

Cultural Intelligence and Social Capital: Investigating expatriates' working relationships in Malaysia

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Cultural Intelligence and Social Capital:
Investigating expatriates' working relationships in Malaysia

Bishan Leverenz

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
Sheffield Hallam University for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

October 2022

Candidate Declaration

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Abstract

This thesis examines the effect of Cultural Intelligence on expatriates' relationship quality with their culturally diverse host national work colleagues in Malaysia from a social capital perspective. Malaysia presents a highly culturally diverse host country which has increasingly become attractive for global organizations over the last few decades. A high-quality relationship with host national employees allows expatriates to access valuable resources which facilitate their adjustment and performance. Such resources represent expatriates' social capital. However, it is still unknown why some expatriates are more successful in developing higher level of social capital with Host Country Nationals than others.

Prior research shows that expatriates with higher level of Cultural Intelligence often feel more comfortable to interact with Host Country Nationals (HCNs). Therefore, Cultural Intelligence would be expected to have a positive impact on expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs and, hence, improving social capital. The relationship between Cultural Intelligence and social capital is, however, under researched especially with little focus given to the effect of metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions of Cultural Intelligence.

Following mixed methods approach, this thesis uses quantitative survey and Multiple Linear Regression to identify general relationships between the four dimensions of Cultural Intelligence and expatriates' social capital. Additionally, qualitative semi-structured interviews and Thematic Analysis are used to explore how and why Cultural Intelligence may influence expatriates' development of social capital.

The results suggest that expatriates' metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural Cultural Intelligence have a positive effect on expatriates' development of social capital. However, the effect of cognitive Cultural Intelligence is very limited. The qualitative findings provide insights on the challenges in expatriates' work relationship with HCNs due to their cultural differences, and how the different dimensions of Cultural Intelligence may help to solve them, thereby contributing to expatriates' development of social capital. One important finding concerns the mediating role of recognition and appraisal respect in facilitating expatriates' development of social capital with their host national colleagues.

This thesis contributes to the expatriate literature by being the first to examine how and why expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural Cultural Intelligence may influence the development of social capital with their host national work colleagues. The findings of this thesis also have practical implications concerning the selection of future expatriates and the design of more effective training programs to enhance expatriates' probability of success by receiving more useful resources from HCNs.

Keywords: Cultural Intelligence, Social Capital, relationship quality, expatriate, Host Country Nationals, Malaysia, Mixed Methods, respect

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List of Abbreviations

AE	Assigned Expatriate
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CMV	Common Method Variance
COR	Conservation Of Resources
CQ	Cultural Intelligence
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organization Behaviour Effectiveness
HCNs	Host Country Nationals
MLR	Multiple Linear Regression
SIE	Self-Initiated Expatriate
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

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Chapter 1: Introduction

This thesis investigates the effect of expatriates' Cultural Intelligence on the quality of their relationship with their host nation work colleagues from a social capital perspective.

This introductory chapter begins by presenting the background and significance of this thesis. The research aims, questions, and objectives are then listed. The chapter continues by outlining the research scope. Finally, the potential contributions of this thesis and its structure are presented.

1.1 Background and significance of the research

In the era of globalisation, expatriates are valuable for multinational organisations to implement global strategies and organisational culture, transfer knowledge, and control and coordinate international operations in foreign subsidiaries (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Dowling et al., 2008; Harzing, 1999; He et al., 2019; Yang & He, 2014; Zhou, 2021). According to the 2020 Global Assignment Policies and Practices Survey, international assignments involving expatriates' physical relocation to host countries will remain relevant for global organisations in the near future despite the increasing use of home offices and virtual assignments (KPMG, 2020).¹ This is because it is still unclear whether remote control of business operations is as successful as expatriates on site (Caligiuri et al., 2020). Furthermore, it is unknown whether tacit knowledge and skills may be effectively transmitted to Host Country Nationals (HCNs) via virtual means (Caligiuri et al., 2020; Collings & Sheeran, 2020). Hence, expatriates' performance abroad will continue to have important consequences for the success of global organisations (Caligiuri et al., 2020; Collings & Sheeran, 2020; Liao et al., 2021).

¹ The pandemic outbreak of the COVID-19 virus in 2020 caused worldwide restrictions in international mobility. Due to extended lockdown regulations in different countries to curb the spread of the COVID-19 virus, many global organisations have increased the use of home offices and virtual assignments, which allow employees to work remotely from home or from a different country than the location of the host organisation (Caligiuri et al., 2020; Mangla, 2021).

However, one of the challenges most frequently cited by expatriates is culture shock, which occurs when expatriates cannot cope with the values and practices of the host culture (Kraimer et al., 2016; Ward et al., 2001). Culture shock has negative psychological consequences (e.g., anxiety, frustration) for expatriates and diminishes their job satisfaction and effectiveness (Chen et al., 2011; Lai et al., 2020; Shi & Wang, 2014; Tantong & Rojjanaprayon, 2020; Ward et al., 2001). In contrast, a high level of cross-cultural adjustment, which refers to expatriates' psychological comfort while living and working in the host country, allows expatriates to perform better (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Chan et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2011; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Nunes et al., 2017).

In this regard, prior research has identified expatriates' social capital with HCNs as a facilitator of their adjustment and performance (Horak & Yang, 2016; Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Sokro & Moeti-Lysson, 2018). Social capital refers to expatriates' resources which become available through their relationships with HCNs (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021). Because HCNs' willingness to provide expatriates with extra support depends on their relationship quality (Van Bakel et al., 2016; Varma et al., 2009; Wang & Varma, 2018), prior studies have used social capital as an indicator of expatriates' relationship quality (e.g., Hsu, 2012; Ismail et al., 2016; Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021). Specifically, social capital consists of three dimensions (Chang & Chuang, 2011; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Singh et al., 2021), namely 1) the structural dimension, which refers to the impersonal characteristics of social networks such as the number of contacts, network structure, and contact frequency; 2) the relational dimension, which includes affective elements such as trust and commitment; and 3) the cognitive dimension, which reflects people's shared understanding of common goals. According to prior research, social capital facilitates expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and performance because it allows them to access valuable insights, information, and other forms of extra-role support from HCNs which are beyond the formal job description (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Bruning et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014; Toh et al., 2012; Varma et al., 2016). However, it is still unclear why some expatriates are more successful in developing a higher level of social capital with their host national colleagues than others.

Drawing on the Contact Theory (Allport, 1954, cited in Nunes et al., 2017; Pettigrew, 1998), Nunes et al. (2017) suggest that expatriates' Cultural Intelligence (CQ) might have a positive impact on the quality of their relationship with HCNs. CQ refers to expatriates' capability to act effectively in culturally diverse settings and comprises four dimensions, namely metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural (Ang et al., 2007). Metacognitive CQ reflects expatriates' ability to use their cultural knowledge and develop effective action strategies based on their prior cross-cultural interactions (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Ang et al., 2007). Cognitive CQ constitutes expatriates' knowledge of the values, norms, practices, and legal and social systems of different cultures (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Le et al., 2018). Motivational CQ reflects expatriates' enjoyment and self-efficacy while interacting with culturally diverse others (Ang et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011). Finally, behavioural CQ captures expatriates' flexibility in demonstrating appropriate verbal and nonverbal behaviours according to the expectations of the host culture (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). According to the Contact Theory, frequent positive contacts between people of different cultural groups may reduce anxiety, promote positive intergroup attitudes, and enhance perspective-taking and empathy (Pettigrew, 1998; Wang & Varma, 2018). Because expatriates' CQ has a positive impact on their cross-cultural adjustment (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Nunes et al., 2017), expatriates with higher CQ are expected to feel less anxious and more frequently engage in perspective-taking while interacting with HCNs. This might eventually benefit their development of social capital, though so far, very little empirical research exists that examines how expatriates' CQ influences their development of social capital with culturally diverse HCNs.

Only a few studies have investigated expatriates' overall CQ as an aggregated construct in relation to some individual elements of social capital (e.g., Fu & Charoensukmongkol, 2021; Hsu, 2012; Zulkifly et al., 2020). For example, Hsu (2012) has identified a positive effect of expatriates' overall CQ on trust (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital in Hsu's study) but inconsistent results regarding its effect on contact frequency (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital in Hsu's study) and shared vision (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital in Hsu's study). Afsar et al. (2020) suggest a positive effect of overall CQ on trust (i.e., an element of the relational dimension of social capital). Zulkifly et al. (2020) identify shared vision with HCNs (i.e., their conceptualisation of the cognitive dimension of social capital) as a mediator between expatriates' overall CQ

and effective knowledge transfer.² While these findings provide some insights into the effect of overall CQ as an aggregated construct on social capital, no empirical research has investigated how and why the unique dimensions of CQ may influence expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. However, this is important because prior research suggests that the analysis of CQ at the dimensional level would reveal more accurate insights which get lost when only the aggregated construct is analysed (Chua et al., 2012; Engle & Nash, 2015). For example, Engle and Nash (2015) have observed a positive relationship between the length of stay in a foreign country and people's overall level of CQ. However, analysis based on the individual CQ dimensions shows that this effect is only significant for the cognitive and behavioural dimensions of CQ and not for metacognitive and motivational CQ. This means that staying in a foreign country longer does not necessarily result in a higher level of reflectivity (i.e., metacognitive CQ) or enjoyment of cross-cultural interactions (i.e., motivational CQ). Hence, it is important to include the CQ dimensions when examining the effect of CQ on expatriates' development of social capital. To address this gap, this thesis investigates the effect of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on their social capital with HCNs in Malaysia, which is a fast-growing economy in Southeast Asia that has become increasingly attractive for global organisations (Andronova et al., 2020; World Bank, 2020).

Finally, HCNs' willingness to provide expatriates with extra support depends on the quality of their relationship (Van Bakel et al., 2016; Varma et al., 2009; Wang & Varma, 2018). However, individual elements of social capital (e.g., trust or shared vision) cannot fully capture the quality of expatriates' relationships with their host nation work colleagues. For example, based on a qualitative study, Ang and Tan (2016) suggest that expatriates' motivational and behavioural CQ might facilitate the development of trust between expatriates and HCNs. However, prior research shows that although friends normally enjoy a higher level of trust (which is an element of the relational dimension of social capital), they are not always effective work partners (Morrison & Nolan, 2007; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Likewise, even when expatriates and HCNs work on the same goals (which is an element of the cognitive dimension of social capital), lack of trust

² A mediator is the mechanism by which an independent variable affects a dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

and commitment may still lead to knowledge hiding and unhealthy competition (Anand & Hassan, 2019). Therefore, this thesis offers a more holistic perspective while investigating the effect of CQ on expatriates' relationship quality with their host nation work colleagues by including the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

1.2 Research aim, questions, and objectives

The main aim of this thesis is to understand why some expatriates can develop a higher level of social capital with their host national colleagues than others.

To this end, this thesis investigates the impact of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on their social capital and seeks to answer the following two Research Questions (RQs):

RQ1: What is the relationship between the different dimensions of CQ (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) and expatriates' social capital with HCNs in Malaysia?

RQ2: How and why may CQ influence expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia?

To answer these questions, this thesis uses a mixed methods approach which combines both quantitative (i.e., Multiple Linear Regression) and qualitative (i.e., Thematic Analysis) methodologies to achieve the following research objectives (ROs):

RO1: Investigate the effect of expatriates' metacognitive CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

According to Granovetter (1983), social connections to significantly different others, such as between expatriates and HCNs in Malaysia, require people to have a high level of

cognitive flexibility to meet each other's role expectations. Metacognitive CQ reflects expatriates' cognitive flexibility (Ang et al., 2007; Klafehn et al., 2015). Lloyd and Härtel (2010) suggest that cognitive flexibility is a positive predictor of work satisfaction, trust, and task orientation in multicultural teams. Furthermore, Morris et al. (2014) and Van Dyne et al. (2010) purport that metacognitive CQ is the key which links expatriates' cultural knowledge to effective actions. Hence, this thesis identifies how expatriates' metacognitive CQ may influence their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

RO2: Investigate the effect of expatriates' cognitive CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

Cognitive CQ reflects expatriates' knowledge of the values, norms, customs, religions, and social systems of different cultures (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Le et al., 2018). Hence, expatriates with a high level of cognitive CQ would be expected to possess ample knowledge about Malaysia. Such knowledge is acquirable from books and traditional classroom teachings of cultural dos and don'ts (Ang et al., 2007; Morris et al., 2014). However, although cultural knowledge provides expatriates with a better starting point in the host country, inaccurate generalisations and stereotyping might also offend HCNs, which eventually inhibits the development of a high-quality relationship (Morris et al., 2014; Sharma, 2019). Hence, the second objective of this thesis is to investigate the effect of expatriates' cognitive CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

RO3: Investigate the effect of expatriates' motivational CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

The motivational dimension of CQ reflects expatriates' intrinsic interest in actively engaging with the unknown and sometimes difficult situations in intercultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003). It also reflects their self-efficacy concerning managing cultural challenges successfully (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). Expatriates with a high level of motivational CQ maintain their interactions with HCNs even when difficulties

arise (Earley & Ang, 2003; Ghonsooly et al., 2013). Among other dimensions of CQ (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, and behavioural CQ), motivational CQ most strongly reduces culture shock (Chen et al., 2011). Motivational CQ is also the only CQ dimension which predicts people's reduction of ethnocentrism over time (Young et al., 2017).³ Hence, motivational CQ might have a unique impact on the development of social capital between expatriates and HCNs, which requires further examination in this thesis.

RO4: Investigate the effect of expatriates' behavioural CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

A high level of behavioural CQ allows expatriates to exhibit a wide range of culturally appropriate behaviours (Ang et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2015). Based on an expatriate sample in the manufacturing sector, Zhang et al. (2021b) have identified that behavioural CQ is most crucial for ensuring a high level of task performance when expatriates relocate from low to high power distance cultures.⁴ This might be because employees' behaviours in high power distance cultures are restricted by additional behavioural norms which are not relevant in low power distance cultures. For example, subordinates in high power distance cultures are expected to withhold their opinions because open disputes with supervisors are considered unacceptable (Hofstede, 2003; Huang et al., 2005; Jogulu, 2010). Furthermore, different politeness expressions are used in high power distance cultures depending on the other's power status (Moon et al., 2019). With 100 of 100 possible points, Malaysia has a higher power distance score than many other countries in the world (e.g., UK: 35; India: 77; China: 80; Hofstede Insights, 2021). Hence, the fourth and final objective of this thesis is to investigate the effect of behavioural CQ on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

Figure 1 presents an overview of the research aim, questions, and objectives of this thesis.

³ Ethnocentrism refers to a strong sense of importance of one's own ethnic group as if it is the centre of everything (Bizumic et al., 2021).

⁴ Power Distance is one of the cultural dimensions introduced by Hofstede (1980) and House et al. (2004). It refers to the extent to which a society accepts power differences, inequalities, and privileges of certain groups (for definitions of all cultural dimensions of Hofstede and House et al., see Appendix A).

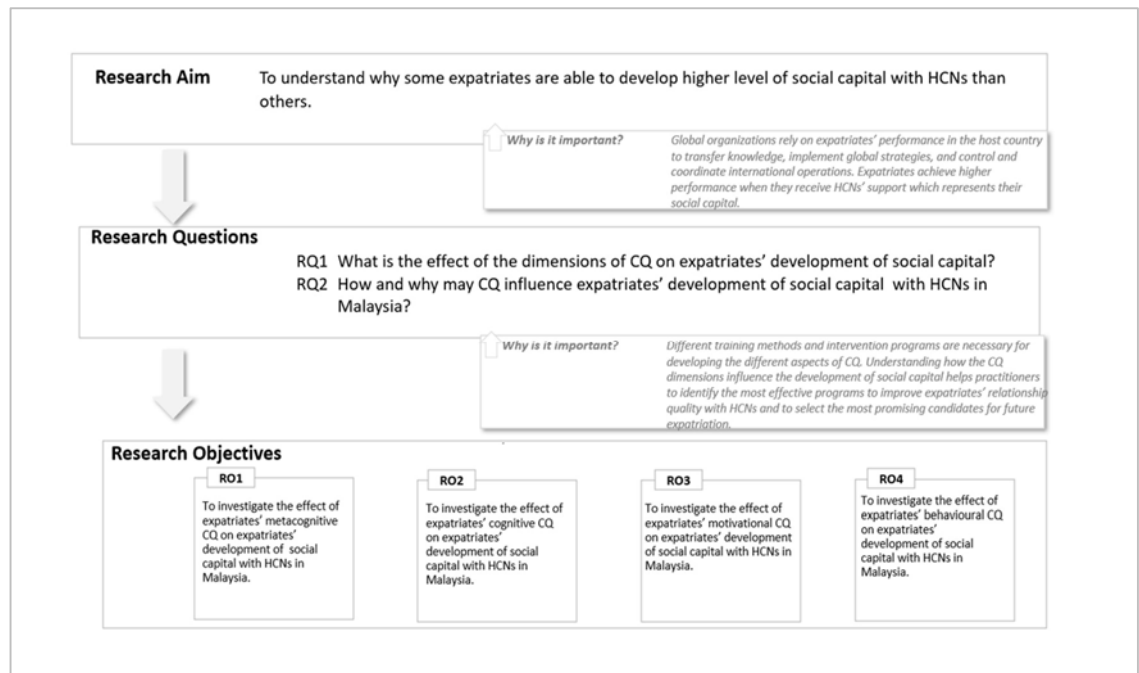


Figure 1: Research aim, questions, and objectives

1.3 Research Scope

Social capital is defined and conceptualised differently at different research levels (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Claridge, 2018a; Volker, 2021). This thesis investigates the effect of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on the development of social capital with their host national colleagues. The conceptualization of social capital is hence based on the individual level of research, which means that social capital is considered as resources offered by HCNs that facilitate expatriates' actions (Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021; Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014).

Because CQ is people's ability to act effectively in culturally diverse situations (Ang et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2015), it was appropriate to choose a highly culturally diverse host country to investigate the effect of CQ on social capital. Therefore, the investigation of this thesis was conducted in Malaysia, which has become increasingly attractive for

global organisations over the last few decades due to its well-developed infrastructure, cost competitiveness, and highly skilled English-speaking workforce (Andronova et al., 2020; World Bank, 2020). The Malaysian workforce is highly diverse and includes Malays, Chinese, and Indians (Kennedy & Mansor, 2000; Richardson et al., 2018). According to Abdullah (2001), Malaysia is a “minefield of cultural sensitivities” to foreign expatriates because of its ethnic, linguistic, and religious diversity. In such a culturally diverse host country, expatriates might experience greater challenges in developing their social capital with HCNs. Hence, Malaysia is an interesting and relevant research setting for this thesis.

Moreover, the thesis focuses on expatriates who relocate to a different country to work on a legal basis as opposed to other migrants such as refugees, illegal workers, students, or retirees (Andresen et al., 2014; Richardson et al., 2018). This also distinguishes expatriates from international business travellers and seasonal workers who do not change their dominant place of residence to the host country (Andresen et al., 2014; Huff, 2013). Thus, expatriates face a more intense form of cultural exposure due to their physical relocation to and extended stay in the host country (Shaffer et al., 2012).

Specifically, both Assigned Expatriates (AEs) and Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) are included in the investigation of this thesis. These are employees sent by their home organisations (AEs) as well as those who have relocated on their own initiative (SIEs) (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Selmer & Luring, 2010). Although SIEs account for a larger share in the global expatriate population than AEs do (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Haldorai et al., 2021), prior research has mostly focused on traditional AEs (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Bonache et al., 2018). This might be because the failures of AEs are more costly from the perspectives of multinational companies due to their more comprehensive compensation packages (e.g., cross-cultural training, housing, travel allowances, insurances, and relocation services; Tharenou, 2013). Furthermore, in the preinternet age, it might have been difficult to access a sizable sample of SIEs compared to approaching AEs through their employers (Brewster et al., 2021). However, including both AEs and SIEs in the analysis is important because they have different motivations when embarking on their international journey (Andresen et al., 2015; Hu & Xia, 2010; Richardson & McKenna, 2002). For example, the main motives for SIEs to go abroad include personal growth, adventures, travel, life change, and developing career

competencies (Richardson & McKenna, 2002). On the other hand, organisations often send AEs to a particular country to pursue organisational goals or as part of their career development (Hu & Xia, 2010; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Furthermore, unlike AEs who have limited choice regarding host country, SIEs more deliberately decide on their destination (Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021). Accordingly, compared to AEs, SIEs often report fewer problems adjusting to the host culture (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; von Borell de Araujo et al., 2014). This means that SIEs often feel more comfortable living and working in the host country, which might eventually influence their development of social capital with HCNs. Therefore, both types of expatriates are included in the investigation of this thesis, which also contributes to the generalisability of the findings to both AEs and SIEs.⁵

Additionally, this thesis focuses on expatriates using English as the main language of communication with HCNs in Malaysia because the investigation of this thesis was conducted in English. Non-English speakers might have misunderstood the questions or given invalid answers, which would have reduced the quality of the data (Wenz et al., 2019). Otherwise, no special focus is given to any particular nationalities, job positions, industries, or sectors in order to enhance the diversity of the sample, which increases the generalisability of the findings to different expatriate groups (see also Richardson et al., 2018).

Finally, because social relationships require time to flourish (Ferris et al., 2009; Pinto & Araújo, 2016), this thesis only includes professional expatriates with a minimum stay of six months in Malaysia (see also Andresen et al., 2018; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Fonseca et al., 2017; Reiche et al., 2009). This is because the process of relationship building between expatriates and HCNs requires a lead time for both sides to overcome the initial uncertainties and maladjustment (Shen & Jiang, 2015; Wang & Varma, 2018). Furthermore, expatriates' support-seeking behaviour intensifies in the phase of culture shock (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Chan et al., 2019; Farh et al., 2010) and the recovery sets between three to six months postarrival (Adler, 2003, cited in Naeem et al., 2015; Firth et al., 2014). Hence, after the first six months in Malaysia, expatriates are expected

⁵ Generalisability refers to the applicability of the findings to other research settings or groups beyond the immediate sample from which the data were collected (Gill & Johnson, 2010).

to overcome the emotional rollercoaster of culture shock and adjustment and establish stable (either high- or low-quality) relationships with their host national colleagues. Thus, the investigation of this thesis only includes expatriates who have been in Malaysia for at least six months.

Figure 2 provides a summary of the research scope of this thesis (highlighted boxes in white present the focus of this thesis).

