



日本、マレーシア、タイで働く現地従業員に関する仕事への自信と職務満足の関係についての研究： 気質的アプローチ

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概要

本研究は「職務満足と仕事に対する自信がどのように関係しているか」を気質的アプローチにより、アジアで働く人を研究対象として調査した。調査のサンプル数は合計で801名、内訳は210名の日本人、392名のマレーシア人、199名のタイ人であり、2つの日系企業から協力を得た。先ず、分散分析の結果から職務満足と仕事の自信の度合いは3つの国で明らかに異なるレベルを示し、両変数とも日本が最低値、マレーシアが中間、タイが最高値であった。次に、職務満足と仕事の自信の関係について重回帰分析を行った。年齢、性別、職務年数、職位の社会的属性変数をコントロール後、調査対象者全体及び3ヶ国の個別において、仕事の自信は職務満足に影響を及ぼす結果となった。この研究結果から国や文化にかかわらず、一般論としての「仕事の自信が職務満足に作用する」という見方を強化し、さらに気質的アプローチがアジアを対象にしたサンプルでも有効であることを示した。

キーワード：職務満足、仕事の自信、気質的アプローチ、現地従業員、アジア、日系企業

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The impact of job-related self-confidence on job satisfaction among host country nationals of Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand: A dispositional approach

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1. Introduction

The management of human resources (HRs) is key to the success of multinational corporations (MNCs) (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Doz & Prahalad, 1986). In MNCs, host country nationals (HCNs) have played an increasingly important and active role (DeNisi, Toh, & Connelly, 2006) among global personnel in both nonmanagement and management jobs (Briscoe, Schuler, & Claus, 2009). To manage and retain competent HCNs, MNCs have to understand not only to what extent they are satisfied with their jobs in MNC subsidiaries, but also what factors enhance their job satisfaction, since job satisfaction relates to job performance (Wiggins & Moody, 1983).

Although managing HCNs' job satisfaction is strategically important for MNCs in their efforts to gain a competitive advantage in the global business world, multinational research concerning job satisfaction differences among countries still remains constrained (Mueller, Hatstrup, & Hausmann, 2009; Ryan,

Chan, Ployhart, & Slade, 1999). A great number of cross-national studies of job satisfaction differences have been conducted for almost half a century (see Blunt, 1973; Clark & McCabe, 1972; Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter, 1966; Huang & Van de Vliert, 2004; Krant & Ronen, 1975; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990; Lincoln, Hanada, & Olson, 1981; Mueller et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 1999; Slocum & Topichak, 1972; Spector & Wimalasiri, 1986). Yet, most studies, especially early comparative research, tended to simply present job satisfaction variations among a few countries (Mueller et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 1999) with little explanation about what makes job satisfaction differ by country (Sanches-Runde, Lee, & Steers, 2009). As a consequence, MNCs may lack understanding of how and why HCNs in different countries are satisfied with their jobs. The present study thereby addresses cross-national analysis of HCNs' job satisfaction particularly in connection with job-related self-confidence through a dispositional approach, as proposed by Judge (1992) and his colleagues (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997; Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001).

Like job satisfaction, the concept of

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self-confidence is relevant to critical domains of HR management and organizational behavior (Gist, 1987; Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). A theoretical connection between self-confidence and job satisfaction can be seen in a dispositional model of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1997). This model explains that four core personality traits are determinants of job satisfaction, and one of those traits is general self-efficacy, an academic term that describes self-confidence (Hollenbeck & Hall, 2004). Judge and Bono (2001) conducted a meta-analysis using studies published from 1957 to 1997 and found that job satisfaction is strongly linked to general self-efficacy. However, in more recent research on a connection between job satisfaction and self-confidence in international contexts, cross-national empirical studies have shown complex and inconsistent results. Consistent with the findings of Judge and Bono's (2001) meta-analysis, the cross-national research of satisfaction conducted by Luszczynska, Gutierrez-Dona, and Schwarzer (2005) documented a strong correlation between work or school satisfaction and self-efficacy in Costa Rica and Germany. However, the cross-cultural investigation of Luthans, Zhu, and Avolio (2006) reported in part that job satisfaction was not significantly associated with self-efficacy in the Southeast Asian countries of Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand, a result that may be related to the economic uncertainty in the countries when their study was conducted.

The inconsistent results across countries in studies of job satisfaction in connection with self-confidence may not only cast doubt on such a relationship within MNCs in practical terms but also raise theoretical questions about the cross-national generalizability of the construct of job satisfaction derived from a perspective of dispositional approaches. It seems important to investigate whether job satisfaction is related to self-confidence in the job across countries, particularly in the research context of Southeast Asian countries, which have produced inconsistent results. Additionally, it should be noted that the samples of the aforementioned international studies were diverse. Costa Rican participants were composed of university students and factory workers in international firms, while German participants included schoolteachers, high school students, and East German migrants (Luszczynska et al., 2005). The research participants of the Southeast Asian countries consisted of employees working for private firms and public organizations (Luthans et al., 2006). Accordingly, previous studies did not specifically target HCNs working for MNCs.

In summary, the present study seeks to address how job satisfaction of HCNs relates to their self-confidence in the job at a subsidiary of an MNC in the three Asian countries of Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand. This study is also intended to contribute to theory concerning the cross-national generalizability of the construct of job satisfaction through a view of

dispositional approaches. Last but not least, this study aims to offer useful insight for HR international management practices for the effectiveness of MNCs.

