provided proof of Deci and Ryan (2009) and Gagné et al. (2022) proposition that internalized extrinsic motivation will improve attitudinal outcome in work. Hence, despite not having any moderating effect, a more internalized extrinsic motivation can still provide benefit.

In the case of intrinsic motivation, only intrinsic motivation enjoyment as a high-quality motivation type shows a moderating effect, particularly on self-efficacy. In overall, intrinsic motivation directly improves self-efficacy, work engagement, as well as reducing exhaustion. The finding also shows that students who are motivated by their enjoyment in the job can be engaged even without workplace inclusion. However, a combination of both results in a better self-efficacy overall as shown in condition of high inclusion and high internal enjoyment motivation. This shows that cultivation of workplace inclusion alongside workers intrinsic motivation enables the improvement of personal resources and attitude towards work.

In overall, the study findings reveal that inclusion affects work engagement and exhaustion through the mechanism of motivational process and health-impairment process as postulated in JDR. Inclusion which enables the feeling of belonging and showing of uniqueness creates a workplace that can help international students focus on their job. However, the lack of inclusion creates a workplace that is difficult for international students to do their job thus making them more exhausted. Additionally, within the framework of SDT, high-quality motivation will be more adept in utilizing their job resource hence improving their well-being and engagement with work such as seen in how intrinsic motivation enjoyment affect inclusion and self-efficacy. On the other hand, poor motivation will bring little to no benefits.

6.2 Practical Implications

As discussed in research by Conrad & Meyer-Ohle (2022), one of the problems in Japanese companies is related to belongingness and authenticity. The tendency towards collectivism and treatment of those who are considered outsiders in the *ie* system can lead to the suppression of oneself to conform with the prevailing norm (Alcantara & Shinohara, 2022; Rottig et al., 2017). This results in dissatisfaction among foreign employees who feel they cannot express their own personal uniqueness and have difficulties in feeling that they belong.

The findings put forward evidence that by having inclusion the company can benefit from increases of work engagement and self-efficacy as well as the reduction of exhaustion felt by workers. Work engagement is linked to increased performance which is often considered invaluable to a company (Bakker et al., 2023). This provides a reason for Japanese workplaces to introduce or improve their inclusion initiatives in spite of the prevalent *ie* practice.

To help with implementation of inclusion policies, company can use the study by Shore et al. (2018) which investigated aspects of inclusive organizations. It highlighted factors such as creating a feeling of safety, allowing all members to be involved, respect, as well as fair treatment amongst others to achieve inclusion. Creating a guideline which allows members of the workplace to understand how those aspects can be realized should be something that the company strives for. Additionally, company should avoid the pitfalls of compulsory training and bias on hiring as discussed by Dobbin & Kalev (2016). Thus, allowing inclusion to be fostered naturally within the work environment rather than forcing them through ineffective compulsory training.

The results also set a basis for international students who are seeking part-time employment to consider workplaces that have an emphasis on inclusion. Students can check the workplace as well as consult with other parties such as their own peers who are doing part-time work whether they can feel that they belong and show their uniqueness, the two dimensions of inclusion, in the job they are interested. By working with such a workplace, students can improve their self-efficacy which will serve them well on their self-development and study. Students will also feel engaged in their workplace thus allowing them to contribute positively toward the job. Additionally, students can also lessen the exhaustion that they experience from the job and thus allow them to balance their work and study.

6.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The definition of workplace inclusion used by the study only includes two dimensions of belongingness and uniqueness. However, in current development, companies like Phillip Moris have added more dimensions such as psychological safety, fairness, participation, and authenticity on top of the two dimensions (Philip Morris, 2022). This opens a new possibility of exploring dimensions of WI in future research and how those different dimensions might differ in their effect on workers' well-being.

Workplace Inclusion practices or D&I policies in a company have often been said to fail (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). This poses a dilemma as in this study it has been statistically proven that inclusion provides positive benefits. Future studies might be able to gain insight into this by looking into what factors hinder the implementation of inclusion policies. A case study on a successful case and the opposite can also contribute

to a better understanding and help formulate risk-minimization of implementing inclusion in business.