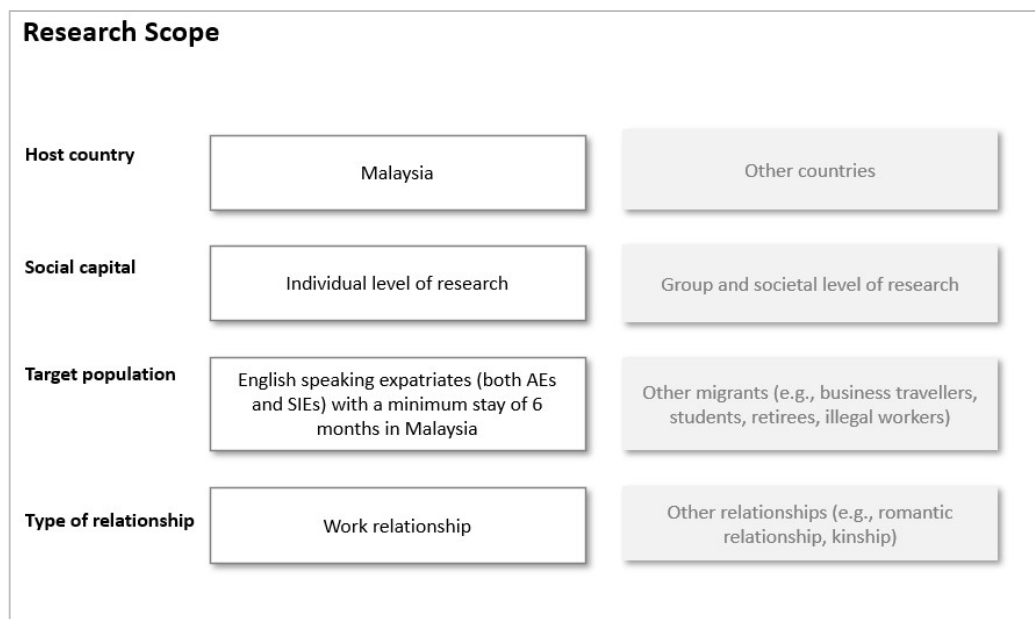


Figure 2: Research scope

1.4 Theoretical and practical contributions

This thesis contributes to theory by being the first to investigate the unique effect of the four CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural) on expatriates' development of social capital with their host national colleagues. Social capital with HCNs has a positive impact on expatriates' adjustment and performance (Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Sokro & Moeti-Lysson, 2018). However, very little is known about why some expatriates are more successful in developing a higher level of social capital than others. Only a few studies have identified a positive relationship between expatriates' overall CQ and some individual elements of

social capital such as trust or shared vision (e.g., Hsu, 2012; Zulkifly et al., 2019). Currently, no empirical research exists which has examined the unique effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' social capital. However, this is important because analysing the effect of CQ at the dimensional level would reveal more accurate insights which get lost when only the aggregated construct is analysed (Chua et al., 2012; Engle & Nash, 2015). Moreover, single elements of social capital cannot fully capture the quality of expatriates' relationship with their host nation work colleagues (see Section 1.1). Therefore, this thesis extends the knowledge concerning CQ and social capital by being the first to explore how and why the four CQ dimensions may influence expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs by including the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

Examining how each CQ dimension may influence expatriates' development of social capital also has practical implications. For instance, traditional didactic cultural training is more effective in developing the cognitive and behavioural dimensions of CQ but less effective in the development of motivational CQ (Alexander et al., 2021; Kour & Jyoti, 2021; Solomon & Steyn, 2017). In contrast, field experiences and postarrival coaching are effective in developing all four CQ dimensions but often more expensive (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kurpis & Hunter, 2017; Li, 2021; Morrell et al., 2013; Shannon & Begley, 2008; Tay et al., 2008; Şahin et al., 2014). Hence, the findings of this thesis will be particularly useful for human resource managers because they will allow these managers to identify more promising expatriate candidates and use their limited resources to develop those specific aspects of expatriates' CQ which effectively improve their probability of receiving useful resources from HCNs.

Finally, prior research suggests that expatriates who fail to cope with the expectations and practices of the local culture may suffer potentially severe psychological consequences such as anxiety, frustration, and depression (Feitosa et al., 2014; Ljubica et al., 2019; Logan et al., 2015). However, a good relationship with HCNs provides expatriates with the support and resources necessary to achieve better adjustment and performance (Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021; Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014). By identifying how and why each CQ dimension may influence expatriates' development of social capital, this thesis contributes to practice by providing expatriates with recommendations

on how to achieve more support from their host national colleagues by improving specific aspects of their CQ.

1.5 Thesis structure

This thesis includes nine chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the research background and the significance of the thesis. It also explains the research aims, questions, and objectives followed by a section outlining the research scope. Chapter 1 concludes by discussing the potential theoretical and practical contributions of this thesis and introducing the thesis structure.

Chapter 2 highlights the relevance of Malaysia as the research context for this thesis. The chapter begins by defining culture and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment and then describes Malaysia's cultural environment. Chapter 2 also reviews potential challenges expatriates may face when working with HCNs in Malaysia's highly diverse cultural environment.

Chapter 3 presents a literature review concerning the conceptualisation of CQ. It begins by discussing the most prevalent conceptualisations of CQ in the literature and then justifies and explains the conceptualisation of CQ as adopted in this thesis including its metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions.

Chapter 4 continues with a literature review of the definitions and conceptualisations of social capital. It identifies some existing conceptual problems and justifies the conceptualisation of social capital as adopted in this thesis. The chapter concludes by discussing the potential impact of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' social capital with their host national colleagues in Malaysia.

Chapter 5 outlines the methodology of this thesis. It begins by discussing the adopted research philosophy and its implications on the methodological choice. After this, mixed methods as the overall research methodology and the research design are explained. The chapter concludes by explaining Multiple Linear Regression and Thematic Analysis as the adopted quantitative and qualitative research methodologies, respectively.

Chapter 6 begins by explaining the quantitative data collection method (survey), adopted measures, sampling method, sample characteristics, and quantitative data collection process. After this, the qualitative data collection method (semi-structured interview), sampling method, sample characteristics, and qualitative data collection process are explained. Ethical considerations during the data collection process are also discussed.

Chapter 7 presents the analysis and the findings of this thesis. It begins with the quantitative multiple linear regression analysis results to identify general relationships among the four CQ dimensions and expatriates' social capital. After this, the qualitative Thematic Analysis is explained, and themes identified from the analysis are elaborated to identify the relevance of CQ and social capital to expatriates' work relationships with HCNs in Malaysia.

Chapter 8 constitutes the point of integration in this mixed methods study where the quantitative and qualitative findings are triangulated and discussed to answer the research questions. Specifically, the chapter includes four sections which discuss the effect of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia, respectively.

Finally, Chapter 9 concludes by highlighting the theoretical contributions and the managerial implications of the findings. This is followed by a section discussing the strengths and limitations of this thesis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of future research avenues.

Chapter 2: Cultural environment in Malaysia

This thesis focuses on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia because Malaysia is a highly culturally diverse environment and a host country that has become increasingly attractive to global organisations over the past decades (Andronova et al., 2020; World Bank, 2020). In such a culturally diverse country, expatriates might face additional challenges while interacting with host national employees because of their different cultural backgrounds.

This chapter begins by defining the terms of culture and cross-cultural adjustment. After this, Malaysia's cultural environment is presented to highlight potential challenges expatriates might face while working with HCNs in Malaysia.

2.1 Culture and expatriate adjustment

Hofstede et al. (2010) suggest that in the narrow sense, the term "culture" refers to the results of civilisation, such as art and literature, while in the broader sense, culture is the "collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others" (p. 6). According to Trompenaars and Woolliams' (2004) onion model, culture has three layers. The outer layer includes the explicit facets of cultural expression such as people's behaviour, clothes, food, language, and art; the middle layer constitutes their shared norms (i.e., what is right or wrong); and at the core are the basic values (i.e., what is good or bad) which are hidden underlying matters of course. Accordingly, this thesis acknowledges both the explicit (e.g., language, clothes, art) and implicit aspects (e.g., norms and values) of culture, though the focus is on the implicit aspects. This is because with increasing globalisation, explicit cultural aspects such as food, fashion, and entertainment tend to converge across the globe due to easier transfer of people, information, goods, and services (Guillen, 2001; Horak & Yang, 2016; Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2004; Yeganeh, 2020). However, deeply rooted cultural values and traditions tend to become more reinforced as people's unique cultural identity is threatened by the foreign influx (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Horak & Yang, 2016; Yeganeh, 2020). According to prior research, particularly for those people with a strong

identification with their cultural origins, the need for group distinctiveness is sometimes even stronger than the need to establish a positive group image (Branscombe et al., 1999; Islam et al., 2019; Morris et al., 2011). Consequently, cultural self-stereotyping and closure responses are often applied, which result in stronger reliance on one's heritage of cultural values and practices (Chao et al., 2010; Morris et al., 2011). Therefore, this thesis focuses on the implicit aspects of culture by defining culture as the "values, beliefs and behaviours shared by a group of people, be it a country or a region" (Kaasa, 2019, p. 11). Following this definition, cultural differences refer to expatriates' and HCNs' different values, beliefs, and behaviours caused by their different cultural backgrounds.

When expatriates cannot cope with HCNs' cultural values, norms, and practices, a high level of anxiety and frustration accompanies their interactions, which results in a low level of cross-cultural adjustment and poor performance (Chen et al., 2011; Lai et al., 2020; Shi & Wang, 2014; Tantong & Rojjanaprayon, 2020; Ward et al., 2001). Specifically, cross-cultural adjustment refers to expatriates' psychological comfort while living and working in a different culture (Black et al., 1991; Harari et al., 2018; Van der Laken et al., 2019). Cross-cultural adjustment includes three aspects: 1) general adjustment, which refers to expatriates' adjustment to the general environment of the host country such as food, weather, and living conditions; 2) interaction adjustment, which refers to expatriates' psychological comfort interacting with HCNs; and 3) work adjustment, which relates to expatriates' adjustment to new roles and responsibilities at work (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Akhal & Liu, 2019; Black & Stephens, 1989). Expatriates who adjust to the host culture well often achieve better performance (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Chew et al., 2019; Kraimer et al., 2001; Nunes et al., 2017; Rose et al., 2010). In contrast, maladjustment decreases expatriates' job satisfaction and performance and increases their intention to withdraw from their assignment prematurely (Chen et al., 2011; Chew et al., 2019; Shi & Wang, 2014; Tantong & Rojjanaprayon, 2020). Therefore, this thesis focuses on the effect of Cultural Intelligence on expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs because prior research repeatedly reports a positive effect of Cultural Intelligence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Nunes et al., 2017; Ott & Michailova, 2018).

2.2 Malaysia's cultural environment

Malaysia is a fast-growing economy in the Southeast Asia region and offers an interesting research context for this thesis because of its culturally diverse workforce. According to Fearon's Cultural Fractionalization Index (2003), which ranges from 0 (i.e., highly homogeneous, only one language is spoken in the country) to 1 (i.e., highly diverse, many different ethnic groups which all speak different languages), Malaysia is more culturally diverse than other countries in Southeast Asia.⁶ The index reflects the likelihood that two randomly selected persons in a country speak similar first languages (Fearon, 2003). However, the downside of this measure is its overreliance on the linguistic aspect of cultural diversity, which may lead to incorrect conclusions. For example, according to Fearon (2003), Brazil with a score of 0.02 is one of the least culturally diverse countries because Portuguese is the first language of over 97% of the population (WorldAtlas, 2021a). However, Brazil is known for its remarkable cultural diversity (UNESCO, 2021).⁷ Thus, solely relying on linguistic diversity to determine a country's cultural diversity might be limited. Alesina et al. (2003) offer a more comprehensive index of cultural diversity which includes the consideration of ethnic, linguistic, and religious fractionalisations of over 190 countries and identifies Malaysia as the most culturally diverse country among other countries in Southeast Asia.⁸

The Malaysian population consists of three large and distinct cultural groups (i.e., Bumiputera/Malays: 61.9%, Malaysian Chinese: 22.6%, Malaysian Indians: 6.7%; WorldAtlas, 2021c).⁹ Compared to other developing countries in the region such as Thailand and Vietnam, Malaysia is more culturally diverse because the share of the second largest ethnic group (i.e., Malaysian Chinese) is higher in Malaysia than in other

⁶ Malaysia's index is 0.564 compared to Indonesia: 0.522, Thailand: 0.431, Singapore: 0.388, Vietnam: 0.21, Cambodia: 0.15, the Philippines: 0.116, and Laos: 0.02, with higher scores indicating higher cultural diversity.

⁷ The three largest ethnic groups in the Brazilian population include Brancos (i.e., ethnic Europeans, 47.73%), Pardo (i.e., a mix of European, Native, and African, 43.13%), and Prestos (i.e., ethnic Africans, 7.61%; WorldAtlas, 2021b).

⁸ Like Fearon's Cultural Fractionalization Index (2003), Alesina et al.'s (2003) fractionalisation score reflects the likelihood that two randomly selected individuals in a country belong to the same (ethnic, linguistic, or religious) group. Malaysia has been identified as the most culturally diverse country in the region by drawing on the average score of these three categories. Other countries in Southeast Asia included by Alesina et al. (2003) are Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam, Philippines, Laos, and Singapore.

⁹ Bumiputera refers to "the sons and daughters of the soil" and includes the indigenous groups of Malaysia, with Malays being the largest group (Yaacob, 2011).

countries (see Figure 3). This means that it is much more likely for expatriates to work with HCNs of different ethnic backgrounds in Malaysia than in, for example, Thailand and Vietnam. Most of the Malaysian Chinese and Malaysian Indians are descendants of former immigrant workers and traders who were brought to the Malay Peninsula by British colonisers in the 19th century (Hirschman, 1985; Yeoh & Yeoh, 2015). Under the British divide-and-rule policy, racial segregation was impelled to suppress collective actions and enhance the colonial government's control (Fadeli, 2017; Goh, 2008; Harris & Han, 2020). Hence, labour was resolutely divided along the racial line. The Chinese worked as businessmen, tax collectors, and tin mine operators; the Indians as menial workers on rubber plantations and in infrastructure; and Malays as peasants and fishermen in the hinterland (Goh, 2008; Hirschman, 1985; Reddy et al., 2020). The economic segregation fostered further interethnic alienations. For instance, most of the Chinese and Indians resided on the west coast of the peninsula near their economic activities, while most of the Malays lived in rural areas (Fadeli, 2017; Raman & Sua, 2010). Prior to Malaysia's independence in 1957, Chinese and Indian schools only used Chinese and Tamil as languages of instruction and had their own curriculums (Raman & Sua, 2010). This also promoted the ethnic groups maintaining their own cultural heritage, which contributed to the cultural diversity of contemporary Malaysia (Abdullah, 2001; Moran et al., 2014).

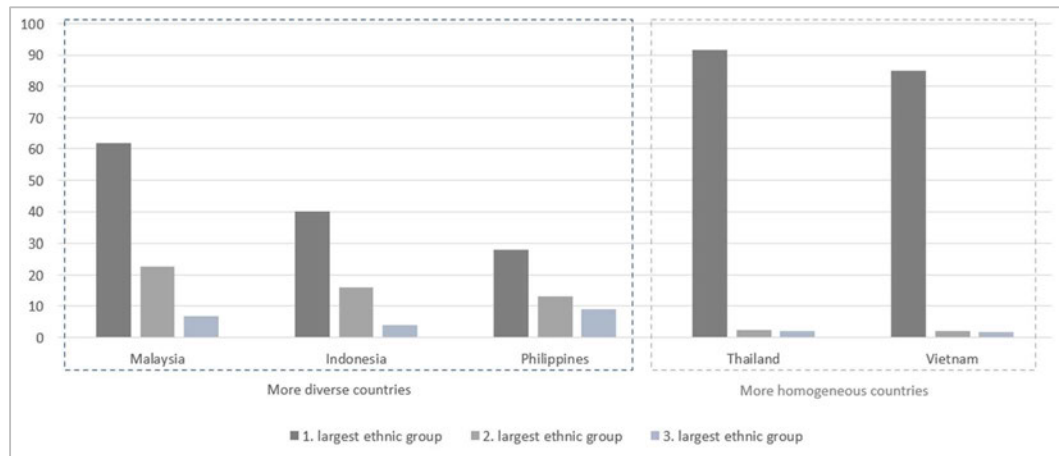


Figure 3: Ethnic diversity of Malaysia compared to other developing countries in Southeast Asia

Source: self-created based on data from WorldAtlas (2021c, d, e, f, g).

Malaysia is also more culturally diverse than other developing countries in the region such as Indonesia and the Philippines because the share of the second largest religious group is much higher in Malaysia than in other countries (see Figure 4). Specifically, while almost all Malays are Muslims (61.3%), nearly all Malaysian Chinese are followers of Buddhism (19.8% of the population), and most of the Malaysian Indians are Hindus (6.3% of the population; WorldAtlas, 2021h). In addition, 9.2% of the Malaysian population are Christians (WorldAtlas, 2021h). Religious beliefs may strongly influence people's values, attitudes, and behaviours (Khilji et al., 2014; Singh & Babbar, 2021; Van Buren III et al., 2020). For instance, Christianity emphasises strength, perseverance, and drive, while Islam stresses harmony, obligations, and obedience (Mohammad & Quoquab, 2016; Rao, 2012). Accordingly, Croucher (2011) observes that Christian employees more commonly use a dominating style for conflict management. In contrast, Muslim employees more frequently adopt an obliging and compromising style which is based on self-sacrifice and concessions to resolve a conflict quickly (Croucher, 2011). Furthermore, Hage and Posner (2015) suggest that Christian leaders with stronger faith more frequently engage in transformational leadership activities such as challenging the process, taking risks, and encouraging subordinates to accept responsibilities. Muslim leaders whose religiosity is strong, however, less frequently engage in such activities (Hage & Posner,

2015). This also corresponds to the Hadith (Islamic saying) that subordinates should not be burdened with difficult tasks which are beyond their capabilities (Mohammad & Quoquab, 2016).

On the other hand, Hinduism and Buddhism focus on people's own actions to enter eternity by collecting good karma or achieving enlightenment through modesty, mindfulness, and peace (Marques, 2010; Rao, 2012).¹⁰ Accordingly, Malaysian Chinese are found to be more assertive, goal oriented, and self-driven, whereas Malays often put more focus on keeping the status quo to maintain social harmony and stability (Yeoh & Yeoh, 2015). Khilji et al. (2014) identify that Buddhist employees put more emphasis on being self-controlled than atheists, Christians (Catholics and non-Catholics), Hindus, and Muslims, while Muslim employees consider being responsible less important than Christian, Buddhist, or Hindu employees do. Abu Bakar et al. (2018) also suggest that compared to Malaysian Chinese and Malaysian Indians, Malays are less concerned with developing future-oriented goals and monitoring their progress. Hence, HCNs of different ethnic groups might have different behavioural norms and expectations which require expatriates to have higher level of cultural sensitivity for achieving a high-quality relationship with HCNs.

¹⁰ In Indian philosophy, karma refers to the influence of past actions on one's future lives and rebirth (Britannica, 2022).

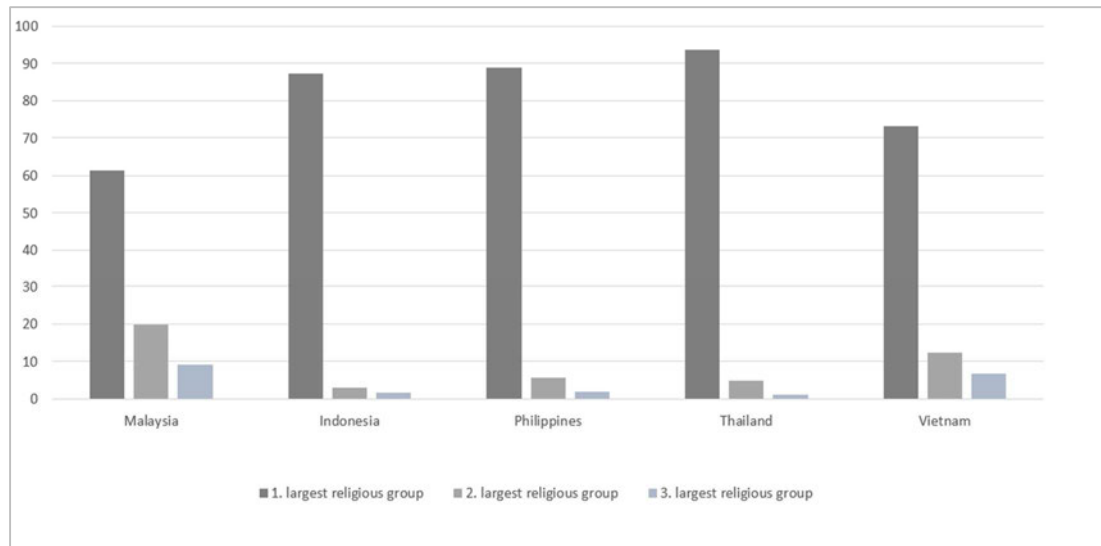


Figure 4: Religious diversity of Malaysia compared to other developing countries in Southeast Asia

Source: self-created based on data from Britannica (2021) and WorldAtlas (2021h, i, j, k).

Finally, Islam has a profound impact on the cognitive processes, daily routines, and lifestyles of its followers (Bouma et al., 2003; Rakrachakarn et al., 2015). For example, there are several Islamic practices that have an impact on practising Muslims' work life (Bouma et al., 2003; Findley et al., 2014; Sloane-White, 2018), namely

- Certain dietary restrictions (e.g., no pork, halal meat)¹¹
- Muslim women dressing modestly and wearing a hijab in public to keep their head, the sides of their neck, and their shoulders and chest covered
- No close contact between unrelated men and women (e.g., handshaking, being alone in a closed room)
- Daily prayers (five times per day) and a longer prayer on Fridays
- Fasting during Ramadan¹²

¹¹ The slaughter and preparation of meat must follow certain specific processes according to the Islamic law and in the name of God.

¹² Generally, during Ramadan, drinking and eating are not allowed from sunrise to sunset.

With Islam being the official religion of Malaysia, nearly all organisations in Malaysia have prayer rooms and additional breaks for Muslim employees to perform their daily prayers (Hashim, 2009; Sloane-White, 2018; Zainudin et al., 2019). This might contradict some Western expatriates' expectations that religion should be a private matter which does not belong to the workplace (Alewell & Rastetter, 2020; King, 2008; Wu et al., 2017).¹³ In sum, the cultural nuances among the Malaysian workforce may pose additional challenges to expatriates' adjustment and performance because HCNs of different ethnic and religious groups might have different behavioural norms, expectations, and practices. In such a culturally diverse environment, the effect of Cultural Intelligence on the development of social capital between expatriates and HCNs might be even more salient. Hence, Malaysia constitutes a suitable research context for this thesis.

¹³ Western expatriates are expatriates with European or North American cultural background (Parida et al., 2021).

Chapter 3: Cultural Intelligence

This thesis examines the effect of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural Cultural Intelligence (CQ) on their development of social capital with host national employees because culture shock and maladjustment diminish their job satisfaction and effectiveness (Kraimer et al., 2016; Lai et al., 2020; Shi & Wang, 2014). In contrast, high CQ allows expatriates to achieve better cross-cultural adjustment, which also benefits their performance (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Nunes et al., 2017).

This chapter begins by defining the concept of CQ within intercultural competence research. After this, the prevalent conceptualisations in the literature are discussed to justify the adopted conceptualisation of CQ in this thesis as a four-dimensional construct. The chapter concludes by defining the four CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural) and reviewing the literature to discuss their potential impact on expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs in Malaysia.