2. Job Satisfaction and Job-Related Self-Confidence Across Countries

2.1 Cross-national differences in job satisfaction

Job satisfaction describes a positive emotion linked to individuals' evaluation of their job (Locke, 1976). The construct of job satisfaction has been widely studied in the management literature (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Judge et al., 2001; Mueller et al., 2009; Sanches-Runde et al., 2009). Because of rapidly expanding globalization, an international perspective of job satisfaction has drawn the attention of management scholars and specialists (Liu, Borg, & Spector, 2004). As discussed in the introduction, a great number of cross-national job satisfaction studies have been documented.

For example, Haire et al. (1966) conducted their comparative study of 14 countries with more than 3,600 managers and found that employees from Argentina, Chile, India, Italy, and Spain displayed comparatively low job satisfaction, whereas Swedish employees exhibited the highest satisfaction with their job. Another cross-national study by Slocum and Topichak (1972) investigated 94 Mexican

workers and 83 American counterparts working for a glass company and documented that the job satisfaction of Mexicans was higher than that of Americans. Furthermore, Lincoln et al. (1981) examined a total of 522 employees of Japanese MNCs to compare three groups of American, Japanese - American, and Japanese employees and reported that the job satisfaction of the American group was greater than that of the other two groups. Similarly, Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) investigated more than 8,000 workers in the United States and Japan and documented that Americans exhibited greater satisfaction with their job but less commitment to their company than Japanese workers. By using 10 specific aspects of job satisfaction, Spector and Wimalasiri (1986) conducted a comparative study using 182 Singaporean employees and 3,442 American employees from multiple organizations and reported that five specific satisfaction facets were significantly different between those countries. Overall, much empirical evidence from previous comparative job satisfaction research has illustrated that job satisfaction tends to vary by country.

This study's research context involves Asian HCNs of MNCs—specifically in Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand—to determine how job satisfaction of HCNs differs by country. The aforementioned empirical evidence suggests that HCNs' job satisfaction may vary by country, and it is useful to identify how similarly or differently HCNs are satisfied with their job in specific countries. Accordingly,

the present study addresses the following exploratory question (EQ):

- (1) How do HCNs from Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand working in MNCs differ in job satisfaction?

2.2 Self-confidence definitions and cross-national differences

Self-confidence describes individuals' perception that they can succeed in a certain effort (McCarty, 1986). This personality characteristic is important for the effectiveness of business persons (Swan & Futrell, 1990) and especially of leaders (Mowday, 1979; Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2003). Furthermore, self-confidence is considered a positive mental asset for individual and organizational success (Luthans et al., 2004) and leads to favorable job performance (Bandura, 1997; Luthans et al., 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-confidence is also presented as 'self-efficacy' in the literature (see Maurera, 2001; Luthans et al., 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). According to Bandura (1982, 1997), self-efficacy refers to people's self-confidence (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) that they can coordinate and achieve the courses of action to effectively complete a given specific job, applying their own resources of motivation, cognition, and behavior capabilities (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). The term 'self-efficacy' is usually employed to address a specific job or a particular task. When discussing a more general or overall situation and a wide range of behavior (Eden & Zuk,

1995; Luszczynska et al., 2005), the term 'general self-efficacy' is used. General self-efficacy represents a comprehensive judgment that people can perform effectively in given situations (Eden & Zuk, 1995), handle difficult environments (Luthans et al., 2006), and manage life stressors with a confident view of their abilities (Schwarzer & Born, 1997).

As with job satisfaction, self-confidence may also vary based on country and culture. Several empirical studies showed cross-national differences in self-efficacy (Klassen, 2004). For example, Schwarzer and Born (1997) illustrated that participants in Hong Kong and Japan exhibited the lowest self-efficacy, while those in Costa Rica and Russia showed the highest among 13 countries. The cross-national study by Scholz, Gutierrez-Dona, Sud, and Schwarzer (2002) examined 25 countries and found the lowest self-efficacy among the Japanese and Hong Kong Chinese and the highest self-efficacy among participants from Costa Rica, Denmark, and France. Klassen (2004) reviewed 20 self-efficacy studies in cross-cultural settings and suggested that self-efficacy beliefs of people from Western cultures are higher than those of people from non-Western cultures, such as Asia and Eastern Europe. It is thought, then, that self-confidence also varies by country. Because this study examines HCNs of subsidiaries of MNCs, as with the first question concerning job satisfaction, it addresses a second exploratory question as follows:

- (2) How do HCNs from Japan, Malaysia,

and Thailand working in MNCs differ in self-confidence in the job?

2.3 Situational and dispositional factors that influence job satisfaction

It is unclear why there are differences in job satisfaction between countries. Judge et al. (1997, 2001) explained that factors that influence job satisfaction have been classified into situational approaches (focusing on the environment) or dispositional approaches (focusing on personal traits), as well as a combination of the two. Situational theories have been widespread in the management literature (Houghton & Jinkerson, 2007). Such theories explain how job satisfaction depends on the work situation or the nature of job features. The two-factor theory proposed by Herzberg (1966) and his colleagues (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) and the job characteristics model of Hackman and Oldham (1976) are typical of situational theories (Judge et al., 2001). International job satisfaction studies using job types (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2004) and those with socioeconomic factors (Pichler & Wallace, 2009) are also thought to fall into this classification.

The dispositional approach is a central focus of this study. Although dispositional approaches have received some attention in the management field, they have not been developed sufficiently (Judge et al., 2001). Staw and Ross (1985) proposed dispositional approaches, discussing that job satisfaction is

rooted in individual characteristics. Contrary to situational theories, dispositional approaches directly link a source of job satisfaction with individual personalities; therefore, it can be said that job satisfaction is independent of people's situation and job characteristics (Judge et al., 1997). For example, if people generally tend to be satisfied with their life or possess positive affectivity, they will be satisfied with their job. Therefore, their job satisfaction does not depend on whether they have a positive or negative task or job situation (Houghton & Jinkerson, 2007).