The current study only looks from the viewpoint of workers, namely international student part-time workers. However, to gain a more holistic view, the viewpoint of the businesses themselves also needs to be considered. Researching workplace inclusion policies currently in place of the businesses as well as what factors deterred businesses from applying inclusion will be beneficial to gain further insight.

From the four types of motivation proposed in this study, internal motivation growth measurement items were shown to not be reliable. This poses a gap and opportunity to be addressed by future research. Studies in the future would fare well on finding measurement that can best capture internal motivation growth or a similar type of motivation.

Additionally, factors influencing WI itself should also be considered for further study. For example, based on discussions with students during data collection one particular concern that often comes up when trying to get a part-time job is the Japanese language ability. This is more so since advertisement on the job available often includes prerequisites of a certain language level. Hence, future research should investigate this and other factors to ascertain whether they influence workplace inclusion and if so, how great are the influences.

6.4 Conclusion

The study affirms workplace inclusion's positive impact on well-being through the mechanism of JDR theory. Additionally, studying different types of motivation also

reveals that not all affected inclusion relationship with only intrinsic motivation of enjoyment showing its impact. This shows that despite previously hypothesized, some motivation types can be disregarded. Echoing the sentiment of other research such as (Sarich et al., 2021) that workers have a right to be engaged in their work. Businesses would do well by facilitating the development of inclusion to help improve engagement with work. The study hopes that the findings of this research can help company organizational practice in the future.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire Items

1. Are you a non-Japanese nationalities APU students? *

   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ Yes, I am not a Japanese nationality APU student.

   ◯ No, my nationality is Japanese.

2. Do you work part-time job during the semester? *

   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ Yes

   ◯ No

   Demographic

   Please answer the following questions regarding your background information.

3. **I am currently in the following age group:** *

   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ Below 20 years old

   ◯ 20 to 25 years old

   ◯ 26 to 30 years old

   ◯ 31 to 35 years old

   ◯ 36 years old or beyond

4. **I identify as the following gender:** *

   Mark only one oval.

   ◯ Male

   ◯ Female

   ◯ I prefer not to say

   ◯ Other: _____

5. **I am from the following country (nationality):** *

Mark only one oval.

◯ Afghanistan

◯ Albania

◯ Algeria

◯ Andorra

◯ Angola

◯ Antigua and Barbuda

◯ Argentina

◯ Armenia

◯ Australia

◯ Austria

◯ Azerbaijan

◯ The Bahamas

◯ Bahrain

◯ Bangladesh

◯ Barbados

◯ Belarus

◯ Belgium

◯ Belize

◯ Benin

◯ Bhutan

◯ Bolivia

◯ Bosnia and Herzegovina

◯ Botswana

◯ Brazil

◯ Brunei

◯ Bulgaria

◯ Burkina Faso

- ◯ Burundi
- ◯ Cabo Verde
- ◯ Cambodia
- ◯ Cameroon
- ◯ Canada
- ◯ Central African Republic
- ◯ Chad
- ◯ Chile
- ◯ China
- ◯ Colombia
- ◯ Comoros
- ◯ Congo, Democratic Republic of the
- ◯ Congo, Republic of the
- ◯ Costa Rica
- ◯ Côte d'Ivoire
- ◯ Croatia
- ◯ Cuba
- ◯ Cyprus
- ◯ Czech Republic
- ◯ Denmark
- ◯ Djibouti
- ◯ Dominica
- ◯ Dominican Republic
- ◯ East Timor (Timor-Leste)
- ◯ Ecuador
- ◯ Egypt
- ◯ El Salvador
- ◯ Equatorial Guinea
- ◯ Eritrea
- ◯ Estonia