3.1 Cultural Intelligence in intercultural competence research

Intercultural competence research focuses on people's skills and capabilities to explain their varying effectiveness in cross-cultural situations (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017; Liao et al., 2021; Salman et al., 2020). Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which refers to people's capability to act effectively in culturally diverse settings, is one of the most dominant paradigms in this research area (Ang et al., 2007; Morin & Talbot, 2021; Ott & Michailova, 2018). Specifically, drawing on Gardner's multiple intelligence theory, cultural intelligence captures both people's knowledge of different cultures and their

mental and behavioural flexibility to adjust according to the expectations of other cultures (Ang et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2015).¹⁴

According to Abdelhak and Romaissa (2022) and Behjat (2012), the ability to promote cooperation constitutes a person's interpersonal intelligence. Other well-known concepts of interpersonal intelligence include Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence. Emotional Intelligence refers to a person's ability to recognise, regulate, and make use of emotions to achieve certain ends (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Social Intelligence reflects a person's ability to recognise and correctly interpret social cues, thereby developing appropriate actions (Crowne, 2013; Gkonou & Mercer, 2017). Although related to the concept of cultural intelligence (Crowne, 2007, 2013), these constructs have limited usefulness in intercultural work relationships such as between expatriates and HCNs (Boiger et al., 2014; Brett, 2018; Grandey et al., 2010; Mesquita et al., 2016). This is because emotionality and social norms are to a certain extent influenced by cultural values and norms (Brett, 2018; Mesquita et al., 2016). For example, the emotion of individual pride is endorsed in individualistic cultures but less desired in collectivistic cultures (for definitions of Individualism and Collectivism see Appendix A; Eid & Diener, 2001; Liu et al., 2021).¹⁵ Furthermore, expression of anger towards supervisors is less accepted in high compared to low power distance cultures (for a definition of Power Distance, see Appendix A), while expression of anger towards coworkers is less accepted in collectivistic compared to individualistic cultures (Grandey et al., 2010). Thus, Emotional Intelligence and Social Intelligence have limited usefulness when people of different cultural backgrounds are involved because they may have different behavioural norms and thus interpret emotional and social cues differently. However, CQ is particularly relevant in intercultural work settings. For example, Groves and Feyerherm (2011) identify that leaders' CQ has a significant positive effect on their performance when team cultural diversity is high ($\beta = .33, p < .05$) but not when team diversity is low ($\beta = -.05, ns.$). Furthermore, Schlaegel et al. (2021) suggest that the effect of Emotional Intelligence

¹⁴ Gardner's multiple intelligence theory suggests that human intelligence involves more than just people's cognitive ability including other aspects such as social skills, creativity, and common sense (Gardner, 1983; Sternberg, 2020),

¹⁵ Individual pride refers to the feeling of being proud when the achievement of valued goals is attributed to oneself (Grandey et al., 2018).

on expatriates' work-related outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, expatriation intention, job performance) is significantly reduced when CQ is included in the analysis. Therefore, CQ is a particularly relevant concept to this thesis on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

Moreover, compared to other well-known constructs in intercultural competence research such as Cross-Cultural Competence and Global Mindset, CQ makes a more consistent distinction between people's stable traits and state-like capabilities (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). For instance, the concept of Cross-Cultural Competence includes both stable elements such as people's personality traits and values as well as malleable aspects such as their knowledge and skills (Johnson et al., 2006; Lee & Nguyen, 2020; Yari et al., 2020). Global Mindset presents a person's cross-cultural capacity which requires "a specific attribute (mindset) characterized particularly by openness and cosmopolitanism" (Andresen & Bergdolt, 2017, p. 183). However, cosmopolitanism refers to expatriates' curiosity and openness to unfamiliar cultural practices and values (Barzantny & Clapp-Smith, 2021), and openness is a stable personality trait which is difficult to change by short-term interventions (Bleidorn et al., 2021; Cobb-Clark & Schurer, 2012; Oshio et al., 2018). In contrast, CQ is malleable via purposive training (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Erez et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2009). For example, Erez et al. (2013) suggest that four weeks of cross-cultural work experience has a lasting positive effect on team members' CQ. Reichard et al. (2014) also suggest that a sustainable improvement of CQ is already observable after two hours of classroom training including discussions of feedback and role play. Thus, compared to other constructs such as Cross-Cultural Competence and Global Mindset, the concept of CQ complies better with the aim of this thesis, which is to offer practical recommendations for human resource managers and professionals to act upon in the short term.

Finally, another downside of the concept of Global Mindset pertains to the negligence of expatriates' behavioural skills in cross-cultural interactions. This is because outward behaviours are most easily observable for HCNs and are the primary basis for their judgement on expatriates' attitude and intentions (Ang & Tan, 2016; Pronin, 2008). Therefore, it is important to include expatriates' behavioural skills while examining their interactions with HCNs. In this regard, CQ presents a more complete set of capabilities which includes both mental and behavioural aspects (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas, 2006).

Hence, this thesis uses the concept of CQ to examine expatriates' development of social capital with their host national colleagues in Malaysia.

3.2 Conceptualisations of Cultural Intelligence

Earley and Ang (2003) introduced the first conceptualisation of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), which includes three dimensions: cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ. The authors defined the cognitive dimension of CQ as a person's knowledge of different cultures and the mental ability to develop effective action strategies based on prior cross-cultural interactions. The motivational dimension was defined as people's motivation in engaging in intercultural situations, which is determined by their self-efficacy and intrinsic interest (Earley & Ang, 2003). Finally, Earley and Ang (2003) defined the behavioural dimension of CQ as a person's ability to display different verbal and nonverbal behaviours according to the expectations of different cultures. Ang et al. (2007) later extended this model, adding a separate metacognitive dimension to the previous cognitive dimension of CQ. According to Ang et al. (2007), metacognitive CQ refers to people's higher-order cognitive ability, which is involved when they reflect on their previous intercultural experiences to develop more effective action strategies. In other words, metacognitive CQ refers to expatriates' ability to make use of their cultural knowledge to facilitate cross-cultural interactions.

Thomas (2006) has proposed another prevalent conceptualisation of CQ. In line with Earley and Ang (2003), Thomas (2006) also defines CQ as a person's ability to act effectively in culturally diverse settings. However, the author identifies CQ as a three-dimensional construct consisting of knowledge, mindfulness, and skills. In particular, Thomas (2006) refers to knowledge as a person's general knowledge of the impact of culture on one's perception and behaviours and the specific knowledge of the norms, values, and practices of different cultures. Mindfulness refers to "a heightened awareness of and enhanced attention to current experience or present reality" (Thomas, 2006, p. 84). Accordingly, Thomas (2006) suggests that a mindful person is aware, sensitive, open minded, reflective, and empathetic. Finally, the dimension of skills relates to people's

ability to choose and enact the right behaviours, acquire new behaviours, and change their behaviour in line with the expectations of different cultures (Thomas, 2006).

While Thomas' (2006) dimensions largely resemble those introduced by Ang et al. (2007), Thomas (2006) purports that the motivational dimension is to be excluded from the conceptualisation of CQ because it represents people's willingness rather than their ability. However, this thesis concurs with Earley and Ang (2003) and argues that referring to someone as culturally intelligent when this person has little interest in interacting with culturally diverse others is pointless. This is because motivational CQ encourages expatriates to persist and work harder to overcome challenges posed by cultural differences (Earley & Ang, 2003; Templer et al., 2006). Furthermore, previous research shows that HCNs perceive expatriates' willingness to socialise with HCNs as an important aspect when assessing expatriates' CQ (e.g., Ang, 2013; Deng & Gibson, 2008; Schlaegel et al., 2021). Finally, Thomas' (2006) conceptualisation of CQ includes stable traits such as cultural empathy and open mindedness which are difficult to change via short-term interventions (Alteren & Tudoran, 2019; Cuff et al., 2014). However, this thesis focuses on providing useful recommendations for practitioners to act upon. Hence, this thesis adopts Ang et al.'s (2007) conceptualisation of CQ because it makes a more consistent distinction between stable traits and malleable state-like abilities (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008).

3.3 The four dimensions of Cultural Intelligence

Following Ang et al. (2007), Cultural Intelligence (CQ) includes four dimensions, namely metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural. This thesis investigates the unique effect of each CQ dimension on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs because different training programs are needed to effectively develop the different CQ dimensions (Alexander et al., 2021; Kour & Jyoti, 2021; Solomon & Steyn, 2017). Therefore, although this thesis acknowledges potential interrelationships between the four

dimensions, each CQ dimension is discussed independently in the remainder of this thesis.¹⁶

3.3.1 Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence

Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence (hereafter metacognitive CQ) refers to expatriates' higher-order cognitive ability which facilitates their accumulation and sophisticated usage of cultural knowledge while interacting with HCNs (Ang, 2013; Ang et al., 2007). An important aspect of metacognitive CQ is cognitive flexibility, which involves the ability of cultural frame switching and integrating seemingly contradicting cultural concepts (Dheer & Lenartowicz, 2019; Klafehn et al., 2015). This means that expatriates with a high level of metacognitive CQ understand how cultural assumptions shape their own and HCNs' perceptions and behaviours (Ng et al., 2009; Rajasekar et al., 2021). They can monitor and adjust their mental models (i.e., cultural frame switching) and develop more effective action strategies based on their previous interactions with HCNs (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Chua et al., 2012; Triandis, 2016). Accordingly, Gooden et al. (2017), Morris et al. (2014), and Van Dyne et al. (2010) suggest that metacognitive CQ is the key which links expatriates' cultural knowledge to effective actions.

Wu and Ang (2011) suggest that when expatriates' metacognitive CQ is high, organisational support plays a less important role in facilitating their general and work adjustment. This might be because a high level of metacognitive CQ promotes expatriates' cultural learning (Xu & Chen, 2017), which allows them to adjust to the local environment and their new task. Similarly, Guðmundsdóttir (2015) suggests a positive effect of metacognitive CQ on Nordic expatriates' general, interaction, and work adjustment in the USA. Akhal and Liu (2019) and Kour and Jyoti (2021) also identify a positive effect of metacognitive CQ on expatriates' general, interaction, and work adjustment in China and India, respectively. Thus, expatriates with a higher level of

¹⁶ The CQ dimensions may be interrelated because, for example, the motivational facet of CQ reflects expatriates' drive to learn about different cultures. It may thus increase expatriates' level of cultural knowledge (i.e., cognitive CQ; Van Dyne et al., 2010). Being equipped with solid knowledge about the host culture constitutes the basis for metacognitive CQ to operate effectively, which may in turn facilitate the development of appropriate actions (i.e., behavioural CQ) and the learning of new cultural knowledge (i.e., cognitive CQ; Schlaegel et al., 2021; Van Dyne et al., 2010).

metacognitive CQ often adjust better to the general environment of the host country (i.e., general adjustment), feel more comfortable interacting with HCNs (i.e., interaction adjustment), and have fewer problems adapting to their new job responsibilities (i.e., work adjustment; Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Akhal & Liu, 2019; Black & Stephens, 1989). Therefore, metacognitive CQ is expected to facilitate high-quality contact between expatriates and HCNs.

3.3.2 Cognitive Cultural Intelligence

Cognitive Cultural Intelligence (hereafter Cognitive CQ) reflects expatriates' knowledge about the host culture's values, norms, practices, and legal and social systems (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Le et al., 2018). Expatriates with a high level of cognitive CQ hence well understand the similarities and differences between their own and the host culture (Brislin et al., 2006; Li, 2020; Thomas et al., 2008). This allows them to have a more accurate understanding of what is expected in the host country, which eventually provides them with a better starting point to develop a high-quality relationship with HCNs (Ang et al., 2007; Morris et al., 2014). Accordingly, expatriates with high cognitive CQ rely less on organisational support to achieve better interaction adjustment (Wu & Ang, 2011). Furthermore, cultural knowledge attenuates the negative effect of foreign language anxiety on employees' performance in global virtual teams (Presbitero, 2021).

However, solely relying on the cognitive dimension of CQ (i.e., cultural knowledge) may also have negative effects on expatriates' cross-cultural effectiveness (Morris et al., 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2010; Wilczewski et al., 2019). This is because superficial cultural understanding might induce inaccurate generalisations and stereotyping which offend HCNs (Morris et al., 2014). Moreover, while all other CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) are negatively related to ethnocentrism, no significant relationship has been found for the cognitive dimension of CQ (Young et al., 2017). This means that expatriates with a high level of cultural knowledge might still despise HCNs' practices as incompetent and backward, which eventually diminishes their willingness to interact with HCNs. Accordingly, Rose et al. (2010) have found no significant relationship between expatriates' cognitive CQ and their performance in Malaysia. Guðmundsdóttir (2015) also suggests that Nordic expatriates' cognitive CQ has no effect

on their general, interaction, and work adjustment in the USA. Dang and Khai (2021) have even identified a negative relationship between expatriates' cognitive CQ and their general adjustment in Vietnam, which means the more expatriates know about the host country (i.e., Vietnam), the less they feel comfortable living in the country. These findings lend support to Morris et al.'s (2014) idea that cultural knowledge is either "a useful starting point for learning the complexity of lived culture or [...] unfortunate stopping points" (p. 198) of expatriates' cross-cultural effectiveness. Hence, expatriates' cognitive CQ would be expected to have a limited effect on expatriates' development of a high-quality relationship with their host national colleagues.

3.3.3 Motivational Cultural Intelligence

Motivation refers to people's internal processes that initiate and sustain goal-directed actions (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Motivational Cultural Intelligence (hereafter motivational CQ) hence reflects expatriates' ability to channel and sustain energy towards learning about other cultures and overcoming difficulties posed by cultural differences (Ang et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2009). Following the expectancy-value theory of motivation, people's persistence and performance on a task are determined by the expected likelihood of success and its associated value (Bandura, 1977; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Therefore, self-efficacy and intrinsic value (e.g., joy) are key aspects of motivational CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003). Specifically, following Bandura (1977), self-efficacy refers to one's belief in one's capability to successfully manage cross-cultural interactions, while intrinsic value refers to the innate value one attaches to such interactions (Ryan & Deci, 2020). According to Jacobs et al. (1984) and Kiani et al. (2021), self-efficacy is a strong positive predictor of people's task persistence. Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2019) purport that people's persistence on a task is strongly determined by their intrinsic interest (e.g., enjoyment, fun, personal values). Therefore, expatriates with high motivational CQ persist and continue their interactions with HCNs despite difficulties posed by cultural differences (Chen et al., 2011; Ng et al., 2009).

Accordingly, previous research suggests that motivational CQ promotes expatriates' cultural learning (Gooden et al., 2017; Xu & Chen, 2017), and is positively related to expatriates' job and life satisfaction abroad (Huff, 2013; Zhang et al., 2021a). Prior

research also shows that motivational CQ is an important facilitator of expatriates' general, interaction, and work adjustment (Akhal & Liu, 2019; Dang & Khai, 2021; Firth et al., 2014; Huff, 2013; Setti et al., 2020; Templer et al., 2006). Moreover, motivational CQ substantially reduces culture shock (Chen et al., 2011), and is the only CQ dimension which significantly predicts reduced turnover intention and ethnocentrism over time (Akhal & Liu, 2019; Young et al., 2017). Thus, motivational CQ would be expected to have a positive impact on expatriates' relationship quality with their host national colleagues because expatriates with higher motivational CQ feel more comfortable and motivated to have extended cross-cultural interactions.

3.3.4 Behavioural Cultural Intelligence

Behavioural Cultural Intelligence (hereafter behavioural CQ) refers to expatriates' ability to display a wide range of appropriate verbal and nonverbal behaviours while interacting with people of different cultures (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Verbal behaviour includes the usage of appropriate words, speed, sound, and style of speech (Van Dyne et al., 2012). Nonverbal behaviour includes gestures, facial expressions, body language, and the use of space (Ang et al., 2007; Hou, 2017; Knapp & Hall, 2010). Cultural background has a profound impact on people's understanding and interpretation of each other's behaviour (Goyal, 2022; Hou, 2017). For example, people from Western cultures often interpret a firm handshake with direct eye contact positively as a sign of extraversion, openness, and expressiveness (Faust, 2018). However, people of Asian cultures often associate a hardy handshake with excessive aggressiveness and rudeness and prefer gentleness and less eye contact (Ismayilli & Ledeneva, 2020; Katsumi et al., 2017; Mukherjee & Ramos-Salazar, 2014). Expatriates with a high level of behavioural CQ hence demonstrate behavioural flexibility by acting in line with the expectations of the host culture (Earley & Ang, 2003).

According to prior research, expatriates' behavioural CQ positively predicts their work and life satisfaction (Huff, 2013), interaction and work adjustment (Akhal & Liu, 2019; Kour & Jyoti, 2021; Setti et al., 2020), and work performance (Ang et al., 2007; Setti et al., 2020). Behavioural CQ also plays an important role in facilitating virtual team effectiveness by enhancing team members' communication effectiveness (Mangla, 2021;

Presbitero, 2021). Finally, Zhang et al. (2021b) suggest that among other CQ dimensions, behavioural CQ is most crucial for expatriates to achieve high performance in high compared to low power distance cultures. This might be because additional behavioural norms become relevant when expatriates work in high power distance cultures, including Malaysia (Hofstede Insights, 2021). For example, open disputes with supervisors are considered unacceptable in high power distance cultures (Huang et al., 2005; Jogulu, 2010). Furthermore, employees from high power distance cultures often expect their leaders to give explicit and clear instructions instead of participating in the decision-making process (Bao et al., 2021; Fock et al., 2013; Wang & Guan, 2018). In contrast, low power distance encourages subordinates to speak up, be proactive, and accept responsibility (Graham et al., 2018; Urbach et al., 2021). Hence, expatriates' behavioural CQ is expected to have an important impact on their relationship quality with HCNs in Malaysia.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the literature to define the concept of Cultural Intelligence and highlight its relevance in cross-cultural work relationships such as between expatriates and HCNs in Malaysia. The prevalent conceptualisations have been elaborated and the conceptualisation of Cultural Intelligence adopted in this thesis justified. Specifically, Ang et al.'s (2007) conceptualisation including the metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions of Cultural Intelligence is adopted in this thesis because it offers a more complete set of capabilities which are relevant in cross-cultural interactions and only includes state-like aspects that are malleable by purposive training. The definition of the four dimensions and their effect on expatriates' adjustment and work-related outcomes have been reviewed to surmise their potential impact on expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs in Malaysia.

The next chapter reviews the literature to define the concept of social capital. Its conceptualisation as adopted in this thesis is explained and justified. The next chapter concludes with a discussion of the potential impact of the Cultural Intelligence dimensions on expatriates' social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

Chapter 4: Social capital

This thesis seeks to reveal the effect of Cultural Intelligence on expatriates' social capital with HCNs because prior research suggests that social capital with HCNs increases expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Bruning et al., 2012). However, very little is known about why some expatriates are more successful in developing a higher level of social capital with HCNs than others.

With the concept of Cultural Intelligence having been elaborated in the previous chapter, this chapter reviews the theoretical development of social capital and discusses some of the existing ill-definitions and conceptual problems in the current literature. After this, the conceptualisation of social capital adopted in this thesis is explained and justified. The chapter concludes by elaborating on the potential impact of the four Cultural Intelligence dimensions on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

4.1 Theoretical development and conceptualisations of social capital

Social capital is based on the premise that social relationships may engender positive returns for individuals and collectives (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Lin, 2001). Following a class perspective, Bourdieu (1986) first defined social capital as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition” (p. 243). According to Bourdieu (1986), social capital is most useful for the dominant class to preserve its resources and position through, for example, exclusive memberships (Engbers et al., 2017; Lin, 1999; Siisiainen, 2003). Later, Coleman (1988) referred to social capital as an essential result of close network structures, which includes shared norms of reciprocity, trustworthiness of the environment, and effective sanction of opportunistic behaviours because of the fast spread of information. Finally, Putnam (1993) used the concept of social capital to explain the development of strong representative institutions (e.g., government) and prosperous economy at the societal

level. According to Putnam (1993), social capital refers to generalised norms of reciprocity, trust, and civic engagement (e.g., voter turnout, newspaper reading, membership in choral or literary circles, and participation in voluntary associations). Since these seminal works, social capital has attracted much research attention over the past decades (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Swanson et al., 2020). However, confusions about what constitutes social capital still exist because social capital is defined and conceptualised differently at different research levels (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Claridge, 2018a; Volker, 2021). For instance, for collectives, social capital presents a form of public good as the social glue that holds the society together and engenders desirable outcomes such as municipal safety, volunteer work, political participation, and economic growth (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993; Thompson, 2018). However, at the individual research level, social capital is a form of private good because it constitutes people's resources which become available through their social relationships (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Burt, 2000; Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Confusion and ill-definitions arise when prominent conceptualisations of social capital are adopted without focusing on one's research level (Claridge, 2018a; Volker, 2021). As Claridge (2018a) suggests, "[s]omeone may think they know what social capital is because they read *Bowling Alone* [original emphasis] and so feel confident to comment or critique. But often comments about social capital apply only to a particular perspective" (p. 2).¹⁷ This is because what facilitates private actions at the individual level may be counterproductive at the collective level. For example, El-Khatib et al. (2015) suggest that although top managers with more central network positions have greater control over information which presents their individual social capital, their merger deals often cause greater losses to the new entity. Common agreement exists, however, among social capital researchers that social capital engenders positive returns (for individuals or collectives; Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Lin, 2001; Volker, 2021). Hence, this thesis argues that the theorisation and conceptualisation of social capital must be done considering the targeted research level and the focal actor's desired outcomes.

¹⁷ *Bowling Alone* is a prominent work by Putnam (2000) which examines social capital at the societal level.

To give an example, Brehm and Rahn (1997) suggest that individual social capital contributes to the achievement of confidence in government. This is problematic because the outcome (i.e., confidence in government) is barely an end in itself from the individuals' perspectives. Rather, it is a desirable outcome from the perspective of the government or the community. A closer look at Brehm and Rahn's conceptualisation of social capital shows that the authors have adopted Putnam's (1993) conceptualisation of societal-level social capital consisting of civic engagement and generalised trust. Hence, their conclusion is misleading because it is societal social capital which promotes confidence in government rather than individual social capital as the authors have claimed. Consequently, such publications arouse confusion regarding what constitutes social capital and its outcomes (Claridge, 2018a).

In this thesis, social capital presents expatriates' actual and potential resources which become available through their work relationships with HCNs (Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Social capital herein constitutes a form of private good because the access, amount, and quality of resources are unique and only available to the focal expatriate (Coleman, 1988; Sobel, 2002; Yang, 2007). Hence, in this thesis, the investigation of social capital is conducted at the individual level of research. At this research level, three major standpoints exist in the current literature: 1) the external view, which focuses on network structures and defines social capital as a person's bridging ties to different groups (Burt, 2000, 2004; Granovetter, 1983); 2) the internal view, which refers to the emotional and binding elements in social relationships as people's social capital (Coleman, 1988; Lin, 1999; Portes, 1998); and 3) the integrated view, which considers both network structure and qualitative aspects of social relationships as important dimensions of social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Horn et al., 2014; Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Pena-López & Sánchez-Santos, 2017). The different perspectives and the adopted conceptualisation of social capital in this thesis are elaborated in the following section.

4.2 Adopted conceptualisation of social capital

Following Granovetter's (1983) seminal work on the strength of weak ties and Burt's (2000, 2004) structural hole argument, the external view of social capital focuses on people's structural connections (e.g., network structure, network position) as their social capital. Specifically, Granovetter (1983) suggests that weak ties (i.e., infrequent contact) are more beneficial for job seekers to quickly obtain new job positions because of their better access to new information. In a similar vein, Burt's (2000, 2004) structural hole argument suggests that because members of the same group often share the same contact and knowledge, people with bridging ties to different groups (i.e., boundary spanners) have broader access to different practices, interests, and opinions. This allows them to easily identify hidden opportunities, create innovative solutions, and attain power (Burt, 2004; Perry-Smith, 2006). Hence, the external view of social capital suggests that a person with many bridging ties to different groups have a higher level of social capital. Accordingly, Wang and Kanungo (2004) identify that when expatriates have a boundary-spanning position by including both HCNs and peer expatriates in their network, they enjoy a higher level of psychological well-being. Johnson et al. (2003) and Van der Laken et al. (2019) also suggest that expatriates with more HCN contacts in their networks often benefit from better cross-cultural adjustment.