Research on dispositional approaches has received criticism (Cropanzano & James, 1990; Gerhart, 1987), most of which has concerned methodological problems (Judge, 1992). Nonetheless, empirical evidence has supported dispositional approaches (Houghton & Jinkerson, 2007). For example, the study with employees of a U.S. medical institution conducted by Agho, Muller, and Price (1993) indicated that both positive and negative affectivities were strongly associated with employees' job satisfaction. Watson and Slack (1993) conducted a longitudinal study of employees working for a university in the United States and also found a stable association between both affectivity and job satisfaction over 2 years. International job satisfaction studies conducted by Mueller et al. (2009) also applied dispositional approaches. Their study particularly concentrated on national positivity, which is related to positive affectivity as a dispositional component. Their results demon-

strated that national positivity differentiated the level of job satisfaction across more than 40 countries. Their study is noteworthy in that it clearly linked cross-national studies and individual dispositional variables (i. e., positive affectivity) as a source of job satisfaction. Based on such empirical evidence, it is reasonable to infer that other individual dispositions may affect job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1997).

Early dispositional approaches mainly considered the role of positive or negative feelings or general affective disposition in relation to job satisfaction (Judge, 1992). Later, dispositional approaches evolved into a more comprehensive model and included other important personality traits. Judge et al. (1997) introduced the idea of core evaluations of self, building on Packer's (1985) research. Core evaluations have characteristics of being evaluative and fundamental and including broad aspects of individual personality traits (Judge et al., 1997). Because of the characteristics of the core evaluation, the dispositional model of job satisfaction not only encompasses positive and negative affectivities as determinants of job satisfaction but also extends to the four traits of self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticism, and general self-efficacy (i. e., self-confidence). Judge et al. (1997) explained that general self-efficacy is considered part of the core evaluation because of its fundamental nature and wide aspect, including its influence on individuals' evaluations of their ability to effectively execute the courses of

action needed for goal attainment (Judge et al., 1997).

2.4 A relationship between job-related self-confidence and job satisfaction

This study concerns how self-confidence is related to job satisfaction. In order to develop a hypothesis, the study relied on the dispositional model of job satisfaction. As discussed, self-confidence is an individual's perception or belief that he or she can succeed in a certain effort (McCarty, 1986), so a self-confident person tends to have a positive feeling regarding jobs assigned to him or her. Even though a job can be difficult, the person with self-confidence would believe that he or she would be able to cope with any challenging aspects of the job (Schwarzer & Born, 1997; Stumph, Brief, & Hartman, 1987) because self-confidence serves to enhance motivation to deal with challenges (Benabou & Tirole, 2002). Such a person would evaluate self highly, which tends to increase self-esteem because general self-efficacy is closely connected to self-esteem (Judge et al., 1997). Furthermore, a person with strong self-confidence may be more inclined to exert effort by employing the skills necessary for high performance (Bandura, 1982). As a result, the performance efforts of individuals with self-confidence would lead to a greater possibility of attainment and success compared with those without self-confidence. Subsequently, attainment is thought to arouse positive feelings for jobs in relation to effort. Luszczynska et al.

(2005) also discussed that general self-efficacy leads to more effective problem solving, which is followed by enhancement of positive emotions. Specifically, if people have self-confidence in a job context where they exert great effort and complete a job, their positive emotion about the job will be evoked, which can be translated into job satisfaction. Accordingly, it is thought that self-confidence has a positive effect on job satisfaction through successful job achievement.

As presented earlier, the meta-analysis by Judge and Bono (2001), as well as the cross-national empirical study by Luszczynska et al. (2005), supported a strong positive correlation between self-confidence and job or school satisfaction. Although the international comparative investigation conducted by Luthans et al. (2006) reported a positive but insignificant association between the two constructs in Southeast countries, a result that might have been related to the environment of economic uncertainty, their study regarding the United States showed a significant relationship. When the literature is taken together, it appears that individuals with higher self-confidence in the job experience more successful performance and achievement, which leads to higher job satisfaction. In contrast, it is thought that those with lower self-confidence would have lower job satisfaction because they tend to be less successful in the job. Accordingly, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis: Self-confidence in the job

affects job satisfaction.

3. Methods

3.1 Research sites

Two Japanese MNCs participated in this research. Data pertaining to Japanese job satisfaction and self-confidence in the job were collected from Japanese employees of 'MNC A,' located in Tokyo, whose business involves selling and servicing office machine products domestically in the Japanese market. MNC A is a widely recognized firm in the office machine industry in Japan and operates in worldwide markets. For the other Japanese MNC, 'MNC B,' data were collected from HCNs in Malaysia and Thailand. MNC B does a wide range of retail business as one of the biggest companies in Japan, operating in supermarkets, convenience stores, home centers, gas stations, and drugstores and also offering banking and mobile communication services. MNC B has been strategically developing in foreign countries, especially in Asian retail markets. These two Japanese MNCs hold dissimilar product and merchandise lines, but their main business functions, involving sales and service, are alike.

3.2 Sampling procedures

The study sample was composed of 801 employees of the two Japanese MNCs. The sample of Japanese employees was relatively equally distributed in age but tended to have

longer work tenure, with 36.7% of the sample having over 20 years of experience in the firm. Most Japanese employees were male at 86.7%, and 38.1% were managers. For the sample of Malaysian employees, 89.2% were younger than 40 years old, and 51.8% had worked for MNC B for 6 years or less. Female employees represented the majority of the sample, at 63.3%, and 39.5% of those in the sample were managers. Finally, the sample of Thai employees was similar to that of Malaysian employees concerning age distribution, but the work tenure was even shorter: 44.7% of the Thais had worked for 2 years or less at this Japanese MNC. Like the Malaysian sample, most Thai participants were women at 64.3%, and 86.4% worked as nonmanagers.