- ◯ Eswatini
- ◯ Ethiopia
- ◯ Fiji
- ◯ Finland
- ◯ France
- ◯ Gabon
- ◯ The Gambia
- ◯ Georgia
- ◯ Germany
- ◯ Ghana
- ◯ Greece
- ◯ Grenada
- ◯ Guatemala
- ◯ Guinea
- ◯ Guinea-Bissau
- ◯ Guyana
- ◯ Haiti
- ◯ Honduras
- ◯ Hungary
- ◯ Iceland
- ◯ India
- ◯ Indonesia
- ◯ Iran
- ◯ Iraq
- ◯ Ireland
- ◯ Israel
- ◯ Italy
- ◯ Jamaica
- ◯ Japan
- ◯ Jordan

- ◯ Kazakhstan
- ◯ Kenya
- ◯ Kiribati
- ◯ Korea, North
- ◯ Korea, South
- ◯ Kosovo
- ◯ Kuwait
- ◯ Kyrgyzstan
- ◯ Laos
- ◯ Latvia
- ◯ Lebanon
- ◯ Lesotho
- ◯ Liberia
- ◯ Libya
- ◯ Liechtenstein
- ◯ Lithuania
- ◯ Luxembourg
- ◯ Madagascar
- ◯ Malawi
- ◯ Malaysia
- ◯ Maldives
- ◯ Mali
- ◯ Malta
- ◯ Marshall Islands
- ◯ Mauritania
- ◯ Mauritius
- ◯ Mexico
- ◯ Micronesia, Federated States of
- ◯ Moldova
- ◯ Monaco

- ◯ Mongolia
- ◯ Montenegro
- ◯ Morocco
- ◯ Mozambique
- ◯ Myanmar (Burma)
- ◯ Namibia
- ◯ Nauru
- ◯ Nepal
- ◯ Netherlands
- ◯ New Zealand
- ◯ Nicaragua
- ◯ Niger
- ◯ Nigeria
- ◯ North Macedonia
- ◯ Norway
- ◯ Oman
- ◯ Pakistan
- ◯ Palau
- ◯ Panama
- ◯ Papua New Guinea
- ◯ Paraguay
- ◯ Peru
- ◯ Philippines
- ◯ Poland
- ◯ Portugal
- ◯ Qatar
- ◯ Romania
- ◯ Russia
- ◯ Rwanda
- ◯ Saint Kitts and Nevis

- ◯ Saint Lucia
- ◯ Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
- ◯ Samoa
- ◯ San Marino
- ◯ Sao Tome and Principe
- ◯ Saudi Arabia
- ◯ Senegal
- ◯ Serbia
- ◯ Seychelles
- ◯ Sierra Leone
- ◯ Singapore
- ◯ Slovakia
- ◯ Slovenia
- ◯ Solomon Islands
- ◯ Somalia
- ◯ South Africa
- ◯ Spain
- ◯ Sri Lanka
- ◯ Sudan
- ◯ Sudan, South
- ◯ Suriname
- ◯ Sweden
- ◯ Switzerland
- ◯ Syria
- ◯ Taiwan
- ◯ Tajikistan
- ◯ Tanzania
- ◯ Thailand
- ◯ Togo
- ◯ Tonga

( ) Trinidad and Tobago

( ) Tunisia

( ) Turkey

( ) Turkmenistan

( ) Tuvalu

( ) Uganda

( ) Ukraine

( ) United Arab Emirates

( ) United Kingdom

( ) United States

( ) Uruguay

( ) Uzbekistan

( ) Vanuatu

( ) Vatican City

( ) Venezuela

( ) Vietnam

( ) Yemen

( ) Zambia

( ) Zimbabwe

6. **I am currently enrolled in the following APU program:** *

Mark only one oval.

( ) College of International Management (APM)

( ) College of Asia Pacific Studies (APS)

( ) Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies-Master (GSAM)

( ) Graduate School of Management-Master (GSMM)

( ) Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies-Doctoral (GSAD)

7. **I am currently in the following year of study: ***

Mark only one oval.

( ) 1st year (1st/2nd semester)

( ) 2nd year (3rd/4th semester)

( ) 3rd year (5th/6th semester)

( ) 4th year (7th/8th semester)

( ) 5th year or beyond (9th semester or beyond)

8. During the semester, I'm working the following number of part time job:

Mark only one oval.

( ) 1

( ) 2

( ) 3

( ) Other: _____

9. **During the semester I'm working part-time in the following industry (check all that * is applicable):**

Check all that apply.