However, in contrast to Granovetter's (1983) argument, which suggests that infrequent contact is more beneficial because people have more time then to develop many more weak ties, Wang and Kanungo (2004) also identify a positive effect of contact frequency with HCNs on expatriates' well-being. Moreover, prior research suggests that the advantage of weak ties might be limited to superficial informational support rather than a deep level of emotional support (Burt, 2000; Krämer et al., 2021; Lin, 2001). Furthermore, when it comes to the allocation of scarce resources, any rational actor would act in favour of their strong rather than weak ties because strong ties have required more of their time (i.e., investment) to be established (Boorman, 1975; Tian & Lin, 2016). Hence, this thesis argues that the conceptualisation of social capital must also consider the depth of social relationships, which complies with the internal view of social capital (see also Andresen et al., 2018; Adler & Kwon, 2002; Mäkelä, 2007; Mäkelä & Suutari, 2009; Reiche et al., 2009). Following the internal view, bonding ties including emotional and binding elements such as trust and commitment constitute people's social capital

(Andresen et al., 2018; Ismail et al., 2016; Scheffler, 2015), though some previous studies also define bonding ties as within-group connections among similar people (e.g., Chen et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2006; Mäkelä, 2007). This thesis argues that defining bonding ties as connections among similar people is problematic for two main reasons. First, an apparently homogeneous group (e.g., same age, gender, class, race, education, political interest) may present heterogeneity in other aspects (e.g., parents vs. childless; disabled vs. nondisabled); second, network homogeneity is not a prerequisite for strong, bonding relationships to engender (Williams, 2006). For example, in the relationship between a mother and her 2-year-old son, the mother clearly belongs to a different age, gender, profession, and education group. It is also likely that her value system differs significantly from that of her 2-year-old child. However, it is not reasonable to assume that their relationship constitutes a weak rather than strong and bonding tie. Therefore, this thesis considers binding elements such as trust and commitment as the defining aspects of a bonding relationship.

In this thesis, the integrated view of social capital is adopted because both the structural connections as well as the binding elements are important aspects of a good work relationship. For example, it is possible that expatriates and HCNs have to interact with each other because of the job (i.e., they have the structural connection) but do not trust each other. On the other hand, a trustful relationship with only one specific host national colleague does not mean that expatriates generally get along with and enjoy a high level of support from other HCNs. Thus, this thesis adopts the definition of social capital from Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) as “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships” (p. 243). Following this definition, social capital includes any resources that become available because of expatriates’ relationships with HCNs. Because HCNs’ willingness of providing expatriates with extra support depends on their relationship quality (Van Bakel et al., 2016; Varma et al., 2009; Wang & Varma, 2018), a high level of social capital hence represents a high-quality relationship between expatriates and HCNs. More specifically, in this thesis, social capital is conceptualised in line with Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) as a three-dimensional construct including structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions.

4.2.1 The structural dimension of social capital

The structural dimension of social capital refers to the impersonal structure of social networks such as the presence or absence of network ties, contact frequency, and network density (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Burt (2000) refers to network density as “the average strength of connection between contacts” (p. 374). However, relationship strength is a qualitative evaluation of social relationships, which contradicts the impersonal nature of the structural dimension of social capital. Similarly, network closure measured as the feeling of emotional closeness (e.g., Bruning et al., 2012; Chang & Chuang, 2011; Chow & Chan, 2008; Horn et al., 2014) is not impersonal and hence not used to conceptualise the structural dimension of social capital in this thesis. In the expatriate literature, network density is also defined as the proportion of host national contacts in expatriates’ network (e.g., Bruning et al., 2012; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Wang & Kanungo, 2004). This definition complies with the impersonal nature of the structural dimension and is hence used in this thesis to examine expatriates’ structural connection with their host national colleagues.

Another often-cited construct in social network research is centrality, which refers to a person’s relative position in a network (Burt, 2004). High centrality means that a person has a short distance to all other network members such as through direct ties (Balkundi et al., 2011; Burt, 2004; Freeman, 1977; Wasko & Faraj, 2005). In contrast, a person at the periphery of the network (i.e., of low centrality) must pass many intermediate nodes (i.e., people with higher centrality) to access the resources of other network members (Balkundi et al., 2011). Because a gradual loss of resources is expected with increasing connection length (Bolland, 1988; Landherr et al., 2010), it is also expected that a larger number of direct ties (i.e., degree centrality) is beneficial because it facilitates people’s timelier access to key resources (Algesheimer & von Wangenheim, 2006). However, betweenness centrality (i.e., being the connecting agent between pairs of others) is not always as advantageous as it seems (Fang et al., 2015; Freeman, 1977). This is because the power of betweenness centrality lies in people’s control of information to their own advantage (Das et al., 2018; Freeman, 1977). Exerting this power may also have undesirable side effects. For example, consider a network including actors A, B, and C. B has a problem which may be solved with the resources of C. However, B is only

connected to C through the intermediate connection with A. In this constellation, A is the person with the highest betweenness centrality. According to the Conservation Of Resources (COR) theory, people strive to protect their available resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1989). Hence, if betweenness centrality really constitutes a form of resources, A would strive to maintain this superior position by hindering B from becoming directly connected to C. Doing so has practically no additional value for A apart from the feeling of power and control. In fact, A has additional cost (e.g., time and energy) to keep this central position, while the level of trust between A and B decreases as B recognises A's opportunistic behaviour. Hence, betweenness centrality is not included in the conceptualisation of the structural dimension of social capital in this thesis as it does not properly reflect expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs.

Other well-established centrality measures include closeness centrality (i.e., the length of the shortest paths to all other actors in the network; Landherr et al., 2010) and eigenvector centrality (i.e., the degree to which expatriates' direct ties are connections to others with higher betweenness centrality; He & Meghanathan, 2016). However, these measures are less feasible in intercultural research such as in this thesis because their calculations require complete network data of both expatriates and HCNs. Complete network data is already difficult to attain in domestic research (Landherr et al., 2010), and thus even more unmanageable in international studies involving multicultural participants. Moreover, the concept of closeness centrality assumes that a person with shorter distance to other network members is the optimal choice when it comes to the diffusion of resources in the entire network (i.e., outflow of resources from the focal actor; Beauchamp, 1965; Landherr et al., 2010). However, this thesis focuses on the inflow of resources which facilitate expatriates' goal achievement. Therefore, this thesis uses degree centrality (i.e., expatriates' direct ties to HCNs) instead of other centrality measures to conceptualise the structural dimension of social capital (see also Balkundi et al., 2011; Wasko & Faraj, 2005).

Finally, Intergroup Contact Theory suggests that frequent positive contact between people of different cultural groups may reduce their feeling of anxiety and contribute to the development of empathy and mutual understanding (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Pettigrew, 1998; Wang & Varma, 2018). Accordingly, prior research has identified that contact frequency with HCNs has a positive impact on expatriates' adjustment and well-being

(Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Claus et al., 2015; Wang & Kanungo, 2004). Furthermore, contact frequency provides expatriates with more opportunities to develop their relationships with and receive support from HCNs (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Kubovcikova & van Bakel, 2021; Wang & Kanungo, 2004). Thus, expatriates' contact frequency with HCNs is also included in the conceptualisation of the structural dimension of social capital.

In sum, the structural dimension of social capital in this thesis includes expatriates' network density, degree centrality, and contact frequency with HCNs in Malaysia. These aspects were chosen because they offer opportunities for expatriates to receive resources and support from HCNs and most adequately reflect the impersonal structural aspects of expatriates' network.

4.2.2 The relational dimension of social capital

The relational dimension of social capital complies with the internal view of social capital and addresses the depths of interpersonal relationships (Akhavan & Mahdi Hosseini, 2016; Horn et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2013). Specifically, social capital researchers generally agree that trust is a key element of the relational dimension of social capital (Akhavan & Mahdi Hosseini, 2016; Chang & Chuang, 2011; Chow & Chan, 2008; Coleman, 1988; Leung et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2013; Putnam, 1993). However, the definition and operationalisation of trust have been rather inconclusive. For instance, Paldam (2000) and Uslaner (2008) suggest that interpersonal trust may be distinguished into two types: particularised and generalised trust. The former is people's attitude towards specific others (Braesemann & Stephany, 2021; Uslaner, 2008), while the latter refers to a person's general attitude that all humans are good and trustworthy (Freitag & Bauer, 2013; Uslaner, 2008). Both types of trust have been used in previous social capital studies (e.g., Akhavan & Mahdi Hosseini, 2016; Leung et al., 2011; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998).¹⁸ Some others also use the term "social trust" as an aggregate of generalised and

¹⁸ For particularised trust, see Akhavan and Mahdi Hosseini (2016), Andresen et al. (2018), and Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018); for generalised trust, see Brehm and Rahn, (1997), du Plooy et al. (2020), and Lang (2004); for both types of trust, see Leung et al. (2011) and Zhang (2020).

particularised trust (e.g., Leung et al., 2011; Zhang, 2020), to address generalised trust to members of a specific group (e.g., Chow & Chan, 2008; Fujiwara & Kawachi, 2008), or interchangeably with generalised trust (e.g., Berggren & Nilsson, 2020; Engbers et al., 2017).

This thesis uses the social capital lens to examine expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs. Hence, particularised trust is a better indicator because it varies in response to other people's behaviours (Braesemann & Stephany, 2021; Uslaner, 2008). In contrast, generalised trust results from dispositional factors such as familial background, education, and socioeconomic status (Janmaat, 2019; Uslaner, 2008). Therefore, this thesis considers particularised trust a key element of the relational dimension of social capital. Specifically, defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712), trust is not to be confused with confidence, cooperation, or predictability. This is because in contrast to the other concepts, trust involves the presence of risk and uncertainty (Mayer et al., 1995). Risk and uncertainty are present in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs because different cultural values and practices may cause expatriates to suffer psychologically (e.g., stress, anxiety, frustration, burnout) or/and undergo career setback (Andresen & Margenfeld, 2015; Chen et al., 2011; Feitosa et al., 2014; Ljubica et al., 2019; Logan et al., 2015). Thus, trust is more relevant in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs than related concepts such as confidence, cooperation, or predictability.

Several studies have also used concepts such as identification, sense of belonging, obligation, and effective sanctions to define the depths of relationships (Chang & Chuang, 2011; Coleman, 1988; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). These concepts overlap substantially with the three forms of commitment proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991), namely 1) affective commitment, which reflects employees' "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (p. 67); 2) normative commitment, which evolves from a feeling of duty and obligation and reflects people's belief about what should be done; and 3) continuance commitment, which results from the lack of alternatives or the fear of costs associated with abandoning the relationship. Hence, obligation and behaving appropriately because of fear of sanctions coincide with the definition of normative and continuance commitment, while sense of belonging and identification are related concepts of affective commitment (Dávila & García, 2012).

Concerning the three forms of commitment (i.e., normative, continuance, affective), affective commitment is the only type of commitment which reflects people's emotional desire to remain in a long-term relationship with each other (Hashim & Tan, 2015). Long-term relationships with HCNs provide expatriates with first-hand information (e.g., background information, experience, solution) and shortcuts to different organisational units even after their repatriation to the home country (Mäkelä, 2007; Mäkelä & Brewster, 2009). Compared to normative (i.e., what one should do) and continuance commitment (i.e., what one has to do because of a lack of alternatives), expatriates' affective commitment (i.e., what one wants to do) is also the strongest and most consistent predictor of reduced turnover intention, organisational effectiveness and performance, and expatriates' psychological well-being (Bader et al., 2017; Kawai & Strange, 2014; Liu et al., 2019; Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Meyer et al., 2002). Because social capital is defined as expatriates' resources which facilitate their goal achievement in this thesis, affective commitment is used to conceptualise the relational dimension of social capital (see also Horn et al., 2014; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Scheffler, 2015).

In this regard, some previous studies assume that identification is affective commitment because affective commitment evolves from the identification process fostered through contingent values and belongingness (Aurier & N'Goala, 2009; Chang & Chuang, 2011). However, identification is "the process whereby individuals see themselves as *one* [emphasis added] with another person" (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 256). Meanwhile, commitment implies that expatriates and their commitment foci (i.e., HCNs) remain psychologically separate entities, which is expected when they evaluate their relationship quality with HCNs (Becker, 2009; Dagenais-Cooper & Paillé, 2012; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). Hence, affective commitment rather than identification is included in the conceptualisation of the relational dimension of social capital in this thesis.

Other studies have also used norms of reciprocity to conceptualise the relational dimension of social capital (e.g., Adler & Kwon, 2002; Chang & Chuang, 2011; Gundelach & Traunmüller, 2014; Putnam, 2000; Villalonga-Olives & Kawachi, 2015). Norms of reciprocity mean "I will do this for you now, knowing that somewhere down the road you will do something for me" (Putnam, 1993, p. 183). However, this thesis argues that norms of reciprocity are better placed in the domain of social exchange theory rather than individual social capital research (see also Colquitt et al., 2007; Takeuchi,

2010; Trong Luu & Rowley, 2016; Van der Laken et al., 2019). This is because the essential difference between social exchange theory and social capital theory is whether the resource provider expects to be rewarded by the resource receiver (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Lai et al., 2014). Social capital theory posits that people provide resources without being promised direct returns (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Norms of reciprocity, however, are based on the feeling of obligation and in itself a “promise of return” (Hoppner et al., 2015). Furthermore, Eisenberger et al. (2001) suggest that people with stronger reciprocation ideology are not more committed to the organisation when they receive a high level of organisational support; they are just less committed when the perceived level of support is low. Hence, expatriates with strong norms of reciprocity might still not feel emotionally attached to their host national colleagues when they have received support in the past. Finally, for norms of reciprocity to take effect, at least one partner in the relationship must have made the first step and provided support in the past. In this case, social capital has already materialised in effective outcomes (i.e., support) even before norms of reciprocity become relevant. For these reasons, reciprocity is not included in the conceptualisation of the relational dimension of social capital.

In sum, the relational dimension of social capital reflects the depth of relationship between expatriates and their host national colleagues and is conceptualised in this thesis as particularised trust and affective commitment.

4.2.3 The cognitive dimension of social capital

The cognitive dimension of social capital refers to people’s shared understanding, interpretation, and systems of meaning (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) initially defined this dimension as shared language and narratives: language because it is the means by which people discuss and transfer information (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998); and narratives because people share tacit knowledge and experiences with metaphors, good stories, and proverbs (Orr, 1990; Richardson et al., 2017). Without shared language and narratives, key information cannot be processed to facilitate expatriates’ actions. Likewise, tacit knowledge such as the unwritten rules of the host organisation or HCNs’ personal experiences cannot be transmitted if expatriates do not understand HCNs’ narratives (Chang & Chuang, 2011; Krátká, 2015; Pustovit,

2020). Since then, the cognitive dimension of social capital has been conceptualised as shared goals and culture (Bolino et al., 2002; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005), shared vision (Ismail et al., 2016; Parra-Requena et al., 2010), and shared communication patterns (Lee & Jones, 2008). This thesis argues that shared language and narratives and shared goals are both important aspects of the cognitive dimension of social capital because both contribute to the usefulness of resources for expatriates' goal achievement. For example, a product designer without the necessary technical knowledge (i.e., lack of shared language) cannot implement the technical advice an engineering colleague gives to improve the manufacturability of the designs (Adler & Kwon, 2002). On the other hand, manufacturability is perhaps not an important goal for the designer (i.e., low level of shared goals), so the technical advice is useless for the designer's success. According to Halbesleben et al. (2014), resources are "anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals" (p. 1338). Irrelevant information or support, which does not facilitate the achievement of expatriates' goals, is hence not a resource. Because this thesis defines social capital as expatriates' resources which become available through their relationships with HCNs, shared understanding of the goals (i.e., shared goals) is crucial in determining whether HCNs' support constitutes expatriates' social capital.

In sum, the cognitive dimension of social capital in this thesis is conceptualised as expatriates' shared language and narratives and shared goals with HCNs. Shared language and narratives refer to expatriates' ability to process and make use of their obtained resources from HCNs, and shared goals capture the extent to which HCNs are able to provide useful resources for expatriates to achieve their goals.

4.2.4 Overall social capital

Although this thesis discusses the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital separately, interrelationships may be present (Coleman, 1988; Trong Luu & Rowley, 2016). For example, the presence of network ties (i.e., the structural dimension) is a necessary condition for the development of the depth of relationships (i.e., the relational dimension) and shared understanding (i.e., the cognitive dimension; Claridge, 2018b). However, having structural connections to important others (i.e., the structural dimension) does not always mean that these people are willing to help (i.e., lack

of the relational dimension). Likewise, a trustful relationship (i.e., the relational dimension) does not necessarily result in useful resources which facilitate people's goal achievement (i.e., lack of the cognitive dimension). Therefore, this thesis argues that referring to the dimensions as structural, relational, and cognitive social capital is misleading because each dimension alone does not unveil much about expatriates' available resources (e.g., Horn et al., 2014; Oja et al., 2018; Reiche et al., 2009).

Moreover, the individual dimensions alone cannot fully capture expatriates' relationship quality with their host national colleagues. For example, it is possible that expatriates and HCNs must contact each other frequently to perform a task (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital) but dislike talking to each other. Furthermore, friends at work normally enjoy a high level of trust and commitment (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital), but they are not necessarily effective work partners (Morrison & Nolan, 2007; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Finally, although expatriates and HCNs might function well together and work on the same goals (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital), opportunistic behaviours may still occur in the absence of trust and commitment, which leads to knowledge hiding and unhealthy competition (Anand & Hassan, 2019).

Therefore, and in line with Hau et al. (2013) and Wasko and Faraj (2005), this thesis argues that the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital are better considered as different vectors of a three-dimensional room which only together render expatriates' potential to receive useful resources from HCNs. To determine this potential, expatriates' overall level of social capital is calculated by averaging their scores on the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions (for details of the measures, see Section 6.1.2).

4.3 Cultural Intelligence and social capital

The current expatriate literature concerning Cultural Intelligence (CQ) and social capital mostly focuses on CQ as an aggregated construct and only some individual aspects of social capital. For example, Hsu (2012) identifies a positive relationship between expatriates' overall level of CQ and trust (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital

in Hsu's study) but inconsistent results regarding the effect of CQ on contact frequency (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital in Hsu's study) and shared vision (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital in Hsu's study). Rooney (2019) suggests that managers' overall level of CQ is positively related to their subordinates' affective commitment to the organisation. Afsar et al. (2020) identify a significant positive relationship between overall level of CQ and trust. However, no empirical research exists so far which examines the unique effect of the four CQ dimensions on expatriates' social capital by including its structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions. This is nevertheless important because the analysis of CQ at the dimensional level would presumably reveal more accurate insights which get lost when only the aggregated construct is analysed (Chua et al., 2012; Engle & Nash, 2015). Moreover, as discussed in Section 4.2.4, single elements of social capital cannot fully capture expatriates' relationship quality with their host nation work colleagues. To address these gaps, this thesis offers a more holistic view while examining the effect of metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs by including the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

Prior expatriate research has, however, extensively investigated the effect of the four CQ dimensions on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Akhal & Liu, 2019; Dang & Khai, 2021; Guðmundsdóttir, 2015; Huff, 2013; Kour & Jyoti, 2021; for more details, see the literature review in Section 3.3). Cross-cultural adjustment includes three aspects: 1) general adjustment, which refers to expatriates' adjustment to the general environment of the host country; 2) interaction adjustment, which refers to expatriates' psychological comfort to interact with HCNs; and 3) work adjustment, which relates to expatriates' adjustment to their new task and job responsibilities (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Akhal & Liu, 2019; Black & Stephens, 1989). Because only interaction adjustment reflects expatriates' psychological comfort interacting with HCNs, this thesis draws on prior findings concerning the effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' interaction adjustment to elaborate on their potential impact on expatriates' social capital.

Specifically, Guðmundsdóttir (2015), Akhal and Liu (2019), and Kour and Jyoti (2021) suggest that expatriates' metacognitive CQ has a positive effect on their interaction adjustment. Motivational CQ and behavioural CQ have also been identified as positive predictors of expatriates' interaction adjustment and life satisfaction (Akhal & Liu, 2019;

Dang & Khai, 2021; Huff, 2013; Templer et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2021b). As elaborated in Section 3.3, metacognitive CQ refers to expatriates' cultural awareness and their mental ability to develop more effective action strategies by reflecting on their previous interactions with HCNs (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Rajasekar et al., 2021; Triandis, 2016). Motivational CQ refers to expatriates' intrinsic interest and self-efficacy while interacting with HCNs (Ang et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2009). Finally, behavioural CQ refers to expatriates' ability to change their behaviours according to the expectation of the host culture (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). According to the Conservation Of Resources (COR) theory, people strive to protect their own resources and acquire new ones (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1989). Hence, expatriates with higher metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ might have more energy to develop their social capital with HCNs because of their higher interaction adjustment. Therefore, this thesis expects a positive effect of metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on expatriates' social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

On the other hand, cognitive CQ refers to expatriates' knowledge about the values, norms, practices, and legal and social systems of the host culture (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Le et al., 2018). Schlaegel et al. (2021) suggest that cognitive CQ might promote expatriates' expectation alignment because they know the similarities and differences between their own and the host culture. However, the effect of cognitive CQ on expatriates' interaction adjustment is rather inconclusive in the expatriate literature. For example, Wu and Ang (2011) suggest that expatriates with a higher level of cognitive CQ rely less on organisational support to achieve interaction adjustment. However, Selmer (2001) identifies that although Swedish expatriates with a higher level of cultural knowledge more frequently engage in socialisation activities with HCNs in Hong Kong, they do not report better interaction adjustment. This means that although expatriates engage in shared activities with HCNs because they know this is expected (i.e., high cognitive CQ), they might still feel uncomfortable doing so (i.e., low interaction adjustment). Superficial understanding of the host culture may also foster the formation of inaccurate generalisations and stereotyping, which eventually offend HCNs (Lee et al., 2007; Morris et al., 2014). Finally, according to anxiety/uncertainty management theory, when the level of uncertainty is too low, overconfidence might result in misinterpretations which damage expatriates' cross-cultural effectiveness (Gudykunst & Nishida, 2001; Nadeem &

Koschmann, 2021). Therefore, the effect of cognitive CQ on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs is expected to be limited.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has elaborated on the theoretical development of social capital and discussed some existing conceptual problems and ill-definitions in the literature. At the individual research level, social capital constitutes people's resources which become available through their social relationships. Accordingly, this thesis has defined social capital as expatriates' actual and potential resources which become available through their work relationships with HCNs in Malaysia. The conceptualisation of social capital as a three-dimensional construct including its structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions has been explained and justified. Specifically, this thesis has argued that the three dimensions are better considered as different vectors of a three-dimensional room which only together renders expatriates' potential to receive useful resources from HCNs. Finally, this chapter has reviewed the literature to elaborate on the potential impact of metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural Cultural Intelligence on expatriates' social capital with HCNs. While metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ are expected to positively affect social capital, the effect of cognitive CQ is expected to be limited.

The next chapter discusses the research philosophy and the methodology of this thesis.

Chapter 5: Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology of this thesis. It begins by discussing the adopted research philosophy and then explains the methodology and research design used to examine the impact of metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural Cultural Intelligence on expatriates' social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

5.1 Ontology, epistemology, and research philosophy

Ontology refers to the conception of the nature of the research phenomena (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Saunders et al., 2016; Searle, 2008). Epistemology focuses on what constitutes scientific knowledge and how it is acquired (Marsh & Furlong, 2002; Moon & Blackman, 2014). Different ontological and epistemological assumptions cause the researcher to recognise different research problems, pose different research questions, and choose different methodologies (Berryman, 2019; McAuley et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2016; Smith & McGannon, 2018). Hence, before the methodology is explained, the research philosophy underlying this thesis must be clarified. To begin with, the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the two most fundamental philosophical stances in social science research are explained, namely those of positivism and interpretivism.