The survey set consisted of questionnaires and a cover letter that explained the purpose of this research, provided instructions for the questionnaires, and assured strict confidentiality through anonymity. The questionnaires had questions for not only the key variables but also for demographic factors, including age, gender, working experience in the current firm, and management position. Survey sets were forwarded to potential research participants by the HR managers of the two Japanese MNCs through in-house delivery systems. A total of 240 sets were sent to Japanese employees of Japanese MNC A in Tokyo, of which 210 were returned as completed and usable questionnaires, yielding an overall response rate of 87.5%. With regard to the other two countries, a total of 500

survey sets were provided to potential Malaysian participants, and 392 were completed and usable, yielding a 78.4% return rate. Finally, of 350 sets provided to potential study participants of Thai employees in Bangkok, 199 were completed and usable for the analysis of this study, yielding a response rate of 56.9%. Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of HCN employees from three countries.

3.3 Measures

3.3.1 Job satisfaction scale

Judge et al. (2001) discussed a number of good job satisfaction instruments. Among them, this study chose the Job Satisfaction Scale created by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), which takes a holistic approach to overall job satisfaction in workplaces. Their scale is characterized as being sensitive to variations in attitudes (Judge et al., 2001). The original scale consists of 18 items. To decrease the entire workload of the questionnaires, the original version was reduced to six items, using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). The six questions were as follows: 'I feel fairly satisfied with my present job,' 'I am often bored in my current job' (reversed item), 'My current assignment is pretty uninteresting' (reversed item), 'I am satisfied with my present assignment for the time being,' 'I am disappointed that I took this current assignment' (reversed item), and 'Most days, I am enthusiastic about my present job.' In the

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of Japanese, Malaysian, and Thai employees

| | All employees (n = 801) | | Japanese (MNC A; n = 210) | | Malaysian (MNC B; n = 392) | | Thai (MNC B; n = 199) | |
|--|----------------------------|------|------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|--------------------------|------|
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Age | | | | | | | | |
| ≤20 | 28 | 3.5 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 3.3 | 15 | 7.5 |
| 21-25 | 138 | 17.2 | 27 | 12.9 | 69 | 17.6 | 42 | 21.1 |
| 26-30 | 207 | 25.8 | 34 | 16.2 | 126 | 32.1 | 47 | 23.6 |
| 31-35 | 179 | 22.3 | 36 | 17.1 | 106 | 27.0 | 37 | 18.6 |
| 36-40 | 85 | 10.6 | 28 | 13.3 | 36 | 9.2 | 21 | 10.6 |
| 41-45 | 80 | 10.0 | 32 | 15.2 | 25 | 6.4 | 23 | 11.6 |
| 46-50 | 42 | 5.2 | 17 | 8.1 | 14 | 3.6 | 11 | 5.5 |
| ≥51 | 42 | 5.2 | 36 | 17.1 | 3 | 0.8 | 3 | 1.5 |
| Gender | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 404 | 50.4 | 182 | 86.7 | 144 | 36.7 | 71 | 35.7 |
| Female | 397 | 49.6 | 28 | 13.3 | 248 | 63.3 | 128 | 64.3 |
| Work experience at the MNC (tenure, years) | | | | | | | | |
| ≤2 | 170 | 21.2 | 20 | 9.5 | 61 | 15.6 | 89 | 44.7 |
| >2-4 | 142 | 17.7 | 16 | 7.6 | 86 | 21.9 | 40 | 20.1 |
| >4-6 | 95 | 11.9 | 25 | 11.9 | 56 | 14.3 | 14 | 7.0 |
| >6-8 | 54 | 6.7 | 8 | 3.8 | 38 | 9.7 | 8 | 4.0 |
| >8-10 | 51 | 6.4 | 7 | 3.3 | 36 | 9.2 | 8 | 4.0 |
| >10-12 | 59 | 7.4 | 9 | 4.3 | 40 | 10.2 | 10 | 5.0 |
| >12-14 | 31 | 3.9 | 2 | 1.0 | 20 | 5.1 | 9 | 4.5 |
| >14-16 | 34 | 4.2 | 8 | 3.8 | 21 | 5.4 | 5 | 2.5 |
| >16-18 | 27 | 3.4 | 17 | 8.1 | 8 | 2.0 | 2 | 1.0 |
| >18-20 | 35 | 4.4 | 21 | 10.0 | 10 | 2.6 | 4 | 2.0 |
| >20 | 103 | 12.9 | 77 | 36.7 | 16 | 4.1 | 10 | 5.0 |
| Position | | | | | | | | |
| Management | 539 | 67.3 | 80 | 38.1 | 155 | 39.5 | 27 | 13.6 |
| Nonmanagement | 262 | 32.7 | 130 | 61.9 | 237 | 60.5 | 172 | 86.4 |

present research, the Cronbach's alpha was 0.84 for all participants, 0.91 for the Japanese sample, 0.80 for the Malaysian sample, and 0.76 for the Thai sample.