[ ] Caretaker (example: babysitting)

[ ] Education (example: English tutor, teaching assistant)

[ ] Food (example: restaurant, café)

[ ] Hospitality (example: hotel)

[ ] Retail (example: convenience store, supermarket, clothing stores)

[ ] Shipping & Delivery (example: sorting packages, courier)

[ ] Manufacturing (example: factory)

[ ] Other: _____

10. **During the semester I'm working the following hours per week: ***

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Less than 4 hours
- ◯ 4 hours to less than 8 hours
- ◯ 8 hours to less than 12 hours
- ◯ 12 hours to less than 16 hours
- ◯ 16 hours to less than 20 hours
- ◯ 20 hours to less than 24 hours
- ◯ 24 hours to 28 hours
- ◯ More than 28 hours

11. **During the semester I'm taking the following number of courses/classes per week:**

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Not taking any classes at all
- ◯ 1 to 2 courses/classes
- ◯ 3 to 4 courses/classes
- ◯ 5 to 6 courses/classes
- ◯ More than 6 courses/classes

12. **My latest GPA is within the following range:**

Mark only one oval.

○ Less than 1.00

○ 1.00 to less than 1.50

○ 1.50 to less than 2.00

○ 2.00 to less than 2.50

○ 2.50 to less than 3.00

○ 3.00 to less than 3.50

○ 3.50 to 4.00

Self-efficacy

Please state how each statement applies to you.

13.   *

I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I set for myself.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroi	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

14.   *

When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stror	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

15.   *

In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stror	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

16.   I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stror	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

17. *

I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

18. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

19. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

20. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

Motivation

The following statements are related to your part-time work situation and how you experience this situation.
Please state how each statement applies to you.

If you have multiple part-time jobs, think
about the part-time job you work the longest (greatest number of work
hours per week) in answering the following questions.

21.   I don't like to be judged as irresponsible by the people around me if I don't do my part- *
        time job

        Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroi	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

22.   I don't want people around me to look down on me (for example: don't have   *
        endurance) if I don't do my part-time job

        Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroi	○	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly Agree

23. I don't like it if Japanese people around me have a negative impression of me if I don't *
do my part-time job

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroi	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

24. I do my part-time job because I want to be rewarded financially *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroi	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

25. I will face an economic problem and cannot continue my life in Japan if I don't do my *
part-time job

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroi	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

26. I have to earn the money for my living expenses with my part-time job *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroi	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

27. I think that my part-time job allows me to learn and experience things outside of my study *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

28. I think that my part-time job allows me to learn, experience, and improve the Japanese language and culture knowledge *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

29. I think that my part-time job allows me to gain practical experience in the things I studied *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

30. I like my part-time job. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

31. I found the content of my part-time work to be interesting. *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯		Strongly Agree

32. I like being absorbed in my part-time job *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯		Strongly Agree

Workplace Inclusion

The following statements are related to your part-time work situation and how you experience this situation.
Please state how each statement applies to you.

If you have multiple part-time jobs, think
about the part-time job you work the longest (greatest number of work
hours per week) in answering the following questions.

33.   *

I am treated as a valued member at work

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

34. I feel I belong at my workplace *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

35. I feel connected to my workplace *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

36. I believe that my workplace is where I am meant to be *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

37. I feel that people at work really care about me *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

38. I can bring aspects of myself to the workplace that others in the workplace don't have *
in common with me

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

39. People in my workplace listen to me even when my views are dissimilar *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

40. While at work, I am comfortable expressing opinions that diverge from others *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

41. I can share a perspective on work issues that is different from others *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

42. When my co-workers perspective becomes too narrow, I am able to bring up a new point of view *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Stroı	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

Work Engagement

The following statements are related to your part-time work situation and how you experience this situation.
Please state how often each statement applies to you.

If you have multiple part-time jobs, think
about the part-time job you work the longest (greatest number of work
hours per week) in answering the following questions.

Use the following guideline for your answers.