Combining two opposing positions, objectivism and subjectivism, in a two-times-two matrix, Johnson and Duberley (2000) identify positivism and interpretivism as two most fundamental yet contrasting research philosophies in social science research. Positivism assumes an objectivist ontology and epistemology, while interpretivism is based on a subjectivist ontology and epistemology (see Figure 5).

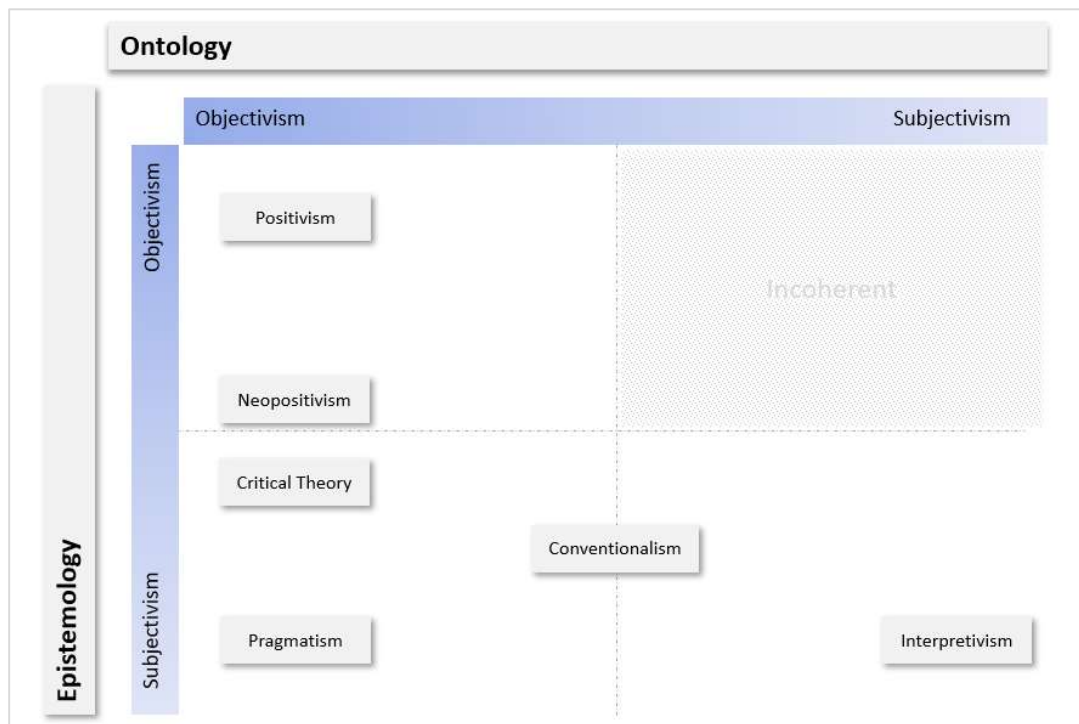


Figure 5: Ontology, epistemology, and research philosophy in social science research

Source: adapted from Johnson and Duberley (2000).

Specifically, positivism assumes reality to exist independently of the human mind; it is “out there” to be discovered (i.e., objectivist ontology; McAuley et al., 2014). Furthermore, following an objectivist epistemology, positivists assume that true scientific knowledge is only accessible through the objective observation of sensory inputs which can be seen, touched, heard, or tasted (McAuley et al., 2014; Ryan, 2018). Hence, positivists often pose research questions that are quantifiable and highlight quality criteria such as objectivity and generalisability (Berryman, 2019). Meanwhile, interpretivism assumes the social world to be inherently created by the human mind (i.e., subjectivist ontology; Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Hence, the ways social actors give meaning to their surroundings and their experiences all contribute to the constructed reality (McAuley et al., 2014). Accordingly, interpretivists do not look for law-like, generalisable facts but rather seek to understand people’s stories, perceptions, and interpretations of their social reality (i.e., subjectivist epistemology; Berryman, 2019; Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Saunders et al., 2016). Because interpretivists see the researcher as an integral part of the social world, emphasis is put on the researcher’s reflectivity and transparency to

determine the quality of scientific knowledge (Hammarberg et al., 2016; Leitch et al., 2010; Ryan, 2018).

Besides positivism and interpretivism, neopositivism, critical theory, conventionalism, and pragmatism are other dominant philosophical positions in social science research (see Figure 5; Johnson & Duberley, 2000; McAuley et al., 2014). Compared to positivism, which only accounts for knowledge claims based on objective observations of sensory inputs as scientific and valid, neopositivism well accepts the presence of intangible facts, such as human thoughts and interpretations (McAuley et al., 2014). However, neopositivism still follows an objectivist epistemology, which considers true knowledge only accessible through stringent objectivity and the use of theory-neutral language (e.g., numbers; Johnson & Duberley, 2000). In contrast, conventionalism, critical theory, and pragmatism follow the subjectivist epistemology, which acknowledges a more active role of the researcher in the creation or discovery (depending on the ontological position) of scientific knowledge (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Saunders et al., 2016). For instance, conventionalism considers all knowledge claims as negotiated conventions among certain scientific communities instead of the reflection of (either external or constructed) realities (Rajagopal, 2017; Wong & Heng, 2012). Hence, for conventionalists, absolute truth does not exist because alternative conventions would result in different (equally accepted) knowledge claims (Ciomaga, 2012).

On the other hand, critical theory and pragmatism assume an objectivist ontology which accepts the presence of an external truth (McAuley et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2016). In particular, critical theory proposes that given an ideal speech situation where the interlocutors are free from any power relations or other coercions, true knowledge is acquirable through discourse and consensus between the interlocutors (Habermas, 1974). However, systematic distortions such as power relations, privilege, or domination hinder the discovery of true knowledge (Habermas, 1974; McAuley et al., 2014). Therefore, critical theory focuses on identifying the sources of such distortions and their repercussions (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; McAuley et al., 2014). Finally, pragmatism assumes that the external truth (“things in themselves” in the noumenal world) exists in parallel to what people claim to know about the social world (“things for us” in the phenomenal world; Kant & Guyer, 1998; Powell, 2019). “Pragma” in the word “pragmatism” implies action, which is closely related to words such as “practice” and

“practical” (Parvaiz et al., 2016). Hence, pragmatism focuses on providing practical solutions to solve social problems and facilitate people’s real-life actions (Korte & Mercurio, 2017; Parvaiz et al., 2016; Powell, 2019). Nonetheless, the external truth in the noumenal world still provides feedback. Those knowledge claims which provide clarifications in the social world are retained as true, scientific knowledge, and those which cause confusion are discarded over time (Guyon et al., 2018; Powell, 2019).

According to Berryman (2019) and Saunders et al. (2016), research questions reveal the underlying research philosophy. For instance, this thesis seeks to answer the following two research questions:

RQ1: What is the relationship between the different dimensions of CQ (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) and expatriates’ social capital with HCNs in Malaysia?

RQ2: How and why may CQ influence expatriates’ development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia?

These research questions are based on two assumptions: 1) the relationship between the dimensions of CQ and social capital is “out there” to be discovered and 2) how this relationship plays out in expatriates’ real-life interactions with HCNs depends on their understanding and interpretations of their lived experiences. The first assumption reveals an objectivist ontological position because the assumption is that there is potentially an external reality to be discovered (i.e., the relationship between the CQ dimensions and social capital). The latter assumption identifies a subjectivist epistemology because this thesis acknowledges that expatriates and HCNs might have different interpretations of this external reality which eventually contribute to their understanding of what is “really” happening in their social world. The combination of objectivist ontology and subjectivist epistemology means that pragmatism is the underlying research philosophy of this thesis (McAuley et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2016).

In line with the pragmatist focus on the usefulness of knowledge claims (Guyon et al., 2018; Powell, 2019), this thesis aims to provide useful recommendations for practitioners to develop expatriates’ social capital with HCNs. Following the pragmatist research philosophy, research methodologies are considered as means which serve the ends, namely to facilitate the understanding of the research phenomenon (Korte & Mercurio,

2017; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Rumens & Kelemen, 2016). Therefore, the research methodology of this thesis was chosen based on the consideration of “what works” to answer the research questions (Parvaiz et al., 2016).

5.2 Research methodology and design

The main aim of this thesis is to understand why some expatriates can develop higher level of social capital with their culturally diverse host national colleagues than others. To this end, this thesis uses a mixed methods approach which combines quantitative and qualitative methodologies in a single research enquiry to provide a more comprehensive answer to the research questions (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015; Hammarberg et al., 2016). Specifically, quantitative methods make use of numeric data (numbers) to measure and determine the relationships between variables (e.g., CQ dimensions and social capital; Bergin, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). In contrast, qualitative methods draw on nonnumeric data such as words, images, or other similar materials to explore people’s perspectives, meanings, and interpretations of their social surroundings (Bergin, 2018; Nassaji, 2020).

In this thesis, a convergent mixed methods design is used where both quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed concurrently, and the “mix” of both methodologies occurs at the end of the research process where the findings are discussed together to answer the research questions (Andrew & Halcomb, 2009; Halcomb & Hickman, 2015; Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017; Zhang & Creswell, 2013). In contrast with other sequential mixed methods designs which use one methodology temporally prior to the other, the convergent design is chosen because a) confirming or corroborating findings may strengthen the validity of the findings, b) qualitative results may provide additional explanations and clarifications for the quantitative findings, and c) contradicting findings may facilitate the identification of boundary conditions and future research avenues (Hammarberg et al., 2016; Palinkas et al., 2015; Taguchi, 2018). The overall research design is summarised in Figure 6. In the following sections, the adopted quantitative and qualitative methodologies are explained.

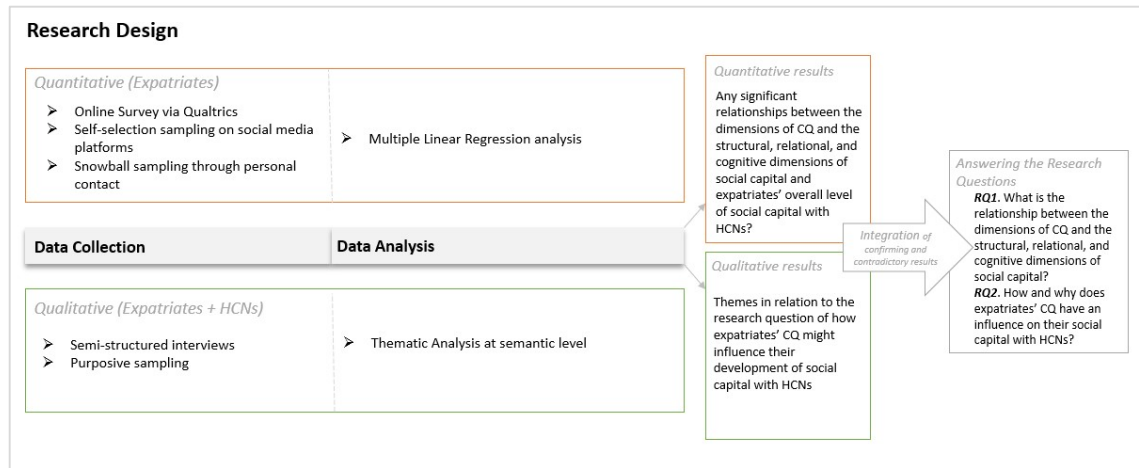


Figure 6: Overview of the research design

5.2.1 Quantitative research methodology (Multiple Linear Regression)

Quantitative data were collected for this thesis by means of a survey, which refers to “the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions” (Check & Schutt, 2012, p. 160). Specifically, a cross-sectional design was used, which means that the data were collected only once from the participants (Levin, 2006; Pandis, 2014; Spector, 2019). Such a design is commonly used in expatriate research because most expatriates are only in the host country temporarily and are busy professionals, which makes it difficult to attain a sizable sample with the same participants over time such as in a longitudinal study (e.g., Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Ang & Tan, 2016; Huff, 2013; Nunes et al., 2017; Spector & Pindek, 2016). Moreover, because this thesis is the first empirical investigation of the effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates’ social capital with HCNs, cross-sectional design is the more efficient way to identify covariation between variables (Rindfleisch et al., 2008; Sedgwick, 2014; Spector, 2019).¹⁹

¹⁹ Covariation means that a change in the respective dimension of CQ (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, or behavioural CQ) would result in a change in the structural, relational, and/or cognitive dimensions of social capital.

More specifically, quantitative data were analysed using Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) analysis, which is a commonly used method for investigating relationships between one dependent variable and multiple independent variables (Schmidt & Finan, 2018; Uyanık & Güler, 2013; Williams, 2019). Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) assumes that the dependent variable (or criterion variable) is a linear function of the independent variables (or predictor variables) plus the residuals (Schroeder et al., 2016; Williams, 2019; Williams et al., 2013).²⁰ In this thesis, the CQ dimensions are the independent variables while the social capital variables are the dependent variables, as shown in Equation (1).

$$SC_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_j CQ_{ik} + \beta_{THo} THo_i + \beta_{age} age_i + \beta_{gender} gender_i + \beta_{intwork} intwork_i + \beta_{lan} lan_i + \beta_{type} type_i \quad (1)$$

where

SC_{ij} = the i^{th} expatriate's social capital on the j^{th} criterion variable (the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions and expatriates' overall level of social capital as the average of the three dimensions)

CQ_{ik} = the i^{th} expatriate's CQ on the k^{th} dimension (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural)

THo_i = the i^{th} expatriate's time spent in the host country

age_i = the i^{th} expatriate's age

$gender_i$ = the i^{th} expatriate's gender

$intwork_i$ = the i^{th} expatriate's previous intercultural work experience

²⁰ Residuals are the observed errors, meaning the difference between the observed values and the values predicted by the regression model (Williams, 2019).

lan_i = the i^{th} expatriate's language proficiency

$type_i$ = the i^{th} expatriate's type of expatriation

To capture the CQ dimensions' impact on expatriate's social capital, 16 regression models (variations of Equation 1) were run where social capital variables (i.e., structural, relational, cognitive, and expatriates' overall level of social capital) were alternated for each CQ dimension (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural). This is because according to prior research, the four dimensions of CQ might be highly interrelated (Gooden et al., 2017; Schlaegel et al., 2021; Van Dyne et al., 2010). High correlations between independent variables (i.e., multicollinearity) may lead to incorrect conclusions about the significance of the observed effects (Tsagris & Pandis, 2021). Therefore, only one CQ dimension is included in each of the regression models.

Additionally, six control variables were included as independent variables in the regression model to rule out alternative explanations for expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs (Spector, 2019). These variables are expatriates' time spent in Malaysia, age, gender, prior intercultural work experience, language proficiency, and type of expatriation (i.e., Self-Initiated or Assigned Expatriates). For example, expatriates with longer stays in Malaysia might have more opportunities to develop their social capital with HCNs. Controlling for such effects in the regression model may hence strengthen the validity of the findings concerning the effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' social capital. The selection and measurement of the six control variables are discussed in more detail in Section 6.1.2.4.

5.2.1.1 Choice of significance level

One output of MLR is the standard regression coefficient β , which identifies the nature (i.e., positive or negative) and strength of the effect of the CQ dimensions on the social capital variables (Nimon & Oswald, 2013; Scheffler, 2015). A statistically significant regression coefficient means that a change in the respective CQ dimension (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, or behavioural CQ) would result in a change in expatriates' social capital (Nimon & Oswald, 2013). Statistical significance is determined

by the predefined significance level (i.e., alpha level), which is the threshold probability of the risk that an observed relationship is falsely accepted as true when there is in fact no relationship (i.e., false positive; Type I error; Gibson, 2021; Lakens et al., 2018). When a regression model has a small probability value (*p*-value) that falls below this predefined significance level, the observed relationships between the dependent and independent variables is considered statistically significant (Gibson, 2021; Saunders et al., 2016). For example, the conventional threshold for declaring statistical significance is at the alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ (Gibson, 2021; Lakens et al., 2018). A *p*-value below .05 hence indicates that the relationship between two variables is statistically significant because the risk of conducting the Type I error is less than 5% (Gibson, 2021; McShane & Gal, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016; Weiss, 2011).

However, reduced risk of Type I error is related to an increased risk of Type II error (i.e., false negative; the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between the variables is not rejected although there is a relationship between the variables; Gibson, 2021; Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, prior research suggests that the alpha level should be considered “a first line of defense [sic] against being fooled by randomness” rather than “a fixed level of significance ‘in all circumstances’” (Benjamini, 2016; Fisher, 1956; Gibson, 2021; McShane & Gal, 2017). In this thesis, the significance level was chosen by thoroughly considering the practical consequences of committing either the Type I or the Type II error (Fisher, 1956; Gibson, 2021). Specifically, this thesis aims to provide practitioners with recommendations to identify promising candidates for future expatriation and design more effective training programs to increase expatriates’ social capital with HCNs, which in turn benefits their adjustment and performance (Horak & Yang, 2016; Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014). Hence, while Type I error might result in including more CQ dimensions in the decision-making than necessary, false negatives (i.e., Type II error) would have more damaging consequences. This is because important aspects of CQ might be overlooked, leading to poor business decisions in the selection, preparation, and training of expatriates. Therefore, to reduce the risk of Type II error, the statistical significance level concerning the effect of the CQ dimensions on social capital is set at $\alpha = .10$.²¹ This means that the effect of the CQ dimensions on the

²¹ All other reported statistical significance (e.g., for descriptive statistics or control variables) follows the conventional alpha level at $\alpha = .05$.

social capital variables (i.e., the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions and overall level of social capital) is considered significant when the risk of a false positive (i.e., Type I error) is less than 10%. Moreover, the robustness of the regression results is controlled by comparing the quantitative and qualitative findings of this thesis. Thus, confirming and complementary findings would strengthen the validity of the regression results (Hammarberg et al., 2016; Palinkas et al., 2015; Taguchi, 2018).

5.2.2 Qualitative research methodology (Thematic Analysis)

Compared to other qualitative research methodologies such as narrative research, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study, phenomenology is more appropriate for the purpose of this thesis because it facilitates the understanding of a phenomenon based on participants' experiences (Chamberlain, 2009; Turhan, 2019). Specifically, narrative research focuses on understanding people's lives by exploring their stories (Armour & Chen, 2012; Leavy & Simons, 2014). Grounded theory aims at developing theories, which does not comply with the focus of this thesis on providing practical solutions (Saunders et al., 2016; Turhan, 2019).²² Ethnography is used to provide a comprehensive written account of a certain cultural group (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Reeves et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2016). Finally, case study focuses on the special context of a particular case, which may be a person, group, event, or any specific unit of analysis (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Noor, 2008). However, the aim of this thesis is to understand the effect of the CQ dimensions on social capital by drawing on expatriates' and HCNs' perceptions and experiences. Hence, in this thesis, a phenomenological approach is used to explore how and why expatriates' CQ may influence their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia (RQ2). More specifically, descriptive phenomenology is applied which draws on the description of participants' perceptions and experiences to understand the research phenomenon rather than the researcher engaging in deeper interpretations of how participants make sense of their experiences (i.e., interpretive phenomenology; Boadu,

²² Grounded theory is an inductive approach which involves the development of theory based on empirical observations (i.e., moving from specific observations to general theory; Saunders et al., 2016).

2021; Braun & Clarke, 2021; Sundler et al., 2019). This approach also complies with the objectivist ontology underlying this thesis, which focuses on understanding the research phenomenon (i.e., the effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' development of social capital) rather than uncovering how expatriates and HCNs construct their social reality.

To this end, qualitative data were collected by means of research interview, which presents a purposeful conversation between the researcher and the participant (Saunders et al., 2016). Data were then analysed using Thematic Analysis, which is a common qualitative analytic approach for identifying patterns of meanings (i.e., themes) across a set of textual data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Castleberry & Nolen, 2018; McAllum et al., 2019; Neuendorf, 2019). Common patterns across participants' elaborations on their experiences and perceptions facilitate the understanding of how CQ may influence expatriates' real-life interactions with HCNs. Thus, Thematic Analysis is more appropriate compared to other qualitative analytic approaches such as Discourse Analysis, Narrative Analysis, and Content Analysis. This is because Discourse Analysis mostly applies to the analysis of language use and discourse (Braun & Clarke, 2006), while Narrative Analysis focuses on collecting stories to gain a better understanding of people's lives (Leavy & Simons, 2014; Turhan, 2019). Finally, Content Analysis is often used to identify recurrent statements and keywords which are then analysed with quantitative methods (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Neuendorf, 2019; Saunders et al., 2016).

Moreover, Thematic Analysis aims to discover commonalities (i.e., recurrent themes) across participants to understand the research phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Castleberry & Nolen, 2018; McAllum et al., 2019; Neuendorf, 2019). Hence, Thematic Analysis also concurs with the pragmatist philosophical position of this thesis, which acknowledges the presence of an external reality (i.e., the relationship between the dimensions of CQ and social capital) as well as people's individual interpretations of it in the phenomenal world ("things for us"; for discussion of research philosophy, see Section 5.1). Therefore, this thesis uses Thematic Analysis to explore how and why the CQ dimensions may influence expatriates' development of social capital with their host national colleagues in Malaysia (RQ2).

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the adopted research philosophy and the methodology of this thesis. Specifically, following a pragmatist philosophical stance, this thesis aims to provide useful recommendations for practitioners to improve expatriates' social capital with HCNs. To this end, a mixed methods approach including both quantitative Multiple Linear Regression and qualitative Thematic Analysis is used to answer the research questions, namely: RQ1) what is the relationship between metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ and expatriates' social capital; and RQ2) how and why CQ may influence expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. Multiple Linear Regression and Thematic Analysis as the chosen quantitative and qualitative methodologies, respectively, have been explained and justified.

The next chapter provides details concerning the data collection method, sample size considerations, sampling strategies, sample characteristics, and data collection processes for quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter 6: Data

This chapter presents details of the quantitative and qualitative data of this thesis. It begins by explaining the quantitative data collection method (survey) and the adopted measures. After this, details concerning the quantitative sample such as sample size considerations, adopted sampling methods, and sample characteristics are provided. This is followed by a section explaining the pretest of the survey and the quantitative data collection process for the main study. The chapter continues by explaining the qualitative data collection method (research interview) and the interview design. This is followed by a section outlining details concerning the qualitative sample including the applied sampling strategies and sample characteristics. After this, the pilot test of the interview questions and the qualitative data collection process are explained. The chapter concludes by discussing the ethical considerations during the data collection phase.

6.1 Quantitative data

The researcher used an online survey to collect quantitative data. This means that a website was used to collect data from participants through their responses to a set of predetermined questions (Check & Schutt, 2012; Lefever et al., 2007). Specifically, a self-administered survey questionnaire was used, which refers to the collection of data without the physical presence of the researcher or an interviewer (Dillman et al., 2014). This allowed a large and diverse sample to be included in the survey cost effectively (Braekman et al., 2020; Saunders et al., 2016), which was essential for the feasibility of this thesis given the time and financial constraints. For the same reason, an online survey was used for data collection, which is advantageous because such surveys facilitate broader access to difficult-to-reach populations and people in different geographical regions (Buhrmester et al., 2018; Gelinas et al., 2017; Regmi et al., 2016). Expatriates in Malaysia are difficult to reach because they are a minority in the country and geographically dispersed (Harzing et al., 2013; Shaghaghi et al., 2011). Hence, the use of

an online survey allowed this thesis to most efficiently include participants from different industries and regions in Malaysia.