3.3.2 Self-confidence in job scale

The present study needed to examine the degree of employee self-confidence in the job; it was important not to constrain the self-confidence to a particular assignment or a limited task but to ensure it was applicable to a general, holistic view of the job. For this study, a Self-Confidence in Job Scale was

developed to meet these conditions. It consisted of four items: 'I have confidence in my job,' 'I am confident in myself that I will complete my current task,' 'I don't have any confidence in my present work' (a reversed item), and 'I am fairly confident of doing my job thoroughly.' The items had a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

To develop and verify the Self-Confidence in Job Scale, this study used a sample from a third Japanese MNC ('MNC C'). This Japanese MNC is a leading company

in the living and housing products and service industry in Japan and runs its business in several countries. Table 2 summarizes demographic characteristics of the Japanese participants of MNC C. A total of 393 questionnaires that included the Self-Confidence in Job Scale, together with the Career Self-Efficacy Scale for discriminant analysis, were provided to Japanese employees at MNC C. A total of 274 questionnaires were valid and used in analysis.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was first applied to analyze the validity and reliability of the Self-Confidence in Job Scale. This research relied on the principal component EFA on the data collected from 274 participants of MNC C. Analysis of the Eigen values with scree plot indicated that only one main factor was dominant. The four items of the Self-Confidence Scale accounted for 69.4% of the total variance. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was then performed with the same data set to ensure that a single factor was identified from the EFA. The CFA results showed that the four items of the confidence scale loaded on this factor. All loadings showed statistical significance ($p < 0.01$), with 0.69 to 0.86 standardized values. Furthermore, the CFA results also showed acceptable validity ($\chi^2 = 3.029$, $p > 0.10$; $df = 2$; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.043; comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.998; normed fit index [NFI] = 0.994; goodness of fit index [GFI] = 0.994; and adjusted goodness of fit index [AGFI] = 0.972). Most of the aforementioned CFA indices indicated by Coovert

and Craiger (2000) were applied to assess model fit (Liu et al., 2004). The four items also showed an acceptable reliability ($N = 274$; Cronbach's alpha = 0.85). Table 3 illustrates the self-confidence items with their factor loadings from the EFA and CFA.

Third, to analyze the discriminant validity of the Self-Confidence in Job Scale, this study employed the Career Self-Efficacy Scale, whose construct is thought to contain an analogous type of disposition but to differ due to the career focus. The Career Self-Efficacy Scale was developed by Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, and Demarr (1998) to measure one's efficacy in terms of his or her career using a 7-point Likert-type scale. The original scale has 11 items, while this study used a shorter version with five items. The results of the EFA showed that two factors were dominant, as indicated by eigenvalues larger than 1, accounting for 58.9% of the total variance. The factor loadings for four items of the Self-Confidence in Job Scale ranged from 0.77 to 0.87, while those of five items of the Career Self-Efficacy Scale ranged from 0.59 to 0.74. Further, cross-loading was lower than 0.30 among nine items, providing initial support for convergent and discriminant validity. Subsequently, CFA was conducted to confirm the validity of the two factors identified from the EFA. The results of the CFA showed that the fit indices, except the χ^2 score, fell within an acceptable range ($\chi^2 = 46.609$, $p = 0.008$, $df = 26$; RMSEA = 0.054; CFI = 0.975; NFI = 0.945; GFI = 0.963; AGFI = 0.935), suggest-

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of Japanese employees of Japanese MNC C for Self-Confidence Scale development

| Variable | N | % | Variable | N | % |
|-------------|-----|------|--|-----|------|
| Age (years) | | | Work experience at the MNC (years, tenure) | | |
| ≤20 | 0 | 0 | ≤5 | 13 | 4.7 |
| 21-25 | 5 | 1.8 | >5-10 | 47 | 17.2 |
| 26-30 | 19 | 6.9 | >10-15 | 61 | 22.3 |
| 31-35 | 46 | 16.8 | >15-20 | 48 | 17.5 |
| 36-40 | 57 | 20.8 | >20-25 | 73 | 26.6 |
| 41-45 | 68 | 24.8 | >25-30 | 23 | 8.4 |
| 46-50 | 57 | 20.8 | >30-35 | 8 | 2.9 |
| ≥51 | 22 | 8 | >35 | 1 | 0.4 |
| Gender | | | Position | | |
| Male | 194 | 70.8 | Management | 68 | 24.8 |
| Female | 80 | 29.2 | Nonmanagement | 206 | 75.2 |

Note. N = 274.

Table 3. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis for the Self-Confidence in Job Scale

| Item | EFA | CFA |
|---|-------|-------|
| I have confidence in my job. | 0.807 | 0.71 |
| I am so confident in myself that I will complete my current task. | 0.877 | 0.863 |
| I don't have any confidence in my present work. | 0.795 | 0.692 |
| I don't have any confidence in my present work. | 0.795 | 0.692 |

Note. N = 274. The CFA indices were $\chi^2 = 3.029$; $p > 0.10$; $df = 2$; root mean square error of approximation = 0.043; comparative fit index = 0.998; normed fit index = 0.994; goodness of fit index = 0.994; and adjusted goodness of fit index = 0.972.

ing that the data fit the model well with structural validity. Consequently, the Self-Confidence in Job Scale was acceptable regarding discriminant validity.

Finally, in this study with 801 participants, the Cronbach alpha of the Self-Confidence in Job Scale was 0.83 for all three countries; for the subpopulations in different countries, values were 0.85 for Japan, 0.81 for Malaysia, and 0.70 for Thailand.

3.3.3 Translation procedures

The study used the Job Satisfaction Scale, the Self-Confidence in Job Scale, and demographic questionnaires in four lan-

guages—English, Japanese, and Thai. All questionnaires were originally written in English, and that version was employed for the study of the Malaysian participants. This study followed the translation procedures for cross-cultural study illustrated by Brislin, Lonner, and Thorndike (1973). The English questionnaires were translated into Japanese and Thai, and then retranslated back into English. The meanings of the original English versions were compared with those of the back-translated versions from the Japanese and Thai versions.