- 0
  (Never)
- 1
  (Almost never/a few times a year or less)
- 2
  (Rarely/Once a month or less)
- 3
  (Sometimes/A few times a month)
- 4
  (Often/Once a week)
- 5
  (Very often/A few times a week)
- 6
  (Always/Every Day)

43. At work, I feel bursting with energy *

    Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Neve	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always/Every Day

44. I am enthusiastic about my job *

    Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Neve	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always/Every Day

45. I am immersed in my work *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always/Every Day

Exhaustion

The following statements are related to your part-time work situation and how you experience this situation.
Please state how often each statement applies to you.

If you have multiple part-time jobs, think
about the part-time job you work the longest (greatest number of work
hours per week) in answering the following questions.

46. At work I feel mentally exhausted *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always

47. After a day at work, I find it hard to recover my energy *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always

48. At work, I feel physically exhausted *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always

Appendix B

Demographics Data Table

Characteristics	n	%
Age		
Below 20 years old	32	17.3
20 to 25 years old	128	69.2
26 to 30 years old	11	5.9
31 to 35 years old	13	7.0
36 years old or beyond	1	0.5
Gender		
Male	83	44.9
Female	100	54.1
Prefer not to say	2	1.1
Country (Nationality)		
Afghanistan	2	1.1
Australia	3	1.6
Bangladesh	24	13.0
Cambodia	1	0.5
Canada	1	0.5
China	4	2.2
Colombia	1	0.5
Côte d'Ivoire	1	0.5

Denmark	2	1.1
Egypt	1	0.5
Finland	1	0.5
Ghana	1	0.5
India	5	2.7
Indonesia	54	29.2
Italy	1	0.5
Kenya	1	0.5
Korea, South	3	1.6
Lesotho	1	0.5
Malaysia	3	1.6
Mexico	1	0.5
Mongolia	6	3.2
Morocco	1	0.5
Mozambique	1	0.5
Myanmar (Burma)	14	7.6
Nepal	5	2.7
Nigeria	1	0.5
Norway	1	0.5
Pakistan	2	1.1
Peru	1	0.5
Philippines	5	2.7
South Africa	1	0.5
Sri Lanka	4	2.2

Sudan	1	0.5
Syria	1	0.5
Thailand	6	3.2
Uganda	1	0.5
United States	1	0.5
Uzbekistan	3	1.6
Vietnam	19	10.3
Study Program		
College of International Management (APM)	115	62.2
College of Asia Pacific Studies (APS)	42	22.7
Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies-Master (GSAM)	9	4.9
Graduate School of Management-Master (GSMM)	17	9.2
Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies-Doctoral (GSAD)	2	1.1
Year of Study		
1st year (1st/2nd semester)	52	28.1
2nd year (3rd/4th semester)	55	29.7
3rd year (5th/6th semester)	53	28.6
4th year (7th/8th semester)	22	11.9
5th year or beyond (9th semester or beyond)	3	1.6
No. of Part-time Job		
1	98	53.0
2	60	32.4
3	23	12.4

4	4	2.2

Part-time Job Industry

Caretaker	4	1.6
Education	82	31.8
Food	74	28.7
Hospitality	62	24.0
Retail	26	10.1
Shipping & Delivery	2	0.8
Others	8	3.1

Workhour per week

Less than 4 hours	14	7.6
4 hours to less than 8 hours	38	20.5
8 hours to less than 12 hours	30	16.2
12 hours to less than 16 hours	43	23.2
16 hours to less than 20 hours	15	8.1
20 hours to less than 24 hours	20	10.8
24 hours to 28 hours	21	11.4

More than 28 hours	4	2.2
Courses/Classes per week		
Not taking any classes at all	3	1.6
1 to 2 courses/classes	10	5.4
3 to 4 courses/classes	32	17.3
5 to 6 courses/classes	52	28.1
More than 6 courses/classes	88	47.6
GPA (Latest)		
1.50 to less than 2.00	4	2.2
2.00 to less than 2.50	15	8.1
2.50 to less than 3.00	29	15.7
3.00 to less than 3.50	65	35.1
3.50 to 4.00	72	38.9