6.1.1 Survey design

The online survey was created and distributed using the online survey tool Qualtrics, which is an online survey software commonly used to collect, record, and export data to statistical analysis software such as IBM SPSS 24 (Kelahan et al., 2020). The online survey includes an introduction page which informed the participants about the purpose of the research, their rights (i.e., voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality of collected information, etc.), the length of the survey, and the risks and benefits associated with their participation (Moreno et al., 2013; Regmi et al., 2016). Participants were required to actively select the option “I agree to participate on this survey” to submit informed consent and click on the button “Go to the questions” to be forwarded to the survey questions (for the survey questionnaire, see Appendix G). Informed consent means that participants decide freely whether they want to participate in the research project after being provided with “adequate information on what is being done to them, the limits to their participation, as well as any potential risk they may incur by taking part in research” (Sin, 2005, p. 279). This step was undertaken to follow the key principles of ethical research (Sheffield Hallam University, 2020; for discussion of informed consent and further ethical considerations, see Section 6.3).

The survey questions begin with a demographic part which asks questions about participants’ gender, age, type of expatriation (i.e., Self-Initiated or Assigned Expatriate), previous intercultural experience, time spent in Malaysia, and English language proficiency. These variables were controlled for in this thesis because they might have a confounding effect on expatriates’ social capital with HCNs, which would bias the results of this thesis (for discussion of control variables, see Section 6.1.2.4). Data were also collected on participants’ job position, education, nationality, and employment sector to describe the sample characteristics (for discussion of sample characteristics, see Section 6.1.3.2). The main part of the survey contains 20 items from the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) and 17 items measuring expatriates’ structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital (measures of CQ and social capital are explained in detail in Section 6.1.2). The final part includes questions which identify the recruitment mode (i.e.,

snowball sampling or self-selected participants in expatriate online groups of social media platforms such as Facebook, InterNations, or LinkedIn). Recruitment mode was controlled for to reduce the risk of participation bias due to the sampling method (for discussion of the sampling method and check for participation bias, see Section 6.1.3.1). Finally, the survey includes a control question which detects multiple responses that were excluded from subsequent analyses because malicious multiple responses may negatively influence the validity of the findings (Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003; Moreh, 2019; for more details, see the discussion of the data collection process in Section 6.1.4.2).

6.1.2 Adopted survey measures

Measures, also called indicators or scale items, present observed scores gathered through a self-report survey, for example (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; Freeze & Raschke, 2007). Measures are quantifiable and normally fall into one of four categories (Freeze & Raschke, 2007; Stevens, 1946): 1) nominal scales, which use numbers to label or categorise objects (e.g., 0 = male; 1 = female); 2) ordinal scales, which use numbers to identify a rank order;²³ 3) interval scales, which identify a rank order with a defined relative distance between the points on a scale; and 4) ratio scales, which have an additional absolute zero point compared to interval scales.²⁴

This thesis mainly used Likert scales to measure and construct the variables of metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ and the cognitive and relational dimensions of social capital. Likert scales include several interrelated Likert-type items which measure participants' agreement or disagreement with a certain item on a scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Derrick & White, 2017; Desselle, 2005; Sullivan & Artino, 2013; Willits et al., 2016). Some researchers argue that Likert scales containing ordinal Likert-type items should not be analysed with parametric tests such as Multiple Linear Regression analysis (e.g., Altman & Bland, 2009;

²³ For example, on a five-point Likert-type item ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5), "strongly agree" (5) expresses more agreement than "agree" (4). However, the magnitude of how much more agreement is not determinable.

²⁴ For example, the 0 point on a thermometer (i.e., interval scale) does not indicate that there is no temperature at all. However, ratio scales such as years of experience or height do have a true 0 point (Boone & Boone, 2012; Stevens, 1946).

Chavan & Kulkarni, 2017) because on average, a person agreeing with one statement and disagreeing with the other does not have a “neutral” (neither agreeing nor disagreeing) opinion (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Hence, calculating the mean, which is a central parameter in parametric tests, is often meaningless with ordinal scales (Jamieson, 2004). However, Likert scales are not analysed at the item level but rather at the aggregated level of the overall scale (Derrick & White, 2017; Harpe, 2015). As Stevens (1946) suggests, the type of scale is determined by “the empirical operations invoked in the process of ‘measuring’” (p. 677). Therefore, by either summing up or averaging the scores of several interrelated Likert-type items, Likert scales may well achieve interval scalar properties, which allows parametric tests, such as Multiple Linear Regression analysis, to have meaningful results (Derrick & White, 2017; Harpe, 2015; Leung, 2011; Subedi, 2016; Wigley III, 2013; Willits et al., 2016).

6.1.2.1 Measures of Cultural Intelligence

This thesis used the most widely applied Cultural Intelligence Scale by Ang et al. (2007) to measure expatriates’ metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ (Morin & Talbot, 2021). Its reliability and validity have been repeatedly reported in previous studies (e.g., Al-Dossary, 2016; Chen et al., 2011; Gozzoli & Gazzaroli, 2018; Shannon & Begley, 2008; Van Dyne et al., 2010).²⁵ Specifically, the Cultural Intelligence Scale includes 20 items, with four items measuring metacognitive CQ (e.g., “I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds”), six items for cognitive CQ (e.g., “I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviours in other cultures”), five items for motivational CQ (e.g., “I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures”), and five items measuring behavioural CQ (e.g., “I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations”). All items were evaluated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree, which is a common practice in prior research using the Cultural

²⁵ Reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument measures the attributes of a construct consistently. Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures the attributes of a construct accurately (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2014).

Intelligence Scale (Chen et al., 2011; Erez et al., 2013; Li, 2020; Ramalu & Subramaniam, 2019; Rose et al., 2010).

As in prior research, the average score of the interrelated items measuring each CQ dimension was calculated to reflect expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ (see also Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Chen et al., 2011; Erez et al., 2013; Gozzoli & Gazzaroli, 2018; Li, 2020; Ramalu & Subramaniam, 2019). The complete list of all items measuring the CQ dimensions is included in Table 1.

Table 1: Adopted measures of Cultural Intelligence

Dimension of CQ	Items adopted from the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang et al., 2007)
Metacognitive CQ	<p>"I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds."</p> <p>"I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me."</p> <p>"I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions."</p> <p>"I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures."</p>
Cognitive CQ	<p>"I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures."</p> <p>"I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages."</p> <p>"I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures."</p> <p>"I know the marriage systems of other cultures."</p> <p>"I know the arts and crafts of other cultures."</p> <p>"I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures."</p>

Motivational CQ	<p>“I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.”</p> <p>“I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.”</p> <p>“I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.”</p> <p>“I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.”</p> <p>“I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.”</p>
Behavioural CQ	<p>“I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.”</p> <p>“I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.”</p> <p>“I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.”</p> <p>“I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.”</p> <p>“I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.”</p>

6.1.2.2 Measures of Social Capital

Social capital is a multidimensional construct which has been variously interpreted and operationalised in past studies (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009; Claridge, 2018a; Engbers et al., 2017; Grootaert & Van Bastelar, 2002; Lu et al., 2013). For example, Horn et al. (2014) have conceptualised the cognitive dimension of social capital as shared goals and measured it as the degree of participative goal setting. However, Chow and Chan (2008) and García-Villaverde et al. (2018) have measured shared goals as people’s agreement with and enthusiasm in pursuing the organisation’s goals. Furthermore, Ortiz et al. (2018) define shared goals as common project interests between organisations. Therefore, following the recommendations of Claridge (2018a), Deatrick and Hardie (2012), and Robinson (2016), this thesis has chosen the measures following prior research based on

their suitability and comprehensibility for the expatriate population and according to the conceptualisation of social capital in this thesis.

Specifically, a self-administered survey questionnaire was used to collect data on the measures of the social capital dimensions (i.e., structural, relational, cognitive). As in previous studies (e.g., Akhavan & Mahdi Hosseini, 2016; Chow & Chan, 2008; Chua et al., 2012; Scheffler, 2015), all responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree), except for the structural dimension of social capital. In this thesis, the structural dimension of social capital is conceptualised as network density, degree centrality, and contact frequency (for discussion of the adopted conceptualisation of social capital, see Section 4.2). In line with prior research, the name generator method was used to determine expatriates' network density. In this method, respondents are asked to list up to five contacts at work who have provided support in the last six months (see also Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Liu & Yeo, 2022; Oh et al., 2004; Wang & Kanungo, 2004). Respondents are then asked to identify the nationality of these contacts. Network density is then calculated as the number of HCN contacts divided by the number of all named contacts (Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Wang & Kanungo, 2004). Higher network density indicates stronger structural connection between expatriates and HCNs. Because the measure of network density already considers expatriates' number of direct ties to HCNs, degree centrality (i.e., the number of direct ties to HCNs discussed in Section 4.2.1) is redundant and hence not measured separately.

Prior research also suggests that frequent contact with HCNs may offer more opportunities for expatriates to attain HCN support which facilitates their adjustment and well-being (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Kubovcikova & van Bakel, 2021; Wang & Kanungo, 2004). Hence, the researcher measured expatriates' contact frequency with HCNs using a five-point Likert-type item (1 = very seldom to 5 = very often). Because network density and contact frequency are measured with different scales, the network density scores were converted using the percent of maximum possible (POMP) score method to facilitate more straightforward interpretation of the scores (Cohen et al., 1999; Fischer & Milfont, 2010).²⁶ Finally, to construct the variable of the structural dimension

²⁶ Following the POMP score method, the new score is calculated by dividing the difference between the minimum possible score (0) and the raw score by the range of the original scale and multiplying this by the upper limit of the new scale (Cohen et al., 1999; Fischer & Milfont, 2010). For example, the original scale

of social capital, the average of the (converted) scores measuring network density and contact frequency was calculated because both are structural aspects which offer expatriates the opportunity to access HCNs' resources (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Johnson et al., 2003; Van Bakel et al., 2017). Moreover, the structural dimension of social capital in this thesis is a formative measure because the latent construct (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital) is fully derived from its indicators (i.e., network density and contact frequency; Freeze & Raschke, 2007).

In contrast, the relational dimension of social capital conceptualised as trust and commitment is a reflective measure because the latent variable (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital) is reflected by several interrelated items (Freeze & Raschke, 2007; Hanafiah, 2020). Specifically, trust is measured by four items adapted from Horn et al. (2014) and Liu and Shaffer (2005) with sample items such as "When making decisions, my local colleagues consider my business interest, too" (for the complete list of items, see Table 2). Commitment is measured in terms of affective commitment, which arises from emotional attachment to social relationships (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Hashim & Tan, 2015). In particular, two items were adapted from Kumar et al. (1995) to measure commitment: 1) "I would not drop my networking with my local colleagues because I enjoy being connected with them", and 2) "I am happy to continue working with my local colleagues for the rest of my assignment". As in previous studies, the average of participants' scores on the six items measuring trust and commitment was calculated to represent the variable of the relational dimension of social capital (see also Horn et al., 2014; Scheffler, 2015).

The cognitive dimension of social capital is conceptualised in this thesis as expatriates' shared language and narratives and shared goals with HCNs (for more details of the adopted conceptualisation, see Section 4.2.3). It is also a reflective measure because the latent variable (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital) is represented by several interrelated items measuring the aspects of shared language and narratives and shared goals (Hanafiah, 2020). Specifically, five items were adopted from the scales of Chang and Chuang (2011) and Chow and Chan (2008), which include sample items such as "My

of network density has a possible range from 0 (i.e., no direct tie to HCNs at all) to 1 (i.e., all named contacts present HCN ties). A raw score of 1 on the original scale would result in a new score of 5 on the converted scale: $(1 - 0) / 1 * 5 = 5$.

local colleagues and I use an understandable way of communication during discussion” (i.e., shared language and narratives), and “My local colleagues and I have a common understanding about what is important at work” (i.e., shared goals; for the complete list of items, see Table 2). Moreover, because narratives also involve storytelling and the use of metaphors and proverbs to illustrate one’s experience and ideas (Lee et al., 2019; Orr, 1990; Richardson et al., 2017), shared narratives with HCNs also mean that expatriates can understand HCNs’ implicit messages beyond their surface meaning. This requires not only language proficiency but also a certain capability to correctly interpret the context (Ratnasari, 2018; Weng et al., 2021). Because the adopted measures do not cover this aspect, this thesis has introduced a new item: “I can interpret the deeper meanings of my local colleagues’ words correctly”. Furthermore, as elaborated in Section 4.2.3, this thesis considers shared goals a key aspect of the cognitive dimension of social capital because it reflects HCNs’ ability to provide expatriates resources that are useful for their goal achievement (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Weerakoon et al., 2019). However, the adopted measures of shared goals following the previous literature only address expatriates’ and HCNs’ shared understanding of work-related goals and their engagement in goal-directed actions (see Table 2). This thesis argues that although HCNs and expatriates might be willing to take joint actions to achieve organisational goals, they still might not be willing to help each other, especially when such extra support goes beyond the formal job description. Therefore, this thesis has included another new item to capture this aspect of shared goals in a high-quality work relationship, namely, “My local colleagues provide useful resources for me to achieve my goals at work”. Finally, the average of the items measuring shared language and narratives and shared goals was calculated to represent expatriates’ cognitive dimension of social capital (see also Chang & Chuang, 2011; Chow & Chan, 2008; Scheffler, 2015).

As elaborated in Section 4.2.4, this thesis considers the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as different vectors of a three-dimensional room which only together render expatriates’ probability of receiving useful resources from HCNs. This is because each individual dimension cannot cover the different aspects of a high-quality work relationship. For example, although friends at work normally enjoy a high level of trust and commitment (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital), they are not necessarily effective work partners (Morrison & Nolan, 2007; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Thus, expatriates’ overall level of social capital is calculated to represent

expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs by averaging participants' scores on the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions. Table 2 presents a complete list of the measures used to construct the social capital variables.

Table 2: List of adapted measures for social capital dimensions

Dimension of social capital		Adapted measurement/items	Source
Structural dimension	<i>Network density</i>	Name generator	Liu and Shaffer (2005)
	<i>Contact frequency</i>	"How often do you have contact with [named contact]?"	Johnson et al. (2003)
Relational dimension	<i>Trust</i>	"When making decisions, my local colleagues consider my business interest, too."	Horn et al. (2014)
		"My local colleagues are sincere and honest with me."	
		"I believe the information my local colleagues provide."	
		"I can trust that my local colleagues will lend me a hand if I need it."	
	<i>Commitment</i>	"I would not drop my networking with my local colleagues because I enjoy being connected with them."	Kumar et al. (1995)
		"I am happy to continue working with my local colleagues for the rest of my assignment."	

Cognitive dimension	<i>Shared language and narratives</i>	“My local colleagues and I use an understandable way of communication during discussion.”	Chang and Chuang (2011)
		“My local colleagues and I use common terms and jargons in daily business interactions.”	
		“I can interpret the deeper meanings of my local colleagues’ words correctly.”	New
	<i>Shared goals</i>	“My local colleagues and I have a common understanding about what is important at work.”	Chow and Chan (2008)
		“My local colleagues and I are highly motivated about pursuing our goals at work.”	
		“My local colleagues and I frequently take actions in line with our goals at work.”	
		“My local colleagues provide useful resources for me to achieve my goals at work.”	New

6.1.2.3 Reliability and validity of the Cultural Intelligence and social capital measurements

The reliability or internal consistency of a scale identifies to what extent the items of a scale measure the latent construct in a consistent way (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2014; Tavakol et al., 2008). Convergent validity is achieved when the items measuring an underlying construct also capture the same construct (Carlson & Herdman, 2012). Discriminant validity means that the constructs in a model, such as the independent and dependent variables in a regression model, are sufficiently distinct from each other for the analysis to have meaningful results (Hubley, 2014; Voorhees et al., 2016). For example, the cognitive dimension of CQ should be distinct from the cognitive dimension of social capital so that an observed relationship between the two is meaningful, and not just because the same constructs are included in the model twice.

Prior research suggests that the reliability and validity of reflective and formative measures are established differently (Khan et al., 2016; Roberts & Thatcher, 2009; Roy et al., 2012). For instance, internal consistency is only expected for reflective measurements because formative measures do not require the scale items or indicators to be interrelated (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Johnson et al., 2003; Roberts & Thatcher, 2009; Roy et al., 2012). In this thesis, the CQ dimensions and the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital are reflective measures because they are measured by several interrelated items which reflect their respective underlying construct (Khan et al., 2016; Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). The structural dimension and expatriates' overall social capital are formative measures because they are derived by their respective indicators, which do not have to be interrelated (Freeze & Raschke, 2007; Khan et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2012). As for the structural dimension of social capital, expatriates may have many ties to HCNs (i.e., network density) but do not have frequent contact with them (i.e., contact frequency). Likewise, the presence of structural connections (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital) does not always result in a trustful relationship (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital). Hence, the structural dimension of social capital and expatriates' overall social capital constitute formative measures in this thesis.

6.1.2.3.1 Reliability and validity of reflective measures

For reflective measures, internal consistency occurs when the items reflecting the same latent variable are sufficiently interrelated (Khan et al., 2016; Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). The most common approach for assessing internal consistency is using Cronbach's alpha, which is a statistic between 0 and 1 (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011; Sullivan & Artino, 2013; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). A value of .70 or above suggests an acceptable level of internal consistency because the items measuring the same latent variable are sufficiently interrelated (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In this thesis, the Cronbach's alpha of the reflective measures, namely the four CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural) and the cognitive and relational dimensions of social capital all surpassed the threshold value of .70 (see Table 3). Thus, the reliability of these measures is considered acceptable (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Convergent validity identifies to what extent the items measuring an underlying construct also accurately capture the same construct (Carlson & Herdman, 2012). For reflective measures, convergent validity is accepted when the items measuring the same construct demonstrate sufficient factor loading ($> .50$; Ahmad et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2010; Vaske et al., 2017).²⁷ Furthermore, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values should be greater than .50 (Ahmad et al., 2016; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).²⁸ This means that on average, more than half of the variance in the items is explained by their respective underlying construct (Ahmad et al., 2016; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). In general, all reflective measurements in this thesis surpassed the threshold value of .50 for factor loadings and AVE (Hair et al., 2010), except for the measures of cognitive CQ and motivational CQ (AVE = .460 and .478, respectively; for results of factor loading and AVE, see Appendix F). Because the values are only slightly below the threshold of .50, these measures were not modified (see also Cheung & Wang, 2017; Lam, 2012) since modifications to the standardised Cultural Intelligence Scale would diminish the comparability of this thesis to prior studies using the Cultural Intelligence Scale (e.g., Al-

²⁷ Factor loading refers to the strength of the relationship between the measures and their underlying factor (DeCoster, 1998).

²⁸ $AVE = \frac{\sum \lambda^2}{N}$, λ = factor loading of the item on the scale, N = number of items.

Dossary, 2016; Chen et al., 2011; Gozzoli & Gazzaroli, 2018; Shannon & Begley, 2008; Van Dyne et al., 2010).

Discriminant validity of reflective measures occurs when the square root of the AVE of a particular construct is higher than its correlations to other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This means that the construct explains more variance in itself than in other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hubley, 2014; Scheffler, 2015). In this thesis, the square roots of the AVE scores for the CQ dimensions and the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital are all greater than their cross-correlations to other constructs (see Table 3). This means that the constructs in this thesis have acceptable discriminant validity for the regression analysis to have meaningful results.

Table 3: Internal consistency, convergent validity, and intercorrelations of reflective measures

Variables	AVE	Cronb. α	1	2	3	4	5	6
MetaCog	.736	.872	.858					
CogCQ	.460	.729	.520	.678				
MotiCQ	.478	.714	.426	.450	.691			
BehaCQ	.601	.827	.535	.383	.421	.775		
Rel_SC_log	.610	.869	.148	.177	.364	.227	.781	
Cog_SC_log	.578	.877	.204	.174	.333	.179	.736	.760

Note: AVE = average variance extracted; Cronb. α = Cronbach's alpha; MetaCog = metacognitive CQ; CogCQ = cognitive CQ; MotiCQ = motivational CQ; BehaCQ = behavioural CQ; Rel_SC_log = relational dimension of social capital (log transformed); Cog_SC_log = cognitive dimension of social capital (log transformed); reflection reversed; square roots of AVE on the diagonal in bold; correlations to other constructs shown in columns 1 to 6.

6.1.2.3.2 Reliability and validity of formative measures

Formative measures are derived or caused by their indicators, which do not have to be interrelated (Freeze & Raschke, 2007; Khan et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2012). For formative measures, convergent validity occurs when the indicators significantly predict their respective underlying construct in a regression model, for example (Khan et al., 2016; Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). In this thesis, the structural dimension of social capital is significantly predicted by network density ($\beta = .876; p = .000$) and contact frequency ($\beta = .443; p = .000$). Expatriates' overall level of social capital is significantly predicted by the structural ($\beta = .505; p = .000$), relational ($\beta = .397; p = .000$), and cognitive dimensions of social capital ($\beta = .356; p = .000$). Because the indicators of the respective latent construct are simultaneously entered into the regression model, multicollinearity (i.e., high correlations between the indicators) might bias the results of the regression analysis (Jeong & Jung, 2016). Hence, to control for multicollinearity, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is calculated for the respective regression model.²⁹ VIF greater than 3 suggests the presence of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2019; Midi & Bagheri, 2010). Because all VIF values range from 1.00 to 2.536, multicollinearity is not likely to be a problem. Therefore, all formative measures in this thesis have shown acceptable convergent validity because they are significantly predicted by their respective indicators (Chin, 1998; Thien et al., 2014).

Discriminant validity of formative measures occurs when the indicator variables correlate more strongly with their respective latent construct than with other constructs (Klein & Rai, 2009). For example, network density and contact frequency as the indicators of the structural dimension of social capital should have significant and stronger correlations with this construct than with the cognitive or relational dimension of social capital. Indeed, correlation analysis shows that network density and contact frequency have stronger correlations with the structural dimension of social capital ($r = .874$ for network density and $r = .440$ for contact frequency; $p < .01$) than with the relational (network density: $r = .128; p > .05$; contact frequency: $r = .300; p < .01$) and cognitive dimensions of social capital (network density: $r = .154; p > .05$; contact frequency: $r = .254; p < .05$). As for

²⁹ $VIF_i = \frac{1}{1-R_i^2}$, where R_i^2 denotes the amount of variance in the remaining predictor variables explained by the predictor variable x_i (Daoud, 2017).

expatriates' overall level of social capital, the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital have stronger correlations with expatriates' overall social capital ($r = .736, .816, .837$ respectively; $p < .01$) than with the aggregate measure of CQ, for example ($r = .213, .362, .362$, respectively; $p < .01$).³⁰ These findings suggest that the indicators of the formative measures in this thesis (i.e., the structural dimension and expatriates' overall level of social capital) significantly and more strongly correlate with their respective underlying construct than with other constructs in the analysis. Thus, the discriminant validity of these measures is considered acceptable for the regression analysis to have meaningful results (Khan et al., 2016; Thien et al., 2014).

6.1.2.4 Control variables

In this thesis, six factors which might have a confounding effect on the social capital variables were controlled for in the regression analysis to avoid flawed conclusions (Nielsen & Raswant, 2018; Scheffler, 2015). First, longer stays in the host country might provide expatriates with more opportunities to socialise with HCNs (Huff et al., 2014; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer, 2001). Hence, expatriates' time spent in the host country (THo) was controlled for in the regression model using four categories: 1) less than 6 months; 2) 6 months to 2 years; 3) More than 2 years, less than 5 years; and 4) more than 5 years (see Table 4, Panel A). Respondents who chose category 1 were automatically excluded from the survey because the process of relationship building requires a lead time for expatriates and HCNs to overcome the initial culture shock and maladjustment (Shen & Jiang, 2015; Wang & Varma, 2018; for more detailed discussion, see Section 1.3).