Table 4. Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics for all key variables.

| Variables | Mean | S.D. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|------|------|--------|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Age | 3.97 | 1.76 | | | | | |
| 2. Gender | 0.50 | 0.50 | 0.23** | | | | |
| 3. Working experiences at the current MNC | 4.72 | 3.51 | 0.49** | 0.27** | | | |
| 4. Management position | 0.33 | 0.47 | 0.18** | 0.12** | 0.23** | | |
| 5. Self-confidence in the job | 3.42 | 0.67 | 0.06 | -0.10** | -0.06 | -0.09* | |
| 6. Job satisfaction | 3.67 | 0.72 | 0.10** | -0.10** | -0.04 | -0.09* | 0.60** |

Note. $N = 801$. ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$. This study coded all demographic variables. Age code (1 = ≤ 20 ; 2 = 21-25; 3 = 26-30; 4 = 31-35; 5 = 36-40; 6 = 41-45; 7 = 46-50; 8 = ≥ 51); gender code (0 = female; 1 = male); working experience code (1 = ≤ 2 ; 2 = $> 2-4$; 3 = $> 4-6$; 4 = $> 6-8$; 5 = $> 8-10$; 6 = $> 10-12$; 7 = $> 12-14$; 8 = $> 14-16$; 9 = $> 16-18$; 10 = $> 18-20$; 11 = > 20); management position code (0 = nonmanagement; 1 = management).

4. Results

Table 4 shows the correlation matrix and descriptive statistics for all six variables used in this study. Correlation analysis indicated that job satisfaction was significantly associated with self-confidence in the job ($r = 0.60$, $p < 0.01$) and the three demographic variables of age ($r = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$), gender ($r = -0.10$, $p < 0.01$), and management positions ($r = -0.09$, $p < 0.05$). However, there was not a significant correlation between job satisfaction and working experience at the present MNC ($r = -0.04$, $p > 0.10$). Before further analyzing a relationship between job satisfaction and job-related self-confidence as described in the hypothesis, this study sought to answer the two exploratory questions with regard to cross-national differences of HCNs.

4.1 Cross-national differences in job satisfaction and self-confidence

This study raised two exploratory questions: How do HCNs in Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand working in MNCs compare in job

satisfaction? How do HCNs in those three countries compare in self-confidence in the job? Analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that job satisfaction varied significantly in the three countries ($F = 42.33$, $p < 0.01$). The Bonferroni analysis as a post hoc test illustrated the significant differences between the three countries. Japanese employees showed the lowest job satisfaction; Malaysian HCNs were in the middle; and the Thai HCNs had the highest job satisfaction.

Similarly, ANOVA results illustrated that self-confidence in the job significantly differed in the three countries ($F = 81.47$, $p < 0.01$), after which the Bonferroni test described those significant differences. Japanese employees had the lowest self-confidence in the job; Malaysian HCNs, the middle; and Thai HCNs, the highest. The order of the HCNs' self-confidence in the job across the three countries was identical to that of their job satisfaction. Table 5 summarizes results of ANOVA and Bonferroni tests concerning job satisfaction and self-confidence in the job across the three countries.

Table 5. Analysis of variance and Bonferroni test results for job satisfaction and job-related self-confidence across the three countries.

| | N | Job satisfaction | | Self-confidence | |
|------------------------|-----|------------------|------|-----------------|------|
| | | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| Japanese | 210 | 3.13 | 0.78 | 3.22 | 0.75 |
| Malaysian | 392 | 3.43 | 0.58 | 3.73 | 0.67 |
| Thai | 199 | 3.70 | 0.56 | 4.04 | 0.53 |
| <i>F</i> | | 42.33** | | 81.47** | |
| <i>df</i> | | 2,798 | | 2,798 | |
| Bonferroni | | M.D. | S.E. | M.D. | S.E. |
| Japanese vs. Malaysian | | -0.30** | 0.05 | -0.52** | 0.06 |
| Japanese vs. Thai | | -0.58** | 0.06 | -0.82** | 0.07 |
| Malaysian vs. Thai | | -0.28** | 0.06 | -0.30** | 0.06 |

Note. $N = 801$. ** $p < 0.01$.

4.2 Hypothesis testing

The hypothesis predicted that self-confidence in the job affects job satisfaction. As previously presented in Table 4, job satisfaction was significantly correlated with self-confidence in the job and all demographic variables except working experience at the present MNC. To determine the main effect of job-related self-confidence on job satisfaction, this study conducted a hierarchical regression analysis controlling for the influence of those four demographic variables. Model 1 consisted of only the control variables, whereas Model 2 included the predictor of self-confidence in the job as a main influence to be estimated. Furthermore, because both job satisfaction and self-confidence in the job differed significantly among the three countries, as presented in results for the two exploratory questions as shown in Table 5, this study examined the impact of job-related self-confidence on job satisfaction for each of the three countries as well as for the entire group of HCN

participants.

As shown in Table 6, for the examination of the entire group, Model 1 produced statistically significant results ($F = 8.86$, $p < 0.01$) and showed that all four demographic variables were significant. Compared with Model 1, Model 2 also yielded a significant result ($F = 91.85$, $p < 0.01$) and was greatly improved with an incremental adjusted R^2 (F change = 405.78, $p < 0.01$). It is obvious that Model 2 accounted for a greater percentage of the variation (R^2 change = 0.32). Adding the predictor of job-related self-confidence in Model 2 considerably and significantly influenced job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.58$, $p < 0.01$).

Furthermore, the separate investigations of each of the three countries also indicated that Model 2, which included the variable of self-confidence in the job, was better than Model 1. Model 1's showed significant results; adjusted R^2 values ranged from 0.04 (Thais) to 0.07 (Japanese and Malaysians). However, all Model 2's yielded results at the 0.01 significance level in terms of

Table 6. Regression analysis of the effect of job-related self-confidence on job satisfaction

| Dependent variables: Job satisfaction | All participants | | Japanese | | Malaysians | | Thais | |
|--|------------------|--------------------|-------------------|---------|------------|----------|---------|----------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| | β | | β | | β | | β | |
| Demographic variables | | | | | | | | |
| Age | 0.19** | 0.11** | 0.14 | 0.123 | 0.16** | 0.13** | 0.15* | 0 |
| Gender | -0.11** | -0.05 [†] | -0.05 | -0.088 | -0.03 | -0.04 | 0.09 | 0.02 |
| Working experiences at their MNC | -0.08* | -0.04 | -0.01 | -0.081 | 0.04 | 0 | -0.03 | -0.03 |
| Management positions Predictors | -0.09** | -0.05 | 0.19 [†] | 0.159 | -0.17** | -0.06 | -0.20** | -0.09 |
| Self-confidence in job | | 0.58** | | 0.36** | | 0.58** | | 0.66** |
| <i>F</i> | 8.86** | 91.85** | 4.88** | 10.28** | 8.23** | 51.12** | 2.97* | 33.13** |
| <i>df</i> | 4,796 | 5,795 | 4,205 | 5,204 | 4,387 | 5,386 | 4,194 | 5,193 |
| <i>Adjusted R</i> ² | 0.04 | 0.36 | 0.07 | 0.18 | 0.07 | 0.39 | 0.04 | 0.45 |
| <i>R</i> ² change | | 0.32 | | 0.11 | | 0.32 | | 0.40 |
| <i>F</i> change | | 405.78** | | 29.17** | | 205.27** | | 144.96** |

Note. $N = 801$; ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, [†] $p < 0.1$.

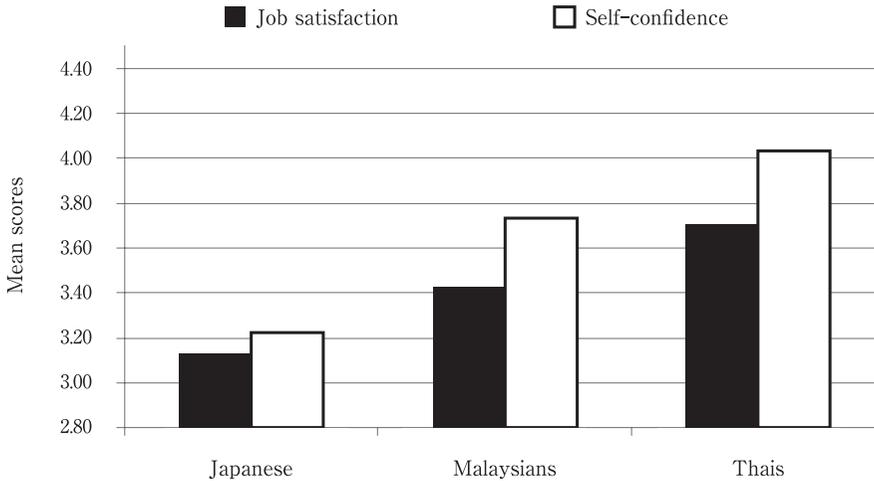


Figure 1. Cross-national differences in job satisfaction and job-related self-confidence. Both variables have scales that range from 1 to 5. The mean scores of the three countries are shown.

F results (Japanese, 10.28; Malaysians, 51.12; Thais, 33.13); β results (Japanese, 0.36; Malaysians, 0.58; Thais, 0.66), and incremental R^2 change compared with Model 1 (Japanese, 0.11; Malaysians, 0.32; Thais, 0.40). As was the case for Model 2 with the full group, Model 2 for the Japanese, Malaysian, and Thai HCN subgroups ex-

plained a higher percentage of the variance. This cumulative evidence—for not only the entire group of HCN participants but also for each of the three country subgroups—supported the hypothesis. Figure 1 shows a cross-national comparison using job satisfaction and job-related self-confidence for the three countries. All of the aforementioned

evidence of not only the entire group of HCN participants but also each of the three country subgroups supported the acceptance of the hypothesis.

5. Discussion

5.1 Reviewing results and conclusions

This study provided three important findings. First, job satisfaction of HCNs differed among the three countries, in the order (from lowest to highest score) of Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand. The difference in job satisfaction among those three countries was significant. Second, self-confidence in the job of HCNs also significantly differed among the three countries, in the order (from lowest to highest score) of Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand. The order of country scores for self-confidence was identical to that for job satisfaction. Third, HCNs' self-confidence in the job significantly influenced their job satisfaction when determined by the full group of the HCN participants as well as for each country subgroup. The results are largely congruent with the findings of meta-analysis by Judge and Bono (2001) and those of cross-national empirical research on U. S. participants by Luthans et al. (2006). Based on the findings, this study has concluded that regardless of country, an individual's level of job satisfaction tends to be determined by his or her self-confidence in the job. The study also suggests that the influence of job-related self-

confidence on job satisfaction can be characterized as universal rather than culturally contingent.

5.2 Theoretical implications

This study offers three theoretical implications. The first implication relates to the cross-national generalizability of job satisfaction discussed by Judge et al. (2001). As noted, the present study found a strong relationship between job-related self-confidence and job satisfaction through dispositional approaches, assuming that self-confidence is analogous with general self-efficacy. This study has led to the notion that the impact of job-related self-confidence on job satisfaction can be considered a universal phenomenon. In this regard, the present study is thought to have importantly contributed to the cross-national generalizability of job satisfaction.

Second, this study has supported the dispositional approach and model proposed by Judge et al. (1997) to explain cross-national job satisfaction. Because the dispositional model of satisfaction includes self-efficacy and the factors of self-esteem, locus of control, and neuroticism, these other key factors might also be a potential source to explain cross-national job satisfaction. In fact, the study by Mueller et al. (2009) found a strong connection between national positivity and positive affectivity as an individual disposition, supporting the dispositional approach and model of job satisfaction. Accordingly, one promising future study is to examine such factors in relation

to job satisfaction across countries.