Second, previous research suggests that age is a positive predictor of cultural empathy, which refers to expatriates' ability to empathise with the feelings and thoughts of HCNs (Bruning et al., 2012; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Van Oudenhoven et al., 2003). Cultural empathy has a positive effect on expatriates' adjustment, which reflects their psychological comfort living and working in the host country (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012).

³⁰ The aggregate measure of CQ is post hoc calculated as the average of the CQ dimension scores and only used to examine the discriminant validity of the formative measures.

Jiang and Wang (2018) also suggest that cultural empathy is positively related to people's cross-cultural communication competence. Hence, older expatriates might have higher cultural empathy, which reduces their anxiety while interacting with HCNs and allows them to communicate more effectively. Therefore, the potential effect of age on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs is controlled for in this thesis with five age categories: 1) below 25, 2) 25 to 34, 3) 35 to 44, 4) 45 to 54, and 5) above 55 (see Table 4, Panel A).

Another control variable included in the regression model is gender because "[g]endered social roles and norms may [...] shape the structure and composition of men's and women's social networks" (Moore & Carpiano, 2019, p. 3; see also Choi, 2019). For example, Gremmen et al. (2013) suggest that only female managers exhibit considerate networking behaviour, while authoritative networking behaviour is only observed among men.³¹ This influences women's network structure because Gremmen et al. note that authoritative networking behaviour often results in connections to higher-status others. Furthermore, Davis et al. (2010) suggest that women more frequently respond to workplace conflict with constructive behaviours such as perspective taking and expressing emotions, whereas men more frequently react with destructive behaviours such as displaying anger and retaliation. Malaysia presents a collectivistic culture where consideration, harmony, and group orientation are highly valued (Hofstede Insight, 2021; House et al., 2004). Hence, HCNs in Malaysia might feel more comfortable interacting with female expatriates, which eventually influences their development of social capital. Therefore, the potential effect of gender on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia was controlled for with a nominal scale (1 = male and 2 = female; see Table 4, Panel A).

According to Halim et al. (2019), previous intercultural work experience is positively related to expatriates' interaction adjustment. This means that expatriates with more intercultural work experience might feel more comfortable interacting with HCNs and

³¹ Networking behaviour refers to people's attempt to establish and maintain social ties with others who might assist in their work or developing their career. Considerate networking behaviour includes, for example, asking if it is convenient for the other to call now or what content the other would prefer to include in a meeting. Authoritative networking behaviour includes highlighting one's experience or expertise to establish and maintain a relationship (Gremmen et al., 2013).

thereby develop a higher level of social capital. Furthermore, Michailova and Ott (2018) and Moon et al. (2013) suggest that prior intercultural experience may have a positive impact on expatriates' CQ because cultural exposure allows them to learn from their cross-cultural interactions. For example, intercultural contacts might promote the exchange of culturally specific knowledge and enhance people's cultural awareness (Bazron et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2017). Therefore, expatriates' previous intercultural work experience might also affect their interactions and development of social capital with HCNs. Thus, previous intercultural work experience (Intwork) is controlled for in the regression analysis with a Likert-type item ranging from "Never" (1) to "Always" (5; see Table 4, Panel B).

Moreover, expatriates' language proficiency has a positive effect on their general and interaction adjustment (Huff, 2013; Wiernik et al., 2018). Language proficiency also promotes expatriates' communication effectiveness (Chen & Lin, 2019; Okpara, 2016; Selmer & Luring, 2015; Van Bakel et al., 2015). Hence, expatriates with higher language proficiency might experience less stress and communication problems while interacting with HCNs, which eventually contributes to their development of social capital. Moreover, language barriers may also reduce people's willingness to have cross-cultural contact and impair their development of shared understanding (Derrington et al., 2018; Tenzer et al., 2021). Hence, the potential impact of expatriates' language proficiency (lan) on their development of social capital with HCNs is controlled for using a Likert-type item with responses ranging from "beginner" (0) to "advanced" (10; see Table 4, Panel B).

Finally, significant differences exist between Assigned Expatriates (AEs) and Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) which might influence their development of social capital with HCNs. For example, SIEs often go abroad for reasons such as personal growth, adventure, travel, life change, and developing career competencies (Richardson & McKenna, 2002). They may also make more purposive decisions about where to relocate (Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021). In contrast, AEs are often sent to a particular country by their home organisations to pursue organisational goals or as part of their career development (Hu & Xia, 2010; Inkson et al., 1997; Peltokorpi, 2008). Accordingly, SIEs often report better interaction adjustment than AEs, which means that they feel more comfortable interacting with HCNs (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Richardson & McKenna,

2002). Hence, the type of expatriation (type) might also impact expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs, which the researcher controlled for with a categorical variable (1 = AE, 2 = SIE; see Table 2, Panel A). All items measuring the control variables are included in the complete survey questionnaire in Appendix G.

Table 4: Descriptive details of control variables in the regression analysis

Panel A	Descriptive details of categorical control variables	
Variables	Categories	(%)
THo	Less than 6 months (excluded from analysis)	-
	6 months–2 years	33
	More than 2 years, less than 5 years	34
	More than 5 years	31
age	Below 25	3
	25–34	33
	35–44	34
	45–54	15
	Above 55	15
gender	Male	65
	Female	35
type	Assigned Expatriate (AE)	51
	Self-initiated Expatriate (SIE)	49

Panel B	Descriptive details of numerical control variables			
Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
intwork	1 – never	5 – always	3.92	1.022
lan	3 – less than intermediate	10 – advanced	8.76	1.62

Note: THo = expatriates' time spent in the host country; intwork = expatriates' previous intercultural work experience; lan = expatriates' English language proficiency. Minimum: the minimum observed score of collected data; maximum: the maximum observed score of collected data.

6.1.3 Quantitative sample

The quantitative sample of this thesis only includes expatriates because prior survey research including both expatriates and their host national colleagues only yielded small sample sizes.³² For example, Hsu (2012) reports a response rate of 10% for their expatriate sample, but the response rate decreased to 2% (i.e., 67 responses from 2,800 invitations) when expatriate–HCN dyads were included.³³ Sonesh and Denisi (2016) reported a similarly small sample size after contacting 300 expatriates but only receiving 65 valid responses from expatriate–HCN dyads. Another issue concerning including expatriates’ host national colleagues in the survey pertains to data privacy. This is because consent must be sought from HCNs before expatriates forward their contact information to the researcher. This extra step might either be ignored in practice or further reduce the sample size. Thus, to avoid the risk of too small sample size, only expatriates were included in the survey in this thesis. This is a common approach in relationship research (e.g., Barnes et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2019; Nyaga & Whipple, 2011; Richardson et al., 2018; Takeuchi, 2010).

Given a fixed number of independent variables, a too-small sample size might lead to reduced statistical power, especially when the independent variables only have a small effect size on the dependent variable (i.e., weak association between the independent and dependent variables; Jenkins & Quintana-Ascencio, 2020; Lakens, 2021; Maxwell, 2000).³⁴ Hence, the required minimal sample size in this thesis was determined using the common rule of thumb which suggests that the sample size for regression models should be 10 times higher than the number of the independent variables but exceed 50 cases (Harrell, 2001; Richardson et al., 2018; Sekaran, 2003; Van Voorhis & Morgan, 2007). This approach is most feasible because sample size calculation based on power analysis, for example, requires a predefined effect size to identify the necessary minimal sample size given a certain significance level and statistical power (Lakens, 2021; Maxwell,

³² Sample size refers to the number of observations collected for the analysis (Lakens, 2021).

³³ Response rate is the total number of valid responses divided by the total number of responses requested (Saunders et al., 2016).

³⁴ Statistical power is given when the null hypothesis is correctly rejected in the sense that a relationship is identified as significant when there is indeed a true relationship. Reduced statistical power hence means increased risk of type II error (Lakens, 2021).

2000). However, due to the exploratory nature of this thesis, no reliable information exists which would justify the choice of the expected effect size. Therefore, drawing on the commonly used rule of thumb and with seven independent variables in the regression model, the minimum sample size for this thesis was determined to be 70 cases.³⁵ This is exceeded by the actual sample size of 100 cases (for sample characteristics, see Section 6.1.3.2).

6.1.3.1 Sampling method for the survey

Expatriates were recruited for the survey using nonprobability sampling methods. In contrast to probability sampling where participants are randomly selected from the population or the sampling frame, nonprobability sampling is used when no sampling frame is available (Sharma, 2017; Taherdoost, 2016).³⁶ According to Abdul Malek and Budhwar (2013), there is no authoritative source in Malaysia which provides an accurate sampling frame including all professional expatriates in the country. To address this, some previous research has created a sampling frame using the membership lists of foreign commercial chambers and associations in Malaysia (e.g., Abdul Malek et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2019; Ramalu et al., 2010). The most frequently cited sources in these studies are the British-Malaysian Chamber of Commerce, the Malaysian-German Chamber of Commerce and Industry, the Malaysian Dutch Business Council, and the Malaysia-Canada Business Council. However, using these sources to create the sampling frame might bias the sample composition a priori since a greater proportion of Western companies and thus Western expatriates (e.g., British, German, Dutch, and Canadian expatriates) might be included in the sampling frame. Furthermore, besides Assigned Expatriates (AEs) who are sent by their home organisations to work in Malaysia, this thesis also focuses on Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) who might be employed in Malaysian organisations. Hence, using the member list of foreign chambers and associations as the sampling frame might bias the sample composition by including a

³⁵ The minimal sample size of this thesis was calculated with seven independent variables in the regression model (i.e., six control variables and one variable for each dimension of CQ).

³⁶ The sampling frame is a complete list of all potential cases in the target population from which the sample is drawn (Saunders et al., 2016).

higher portion of AEs. This contradicts the initial purpose of probability sampling, namely to enhance the generalisability of the findings to the target population by including respondents randomly (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, due to the lack of an accurate sampling frame, nonprobability sampling methods are used in this thesis to recruit the survey respondents.

Specifically, snowball and self-selection sampling methods are used because they are useful for approaching difficult-to-reach populations such as the professional expatriates in Malaysia (Akhal & Liu, 2019; Bacher, 2019; Dusek et al., 2015). Snowball sampling refers to the sampling process where the first participants selected from the target population are asked to recruit further members of the target population to participate in the survey (and so on) so that the sample grows (Etikan et al., 2016a; Saunders et al., 2016; Sharma, 2017). The researcher's personal network provides the first contacts who have received an email invitation to participate in the research project and been asked to forward the invitation to other professional expatriates in Malaysia so that the sample grows (for the email invitation, see Appendix D). However, snowball sampling has limitations concerning the generalisability of the findings because people are likely to forward the survey to similar others (Emerson, 2015; Etikan et al., 2016b; McPherson et al., 2001). This might be because people would rather forward the research invitation to trusted friends and people they like since such people are more likely to respond. According to the Similarity-Attraction Theory, similar people are attracted to each other and become friends because they have similar experiences and common attributes, interests, or values (Byrne, 1961; Laursen, 2017). Hence, snowball sampling might result in a too-homogeneous sample, which reduces the generalisability of the findings to different others (Emerson, 2015; Etikan et al., 2016b). To counterbalance this problem, self-selection sampling via social media platforms was also used in this thesis to recruit expatriate participants for the survey.

Self-selection sampling means that instead of being selected by the researcher, members of the target population decide whether they want to react to the research invitation and become a respondent (i.e., self-select; Khazaal et al., 2014; Kosinski et al., 2015). Advertisements of the research project were placed on social media platforms including Facebook, InterNations, and LinkedIn. Facebook is useful because it is the most frequently used social media network worldwide (Bossetta, 2018; Statista, 2018; 2021).

Compared to other social media platforms (e.g., Twitter), Facebook does not limit the length of text messages and provides an open structure which enables an outlook on the potential sample size (Bossetta, 2018; Herbell & Zauszniewski, 2018). For example, the online expatriate group *KL Expats* has 32,943 members (as of 19.12.2019), and the online expatriate magazine *ExpatGoMalaysia* has 47,087 subscribers (as of 19.12.2019).³⁷ Another social media network used to recruit survey respondents was InterNations, which is an online community specifically for expatriates that offers a virtual space for information exchange with regard to travel, work, and living experiences in Malaysia. Members can be filtered according to their nationalities, employment sectors, age, and gender so that specific criteria can be used for the purposive recruitment of respondents to enhance sample diversity, for example. Finally, LinkedIn was also used to recruit respondents for the survey. LinkedIn is a social media platform which is mostly used by professionals for business networking (Chang et al., 2017; Dusek et al., 2015). Potential respondents were identified based on their work status in Malaysia and contacted on the platform via personal messages.

According to Baumer (2018) and Blank et al. (2017), Facebook is more frequently used by younger and female users, whereas LinkedIn is more popular among people with higher incomes. Similarly, Stokes et al. (2019) suggest that respondents recruited via LinkedIn are more often male and older and have longer work experiences. Hence, the combination of these social media platforms enhanced the diversity of the sample, thus increasing the generalisability of the findings to different expatriate groups. However, self-selection sampling via social media platforms has the downside that it might introduce participation bias because social media users often have significantly different demographic backgrounds compared to nonusers (Blank et al., 2017; Mellon & Prosser, 2017). For example, Mellon and Prosser (2017) suggest that compared to nonusers, social media users are younger and better educated. Baumer (2018) also suggests that Facebook users are often younger, have a higher income, and are more often female than nonusers. Participation bias due to the sampling method might cause limited generalisability of the findings to the wider population (Bethlehem, 2010; Blank et al., 2017; Mellon & Prosser, 2017). To reduce this risk, the mode of participant recruitment was controlled for in this

³⁷ It is necessary to note that these numbers contain HCNs who are interested in making international friendships and former expatriates who have already left the country. Therefore, the member lists of these online groups do not present a valid sampling frame.

thesis by including a survey question which asks participants from where they have heard about the research project (see Q52 in the complete survey questionnaire in Appendix G). People who selected the option that they were recruited by emails forwarded by friends or acquaintances were counted in the snowball sample. Others who selected expatriate online groups or identified that they were recruited by advertisement on social media platforms were counted in the social media sample. Their responses to the variables of interest were then compared using the Mann-Whitney U test, which is a nonparametric test often used on ordinal or interval data to detect significant differences between two independent groups (Campbell, 2018; Paris, 2016; Sigalas, 2015). This test was used because the CQ dimensions and social capital variables were measured by Likert scales and have interval scalar properties (for discussion of adopted measures, see Section 6.1.2). Furthermore, nonparametric tests do not require the data to follow a specific distribution (Campbell, 2018; Phillips et al., 2016; for more details concerning the statistical assumptions of the parametric test, see Section 7.1.1). Because the snowball sample of this thesis resulted from the researcher's "offline" personal network, a significant difference between the responses of the snowball and social media samples in the criterion variables would suggest potential participation bias (Campbell, 2018; Paris, 2016; Sigalas, 2015).

In this thesis, although participants from the social media sample showed higher levels of motivational and behavioural CQ, no significant differences were found in any of the social capital variables (see Table 5).³⁸ Hence, it is unlikely that the use of self-selection sampling on social media platforms distorted the validity of the findings. Moreover, the researcher compared the sample composition of this thesis with that of previous studies including expatriates in Malaysia using Pearson's chi square test (Moreh, 2019; Stokes et al., 2019; Witte et al., 2000). This is also a nonparametric test which is, however, more frequently used on nominal data (e.g., gender, sector; Campbell, 2018; Phillips et al., 2016). A nonsignificant result of the chi square test suggests that the sample composition of this thesis is comparable to that of prior studies involving expatriates in Malaysia. In this case, participation bias is unlikely to be a problem which causes limited

³⁸ Because the distribution of the original social capital variables is skewed (see Section 7.1.1), median and interquartile range are reported to give a more accurate representation of the distribution of the data (Saunders et al., 2016).

generalisability of the findings (Moreh, 2019; Stokes et al., 2019; Witte et al., 2000). The results of the chi square test are presented together with the quantitative sample characteristics in Section 6.1.3.2.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics and Mann-Whitney U test of the sampling method

Variable	Sampling method	N	Minimum	Maximum	Median	Interquartile range	Significance (2 tailed)
MetaCog	Personal network	44	2.75	7.00	5.88	5.25–6.43	.103
	Social media	56	2.75	7.00	6.00	5.75–6.75	
CogCQ	Personal network	44	2.50	6.50	4.83	4.50–5.50	.142
	Social media	56	2.67	7.00	5.17	4.66–5.66	
MotiCQ	Personal network	44	4.80	7.00	5.90	5.60–6.40	.003
	Social media	56	4.80	7.00	6.40	5.80–7.00	
BehaCQ	Personal network	44	2.60	6.40	5.20	4.20–5.60	.002
	Social media	56	2.80	7.00	5.80	4.85–6.20	
Str_SC	Personal network	44	2.00	5.00	3.75	3.33–4.45	.527
	Social media	56	2.00	5.00	4.10	3.33–4.50	
Rel_SC	Personal network	44	1.83	5.00	4.00	3.83–4.50	.408
	Social media	56	1.33	5.00	4.33	3.70–4.66	
Cog_SC	Personal network	44	2.29	5.00	4.00	3.61–4.29	.628

	Social media	56	1.86	5.00	3.93	3.57–4.71	
SCaverage	Personal network	44	2.60	5.00	3.90	3.63–4.29	.496
	Social media	56	2.08	5.00	4.00	3.62–4.46	

Note: MetaCog = metacognitive CQ; CogCQ = cognitive CQ; MotiCQ = motivational CQ; BehaCQ = behavioural CQ; Str_SC = structural dimension of social capital; Rel_SC = relational dimension of social capital; Cog_SC = cognitive dimension of social capital; SCaverage = overall level of social capital. N = number of cases; median refers to the ranked data value which lies exactly in the middle between the maximum and the minimum observed data values. Interquartile range refers to the difference between the 25th and 75th percentile, which identifies the dispersion of the middle 50% of the data (Saunders et al., 2016).

6.1.3.2 Quantitative sample descriptive statistics

In total, 100 usable responses were collected for the regression analysis (for details concerning the data collection process, see Section 6.1.4). Similar sample sizes are reported in previous expatriate studies conducted in Malaysia (e.g., Hassan & Diallo, 2013; Richardson et al., 2018). Of the 100 respondents, most are male (65%). Although some previous studies involving expatriates in Malaysia reported a higher percentage of male respondents in their sample (e.g., Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Abdul Malek et al., 2015; Hassan & Diallo, 2013), only Assigned Expatriates (AEs) were included in these studies. In this thesis, nearly half of the respondents were Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs; 49%). According to Tharenou (2013) and Van Bakel et al. (2017), SIEs are more often women. Hence, the higher share of women in this sample might be due to the higher representation of SIEs. Support for this is found in previous studies including both types of expatriates in Malaysia, where a similar distribution of female respondents has been reported (e.g., Ismail et al., 2016; Richardson et al., 2018).

Table 6 shows that most of the respondents in this thesis were below 45 years old. More specifically, 34% were between 35 and 44 years old and 33% between 25 and 34 years old. In previous studies, the majority of expatriate respondents have been below 45 years

old (e.g., Ismail et al., 2016; Richardson et al., 2018).³⁹ A comparably higher percentage of older respondents was included in this thesis (15% respondents above 55 years vs. 11.9% in Richardson et al., 2018, 4.4% in Ismail et al. 2016, and 0% in Hassan & Diallo, 2013). This is notable because online surveys normally yield a larger portion of younger participants (Barratt et al., 2015). A closer examination of the sampling mode reveals that 12 of the 15 responses from older respondents were collected via snowball sampling. Hence, the combination of self-selection and snowball sampling in this thesis has contributed to a more balanced sample.

Table 6: Sample descriptive statistics for age

		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Age	Below 25	3	3	3
	25–34	33	33	36
	35–44	34	34	70
	45–54	15	15	85
	Above 55	15	15	100
	Total	100	100	

As shown in Table 7, most of the survey respondents in this thesis have university degrees (92%) and managerial responsibilities (65%). Furthermore, most of the respondents had stayed in Malaysia for 2 to 5 years at the time of the survey (34%), 33% for 6 months to 2 years, and 31% for more than 5 years. Compared to the sample characteristics reported

³⁹ Comparable studies include both AEs and SIEs in Malaysia and multiple industries and sectors.

by Richardson et al. (2018), no significant differences regarding respondents' job position ($p = .079$) or their tenure in Malaysia ($p = .117$) were found.⁴⁰

In sum, the sample characteristics of this thesis are largely comparable to those reported in prior studies involving both AEs and SIEs and multiple sectors in Malaysia (e.g., Ismail et al., 2016; Richardson et al. 2018). It is hence unlikely that the sampling method has caused participation bias which would limit the generalisability of the findings (Moreh, 2019; Stokes et al., 2019). Moreover, this thesis has achieved high sample diversity by combining snowball and self-selection sampling methods. For instance, the respondents of this thesis come from 36 different countries: 19% are German followed by British (10%), Indian (10%), Australian (6%), American (6%), Dutch (4%), and others (36%; see Table 7). Furthermore, more than nine employment sectors and industries were included, namely manufacturing (29%), education (20%), information technology (12%), energy and utilities (6%), travel and tourism (4%), retail and wholesale (3%), construction (3%), finance and investment (2%), and others (21%; see Table 7). The diversity of the sample may therefore also contribute to the generalisability of the findings to expatriates from different countries and employment sectors (see also Richardson et al., 2018; Scheffler, 2015).

⁴⁰ The study of Richardson et al. (2018) was chosen as the reference because it includes both SIEs and AEs in Malaysia and multiple employment sectors. Furthermore, the same categories were used in Richardson et al. (2018) for measuring respondents' job position and tenure, which allows for a more straightforward comparison. The study of Ismail et al. (2016) is not referenced because it includes different categories measuring respondents' tenure in Malaysia and job positions.

Table 7: Sample descriptive statistics for education, job position, time in host country, nationality, and sector

		Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Education	Bachelor's degree	35	35
	Diploma degree	15	50
	Master's degree	35	85
	Doctoral degree	7	92
	High school diploma	6	98
	Other	2	100
Job position	Staff /employee/ technician	28	28
	Mid-level manager	33	61
	Top-level manager	32	93
	Other	7	100
Time spent in the host country (THo)	6 months–2 years	33	33
	More than 2 years, less than 5 years	34	68
	5 years and above	31	100
Nationality	German	19	19
	British	10	29
	Indian	10	39
	American	6	45
	Australian	6	51
	Dutch	4	55
	Canadian	3	58

	Iraqi	3	61
	Portuguese	3	64
	Other	36	100
Sector	Manufacturing	29	29
	Education	20	49
	Information technology	12	61
	Energy and utilities	6	67
	Travel and tourism	4	71
	Retail and wholesale	3	74
	Construction	3	77
	Finance and investment	2	79
	Other	21	100

6.1.4 Quantitative data collection

The quantitative data collection phase of this study occurred from March to November 2019. Prior to the main study, a pretest was conducted to test the technical applicability of the online survey and identify unclear questions or instructions (Hilton, 2017; Regmi et al., 2016).

6.1.4.1 Pretest of the survey questionnaire

The pretest of the survey questionnaire was conducted in March 2019. A cognitive interview was used because this is the only feasible way to identify potentially

problematic survey questions which might cause confusion and incorrect interpretations (Lenzner et al., 2016; Presser et al., 2004). Because cognitive interviews focus on understanding participants' cognitive processes, participants are asked to share their thoughts while completing the survey (i.e., think out loud; Collins, 2003; Lenzner et al., 2016; Park et al., 2016). Furthermore, longer response times, hesitation, or other nonverbal cues (e.g., frowning) signalling uncertainty are noted, and probing questions are used to check whether participants understand the survey questions as intended (Foddy, 1993; Hilton, 2017; Willis, 2005). Some of the probing questions used are "What are you thinking about this question?", "What does this word mean to you?", and "Can you explain why you needed longer time to answer this question?" (see also Lenzner et al., 2016; Wildy & Clarke, 2009).