Third, the present study focused on job-related self-confidence as a predictor to explain cross-national differences in job satisfaction but did not explore why job-related self-confidence varies among countries. This inquiry would be an important area for subsequent research in the domain of international management. In fact, Schwarzer and Born (1997) and Scholz et al. (2002) addressed why the Japanese had the lowest self-efficacy while the Costa Ricans had the highest. Scholz et al. (2002) argued that self-efficacy may be evaluated higher in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures. Klassen (2004) also mentioned that some collectivistic groups like Asians exhibit a lower level of self-efficacy, but that did not always translate into a lower level of performance. Does a cultural dimension related to individualism and collectivism explain cross-national differences in self-confidence? Or, does a group of individualist countries show a higher self-confidence level than a group of collectivist countries? If a cross-national study of self-confidence included Western or Anglo-Saxon countries like the United States and Asian countries like Japan, which are exemplars of individualist and collectivist countries, it may show a clear difference in self-confidence between those two countries. However, based on the present study, it is difficult to support the perspective that job-related self-confidence relates to the cultural dimension of individualism versus collectivism. According

to Hofstede's (1997, 2014) study, the Japanese have the highest score of individualism (46), followed by the Malaysians (26) and then the Thais (20). Yet, this study's results on self-confidence showed the opposite order, with the Japanese having the lowest self-confidence, followed by the Malaysians and Thais. This empirical evidence calls for distinct explanations concerning what differs in job-related self-confidence across countries.

The process of developing self-efficacy beliefs may provide a useful insight. Self-confidence in the job is thought to be formed and developed through positive emotions when individuals consciously or unconsciously evaluate their successful performance and achievement. Bandura (1997) discussed enactive mastery experience as the most influential source of efficacy information. In this respect, if some countries tend to allow more mistakes from individuals who perform difficult or challenging tasks, these individuals may have more opportunities to have successful experiences, yielding higher self-confidence in the job. Thus, such aspects of a country's culture might relate to differing job-related self-confidence across countries. However, this notion is speculative, and further investigation will be necessary.

5.3 Practical implications

This study offers two practical implications. The first implication concerns how to manage cross-national job satisfaction of HCNs. Although MNCs pursue systematic

control and coordination in an effort to align the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Welch & Welch, 2006), HR professionals should recognize that HCNs' job satisfaction varies among countries and avoid drawing an immediate conclusion that a low level of job satisfaction among HCNs of a particular country relates to their working environment or job context. Rather, they need to identify how HCNs feel confident in their job and then strive to manage HCNs who show a low level of job-related self-confidence. One possible HR strategy to enhance self-confidence is to provide learning and developmental opportunities through which HCNs can grow. Another possible strategy involves the effective use of expatriation, if possible and beneficial to the firm, which tends to enhance skill development and job satisfaction overseas (Yamazaki, 2010). For example, Japanese expatriates increased knowledge and skills during their expatriate experience compared with home Japanese counterparts. Furthermore, their expatriate experiences also raised job satisfaction so that it was similar to that of their American counterparts (Yamazaki, 2010). It is reasonable to infer that Japanese expatriates must have increased self-confidence. The knowledge acquisition and skills development for cross-cultural adaptation through expatriate experiences would enhance job-related self-confidence.

Second, the findings of this study can be applied to a selection process in organizations. HR professionals in any firm would prefer to

hire employees who exhibit a positive preference for an assigned job, because lack of job satisfaction is an important predictor of absenteeism (Tharenou, 1993), sabotage (Chen & Spector, 1992), and counterproductive behaviors (Gottfredson & Holland, 1990). Although the level of job satisfaction is also contingent on situational factors and job characteristics (Judge et al., 2001), HR professionals should investigate how confident candidates feel in a job in order to predict their job satisfaction. However, for international candidates, HR professionals would need to carefully interpret results of the examination of self-confidence, because job-related self-confidence differs among countries.

5.4 Limitations

A major limitation of this study is that two different Japanese MNCs were used for data collection. Although their business areas were relatively similar in sales and service markets, using a single Japanese MNC would have allowed for a better comparison between countries. Another limitation of the study concerns a job-related self-confidence scale that is different from the general self-efficacy scale used by the cross-cultural study by Luthans et al. (2006). The self-confidence scale in this study that was developed for a focus on jobs in general might have had a unique result different from their study.

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The impact of job-related self-confidence on job satisfaction among host country nationals of Japan, Malaysia, and Thailand: A dispositional approach¹⁾

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Abstract

This study examined how job satisfaction relates to self-confidence in the job in Asia through a dispositional approach to job satisfaction. A total of 801 host country nationals from two Japanese multinational corporations participated in this study, including 210 Japanese, 392 Malaysians, and 199 Thais. Initially, analysis of variance results indicated that both work satisfaction and job-related self-confidence significantly differed among those three countries. The Japanese scored lowest in both variables, followed by the Malaysians and Thais. Results of regression analysis illustrated that job-related self-confidence significantly affected job satisfaction not only in the whole group of the host country nationals but also in the subgroups for each of the three Asian countries. Based on the findings, this study supports a view that regardless of country, job satisfaction tends to be influenced by an employee's self-confidence in the job. Accordingly, it is thought that the generalizability of the job satisfaction construct across countries has been strengthened by this study, which used a dispositional approach to job satisfaction. Theoretical as well as practical implications are discussed.

Keyword : Job satisfaction, self-confidence in job, dispositional approaches, host country nationals, Asia, Japanese multinationals

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