Pretesting the survey with members of the target population may offer valuable insights which enhance the comprehensibility of the questions for the final participants (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). This is because people with different expertise in the subject area might have a different perception of the difficulties of the questions (Ackermann & Blair, 2006; Diamantopoulos et al., 1994). Furthermore, participants with more knowledge in the subject area might identify double questions and missing response options more easily (Diamantopoulos et al., 1994).⁴¹ Based on these considerations, the cognitive interviews were conducted with members of the target population, namely professional expatriates in Malaysia (for more details concerning the research scope, see Section 1.3).

Specifically, one cognitive interview was performed with a German expatriate and another with a Japanese expatriate. Although this sample size is very small, including more participants in the pretest might negatively influence the final sample size (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). Furthermore, the cognitive interviews were not used in this thesis to examine the properties of the scales (Ryan et al., 2012; Ziade et al., 2015). The aim of the pretest was to check the technical applicability

⁴¹ Double questions or double-barrelled questions are those which include more than one aspect in the same question (Setia, 2017). This is problematic when participants do not have the same answer for all aspects in the same question. For example, asking about participants' agreement with the statement "I enjoy working with my colleagues, and they know what are our goals at work" may cause ambiguous or missing responses because participants might enjoy working with their colleagues but may not think that they are clear about the goals (or vice versa). Hence, double questions are to be avoided in a good questionnaire design (Setia, 2017).

of the online survey and identify unclear instructions or ambiguous questions (Hilton, 2017; Regmi et al., 2016). Hence, due to concerns about a too-small sample size for the main survey, only two expatriates were included in the pretest. Kim (2011) and Ziade et al. (2015) reported similar sample sizes, where the pretest is also used to identify unclear survey questions and technical issues.

The pretest participants were recruited by means of purposive sampling, which means that they were selected based on certain selection criteria (Saunders et al., 2016). The selection criteria included respondents' language proficiency, gender, cultural background and employment sector because respondents with less English language proficiency might report greater difficulties while completing self-administered surveys in the English language (Goerman et al., 2007). Furthermore, prior research suggests that women might outperform men in reading and language comprehension tasks (Rachmajanti & Musthofiyah, 2017; Reilly et al., 2019). Hence, both genders were included in the pretest of the survey. Moreover, the main survey of this thesis was intended to include expatriates of different nationalities. However, people of different cultural backgrounds may have different interpretations of the questions, and their perception of problematic expressions may vary (Ackermann & Blair, 2006; Barnitz, 1986). Hence, the pretest participants were purposely chosen to include different nationalities (i.e., one Japanese, one German). Finally, expatriates of different employment sectors were included because the researcher is employed in the manufacturing sector. Hence, it is possible that the questionnaire included expressions which are commonly known in the manufacturing sector but could be unclear to respondents from other sectors.⁴² Therefore, expatriates were purposely selected to include different sectors in the pretest (for pretest participants' demographic background, see Table 8).

Although age and education level are generally important aspects that may influence participants' performance in cognitive interviews (Ackermann & Blair, 2006; Park et al., 2016), these factors were not included as selection criteria for the pretest participants in this thesis because previous research suggests that the majority of professional expatriates

⁴² For example, cost breakdown is a commonly used term in purchasing for the detailed cost calculation of piece price. However, a teacher or someone working in another sector such as healthcare might not know the meaning of the term.

in Malaysia are degree holders and below 45 years old (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Chan et al., 2019; Ramalu et al., 2010; Richardson et al., 2018). Furthermore, although the elderly and people with lower educational achievement often report greater difficulties in completing self-administered surveys, most of their reported problems overlap with those identified by younger and more highly educated participants (Park et al., 2016). To avoid unnecessarily burdening the participants, the elderly and participants with lower educational achievement were not included in the pretest.

Table 8: Demographic background of pretest participants (survey)

Criteria	Participant A	Participant B
English language proficiency	Advanced	Beginner
Gender	Male	Female
Education	Diploma	Bachelor's degree
Age	35–44	35–44
Nationality	German	Japanese
Work experience in Malaysia	3 years	6 months
Employment sector	Manufacturing	Education

Note: Participants' age and educational level were not selection criteria. They are only reported to describe participants' demographic background.

The cognitive interviews suffered some technical problems such as a malfunctioning link and missing response options. These problems were eliminated for the main survey. Furthermore, difficult wording and ambiguous questions were identified and rephrased for the final survey questionnaire (see Table 9; the final survey questionnaire is included in Appendix G). Because the questions were modified for the main survey, pretest data

were excluded from the final analysis to ensure the reliability and validity of the findings (Ismail et al., 2018; Peat et al., 2002; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001; Willis, 2016).

Table 9: Change of survey items after the pretest

Initial Questions	After Pretest	Identified problem
<p>How long have you been working in Malaysia until today?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Less than 6 months ○ More than 6 months, less than 2 years ○ More than 2 years, less than 5 years ○ 5 years or above 	<p>How long have you been working in Malaysia until today?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Less than 6 months ○ 6 months–2 years ○ More than 2 years, less than 5 years ○ 5 years or above 	<p>Missing options (exactly 6 months and 2 years were not covered)</p>
<p>Even if I could, I would not drop my network with my colleagues because I enjoy being connected with them.</p>	<p>I would not drop my networking with my local colleagues because I enjoy being connected with them.</p>	<p>Complicated sentence</p>
<p>My local colleagues and I are enthusiastic about pursuing our goals at work.</p>	<p>My local colleagues and I are highly motivated about pursuing our goals at work.</p>	<p>Difficult wording</p>

6.1.4.2 Data collection process for the main survey

The quantitative data collection phase occurred from March to November 2019. During this time, advertisements of the research project were posted regularly on social media platforms to remind potential respondents about the survey. Furthermore, personal messages were sent to potential respondents via the social media platforms to invite their participation. Initially, data was collected without offering an incentive because incentives might raise ethical concerns and bias the sample composition (Grant, 2011;

Singer & Kulka, 2002).⁴³ However, before the researcher introduced the incentive, only 4 responses were recorded after 8 weeks. This might be due to the information overload on social media platforms, which causes potential respondents to become increasingly uninvolved in social media activities (Bright et al., 2015). Furthermore, the visibility of unpaid advertisements on social media platforms is limited to a very short time period because they quickly become obsolete as newer posts appear (Welch, 2019). Therefore, an electronic gift voucher for approximately 18 Pound Sterling (100 Malaysian Ringgit) from selected retail stores was drawn as a lottery prize among respondents upon completion of the survey.

Previous research suggests that a lottery prize draw is a common and popular approach to increase the response rate in online survey research involving social media users (Boas et al., 2020; Göritz, 2006; Moreh, 2019; Singer & Ye, 2013). Compared to prepaid incentives or small values of cash, lottery incentives are the least expensive and increase the response rate most effectively (Bosnjak & Tuten, 2003; Gajic et al., 2012; Oppenheimer et al., 2011; Sammut et al., 2021). Because the incentive used in this study was of little cash value, it is unlikely that the incentive impaired respondents' ability to judge the risk of participation or induced malicious multiple responses which might negatively influence the validity of the findings (Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003; Grady, 2005; Moreh, 2019). However, to control for multiple responses, a question was included in the survey which asks if it is the first time the respondent has completed the survey (see Q53 in the survey questionnaire, Appendix G). All repeated responses were excluded from subsequent analyses.

After the researcher introduced the incentive, 45 responses were returned within 4 weeks, and this number increased to 63 by the end of the data collection phase. However, 7 responses were subsequently deleted because the respondents were either HCNs, not working in Malaysia, or not using English as their main communication language at work. In total, 56 usable responses were collected from social media participants. Participants from the snowball sample were also informed about the incentive, though many of them declined to be included in the lottery. This lends support to Singer and Ye's (2013) idea

⁴³ For example, Singer and Kulka (2002) suggest that monetary incentives might be especially attractive for low-income and minority respondents.

that people participate in research surveys because they want to help, because they have an interest in the topic, or because there is a tangible benefit. In particular, 16 of 23 eligible expatriates from the researcher's personal network completed the survey and recruited further participants, leading to 44 additional usable responses by the end of the data collection phase.

In total, 100 usable responses were collected for the final analysis (see Table 10). Because it is not possible to determine how many expatriates have seen the advertisement of the research project on social media platforms or how many times the survey invitation was forwarded to arrive at the final size of the snowball sample, the exact response rate is unknown (Phillips et al., 2016). However, even in studies with high response rates, nonresponse error might be a problem which leads to biased results (DeCamp & Manierre, 2016; Groves & Peytcheva, 2008; Phillips et al., 2016). Such an error occurs when there is a significant and important difference between people who have responded to the survey and those who have not (Dillman et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2016). As applied in this thesis, one way to reduce this risk is to combine different sampling methods (Paris, 2016). Wave analysis is another well-accepted method to detect nonresponse bias (Aerny-Perreten et al., 2015; Af Wählberg & Poom, 2015; Halbesleben & Whitman, 2013). According to Aerny-Perreten et al. (2015) and Jutel and Menkes (2009), wave analysis is also the only practical solution for detecting nonresponse bias in anonymous surveys where the characteristics of nonrespondents are not clearly identifiable. Specifically, wave analysis considers late respondents as proxies for nonrespondents because of their reluctance to respond and compare their responses with those of the early respondents to see if there are any significant differences (Aerny-Perreten et al., 2015; Phillips et al., 2016). As already discussed earlier in this chapter, the Mann-Whitney U test is a nonparametric test which is often used on ordinal or interval data to detect significant differences between two independent groups (Campbell, 2018; Paris, 2016; Sigalas, 2015). Because the measurement of the CQ dimensions and the social capital variables have interval scalar properties (for adopted measures, see Section 6.1.2), the Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the responses of early respondents (i.e., responses returned without a reminder) and late respondents (i.e., responses returned after the last reminder). No significant differences were found in any of the variables of interest (p -values range from .090 to .861; see Table 11 for the results). This means that nonrespondents (represented by late respondents in this thesis) might have provided

similar answers regarding the variables of interest as respondents of the survey. Hence, nonresponse error is not likely to be a problem in this thesis.

Table 10: Recruitment channels and number of valid responses

Method	Number of valid responses returned
<p>Facebook posts in six expatriate groups (on average, 29,190 members/subscribers by the time of data collection):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ExpatGo - Motivated Expats in Malaysia - KL Expats - Expats living in Malaysia - EXPAT in Kuala Lumpur - Expats World in Kuala Lumpur 	44
<p>InterNations posts in three groups (on average, 1,000 members by the time of data collection) and 30 personal messages sent to potential respondents:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Kuala Lumpur Professional Networking Group - Kuala Lumpur Global Network Group - Town Talk (Forum) 	10
26 personal messages sent via LinkedIn	2
23 emails sent to expatriates from the researcher's personal network	16
Snowball effect	28
Total valid responses	100

Table 11: Results of wave analysis using Mann-Whitney U test

	Tested variable	Significance	Decision
1	Metacognitive CQ (MetaCog)	.090	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
2	Cognitive CQ (CogCQ)	.609	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
3	Motivational CQ (MotiCQ)	.527	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
4	Behavioural CQ (BehaCQ)	.110	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
5	Structural dimension of social capital (Str_SC)	.135	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
6	Relational dimension of social capital (Rel_SC)	.371	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
7	Cognitive dimension of social capital (Cog_SC)	.861	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.
8	Overall social capital (SCaverage)	.278	No significant difference between the early and late respondents.

6.2 Qualitative data

The qualitative data for this thesis were collected by means of semi-structured research interviews, which are purposeful conversations between the researcher and the participant (Saunders et al., 2016). In contrast with unstructured interviews, semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to be more focused on the research question by preparing a set of predefined, open-ended questions (Boyce & Neale, 2006; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Wethington & McDarby, 2015).⁴⁴ Moreover, the researcher may change the order of the questions and pose new questions as the conversation develops, which is not an option in structured interviews (Boyce & Neale, 2006; Qu & Dumay, 2011; Wethington & McDarby, 2015). Therefore, semi-structured interview is considered more useful for the purpose of this thesis because it allows the researcher to give an account of new topics emerging from the conversation without losing the focus on the research questions. Specifically, individual face-to-face interviews were conducted instead of telephone interviews, email interviews, or focus groups.⁴⁵ This is because face-to-face contact promotes the development of a natural conversation, which encourages participants to offer more in-depth accounts of their experiences (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017; Gillham, 2005). Furthermore, individual interviews offer more privacy compared to focus groups, which creates a trustful atmosphere and encourages participants to talk more openly about sensitive topics and disclose their thoughts (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017; Sim & Waterfield, 2019).

6.2.1 Interview design

An interview guide was used to ensure consistency between the interviews (Boyce & Neale, 2006; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; for the interview guide, see Appendix E). The interview guide contains an introduction section which provides general information about the research and the interview process (e.g., the expected length of the interview, the use of an audio recorder) and collects informed consent. This step was necessary to

⁴⁴ Open-ended questions invite participants to elaborate on their answers rather than choose from a set of predefined answers (Husain et al., 2012).

⁴⁵ Focus groups usually include 6 to 12 participants and draw on group dynamics during the interview to stimulate discussion (Guest et al., 2017).

keep in line with the principles of ethical research practice (Sheffield Hallam University, 2020; for discussion of ethical considerations, see Section 6.3). The main part of the interview guide includes nine interview questions, which were developed based on previous qualitative research concerning expatriates' trust and relationship building with HCNs and their cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Ang & Tan, 2016; Guo et al., 2018; Jassawalla et al., 2004; for interview questions, see Interview Guide – Main Part in Appendix E). Prompts were included as bullet points under each interview question to keep track of the topics which needed to be discussed to answer the research questions (Hove & Anda, 2005; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). The final part of the interview guide was used to close the interview session and clarify participants' open questions and concerns (see Interview Guide – Conclusion of Interview in Appendix E).

The interviews began with easy-to-answer questions which refer to participants' general background (e.g., age, ethnicity/nationality) and current job duties. This allowed the participants to warm up for the more difficult questions that required deeper reflections (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; Leech, 2002). Opinion and feeling questions were asked in the middle or at the end of the interviews when a trusting atmosphere had already been established and the participants felt comfortable enough to give honest answers (Hove & Anda, 2005; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). Specifically, the interview continued by asking for participants' perceptions of expatriates' roles in the host organisation and what kinds of support HCNs may offer to facilitate expatriates' actions. These questions were intended to explore participants' expectations of a good work relationship and to prompt the discussion towards how expatriates may gain more support from their host national colleagues. Participants were also asked to discuss the challenges they had experienced and describe a good work relationship. These questions were intended to uncover the potential conflicts and problems in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs and to identify the strategies participants use to solve these problems. Finally, participants were asked about their understanding of Cultural Intelligence and how they think Cultural Intelligence might influence the development of a good work relationship between expatriates and HCNs.

6.2.2 Qualitative sample

Following a phenomenological approach, this thesis seeks to understand the research phenomenon from the perspectives of the involved actors, namely how the CQ dimensions may influence expatriates' social capital with their culturally diverse host national colleagues in Malaysia. Hence, the qualitative sample of this thesis includes both expatriate and host national participants because their different cultural backgrounds and life situations may cause them to have different expectations and interpretations of their social surroundings (Adair et al., 2013; Chua et al., 2012; Horak & Yang, 2016).

Boddy (2016) and Mapp (2008) suggest that small sample sizes are preferable in phenomenological research because they allow for a more in-depth investigation of participants' experiences. Thus, data saturation was used to mark the final sample size (Boddy, 2016; Hammarberg et al., 2016; Mason, 2010). Data saturation refers to the point during data collection when additional interviews no longer offer new insights that are relevant for answering the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fusch & Ness, 2015; Weller et al., 2018). Past research suggests that data saturation normally occurs within 6 to 24 in-depth interviews (Guest et al., 2006; Hennink et al., 2017). Other researchers suggest that phenomenological studies normally require a sample size of 3 to 10 cases for each homogeneous group (Creswell, 2013; Morse, 1994; Turhan, 2019). Expatriates and HCNs are two distinct groups because of their different cultural backgrounds and life situations. Hence, a minimum of 10 interviews for each group were scheduled, resulting in a minimal sample size of 20 cases. In this thesis, data saturation was observed after 20 interviews. However, another three interviews were conducted to reaffirm the presence of data saturation (Boddy, 2016). Because these interviews did not offer new insights which are relevant to the research questions, the final sample size is 23 cases.

6.2.2.1 Qualitative sampling method

In this study, purposive sampling was used to recruit expatriate and HCN participants for the interviews. Purposive sampling refers to the purposeful selection of participants because of their ability to provide insightful information on the research topic (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Therefore, first and foremost, expatriates and HCNs had to

demonstrate sufficient intercultural work experience with each other to be included in the qualitative sample of this thesis. Furthermore, because the interviews were conducted in English, only participants with sufficient English language proficiency were included to ensure that they could elaborate on their experiences and give opinions in the English language. Moreover, maximum variation sampling was used to gain a more complete understanding of the research phenomenon by including a preferably diverse sample (Etikan et al., 2016b; Kim et al., 2017; Palinkas et al., 2015). For instance, expatriates and HCNs were purposefully chosen to include different genders, cultural backgrounds, lengths of intercultural work experience, job positions, and types of expatriates in the sample (i.e., to achieve maximum variation; see also Ang & Tan, 2016; Perera et al., 2018).

Gender is considered a relevant sampling criterion because prior research suggests that female employees develop their social relationships differently compared to male employees (Choi, 2019; Moore & Carpiano, 2019). For example, Davis et al. (2010) suggest that women more often respond to workplace conflict with constructive behaviours such as perspective taking and expressing emotions, whereas men more often react with destructive responses such as displaying anger and retaliation. Gremmen et al. (2013) also suggest that considerate networking behaviour, which involves perspective taking and attending to others' needs, is exclusively used by female managers. In contrast, authoritative networking behaviour, which refers to establishing and maintaining a relationship by highlighting one's expertise, credit, and status, is only used by men (Gremmen et al., 2013). Hence, men and women might use and have different expectations regarding different approaches to develop a high-quality work relationship. Therefore, both men and women were included in the qualitative sample of this thesis.

Cultural background is another relevant sampling criterion because people of different cultural backgrounds may have different behavioural norms and expectations concerning effective work relationships (Chua et al., 2012; Jogulu, 2010; Shaed et al., 2021; Tamam, 2000). For instance, Grandey et al. (2010) suggest that expression of anger towards supervisors is more accepted in low power distance countries (e.g., the UK, the USA) than in high power distance cultures (e.g., China, Malaysia, India; for a definition of Power Distance, see Appendix A). Accordingly, prior research suggests that Malaysian employees normally consider open disputes with supervisors unacceptable and poor

manners, whereas in many individualistic cultures (e.g., Germany, the UK, the USA), such behaviour is perceived positively as a sign of confidence and professionalism (Abu Bakar & Mustaffa, 2011; Jogulu, 2010; Kele et al., 2017). Therefore, the expatriate participants were purposefully selected to include different nationalities. Furthermore, to reflect the cultural diversity of the Malaysian workforce (for more details, see Section 2.2), HCN participants were purposefully chosen to include Malays, Malaysian Chinese, and Malaysian Indians (for more details on participants' background information, see Section 6.2.2.2).

Length of intercultural work experience is another relevant sampling criterion because prior research suggests that people with more extensive intercultural work experience are often more aware of the impact of culture on their work relationships with culturally diverse others (Akhal & Liu, 2019; Ang, 2013). For instance, based on a qualitative study, Ang (2013) suggests that expatriates with longer intercultural work experience more readily identify cultural difference as a primary challenge in their work relationship with HCNs. In contrast, expatriates with less intercultural work experience rather identify HCNs' personality traits as the primary reasons for their deviant behaviours (Ang, 2013). Furthermore, Akhal and Liu (2019) suggest that expatriates' previous intercultural experience is positively related to all four dimensions of CQ. Hence, participants with a different length of prior intercultural work experience were included in the qualitative sample of this thesis because they might have different perceptions of the challenges in intercultural work relationships and how to address them to work effectively with their culturally diverse counterparts.

The researcher also considered different job positions while selecting the participants because the definition of a good work relationship may vary depending on the nature of the relationship. For example, loyalty, mutual contribution (i.e., subordinates showing high engagement to accept responsibility; supervisors offering such opportunities for subordinates to develop and grow), and professional respect might be important aspects in defining a good leader-subordinate relationship (Ferris et al., 2009; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). However, reciprocity (e.g., helping each other, sharing expertise) might be more relevant in the context of a team member relationship (Ferris et al., 2009; Seers, 1989). Thus, depending on the participants' job positions, their experience and expectations of a

high-quality work relationship may vary. Hence, normal staff, middle-level managers, and top-level managers were all included in this thesis' qualitative sample.

Finally, as discussed in Section 1.3, Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) more often report better cross-cultural adjustment than Assigned Expatriates (AEs) do (Inkson et al., 1997; Jannesari & Sullivan, 2021; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). This is possibly because SIEs deliberately decide on the destination of their relocation and hence already know what to expect in the host country (Hu & Xia, 2010; Inkson et al., 1997; Peltokorpi, 2008). However, compared to AEs, SIEs might also face additional challenges because they must adjust to the host culture as well as the hiring company's organisational culture (Hsu, 2012; Selmer et al., 2015). Moreover, SIEs must manage greater levels of financial and career uncertainties because of their lack of organisational backing (Andresen et al., 2014; Baruch et al., 2016). Therefore, both SIEs and AEs were included in the qualitative sample of this thesis to gain a more nuanced understanding of the challenges expatriates face when working with HCNs in Malaysia and how their Cultural Intelligence may influence their development of social capital.

6.2.2.2 Qualitative sample characteristics

Of the 23 interviews, 12 were performed with expatriates and 11 with HCNs. Most of the expatriate participants were Germans (7), with the rest being Dutch (1), South African (1), British (1), Indian (1), and Iraqi (1) expatriates. The expatriate participants had approximately 3.5 years of work experience with HCNs on average. Most of the participants were middle-level managers (6) followed by staff and employees with no managerial responsibilities (4) and top-level managers (2). Most of these (9 of 12) were married and had children. The average age of the expatriate participants was 39 years old (range from 29 to 59 years old). Of the 12 expatriate interviewees, 10 were men, and four were SIEs.

The majority of the HCN participants were Malays (6) followed by Malaysian Indians (3) and Malaysian Chinese (2). Most HCN interviewees were men (7) and middle-level managers (7). The average age of the host national interviewees was also 39 years old (range from 34 to 43 years old). All host national interviewees were married and had

children except for one Malay female manager. Host national interviewees had substantial work experience with expatriates from different countries such as Japan, India, Germany, Portugal, Iraq, South Africa, and France. The average length of their work experience with expatriates was about 14 years. Detailed information about the participants' background is provided in Table 12.

Table 12: Interviewee background information

	Type	Gender	Age	Nationality/ ethnic background	Job position	Length of work experience with expatriates/ HCNs
trans#0 (pretest)	AE	Male	34	German	Middle-level manager	1.5 years
Trans#1 (pretest)	HCN	Male	41	Malaysian Indian	Middle-level manager	17 years
Trans#2	HCN	Male	42	Malaysian Indian	Middle-level manager	19 years
trans#3	SIE	Female	30	German	Staff	1.5 years
trans#4	AE	Male	36	German	Top-level manager	3 years
trans#5	AE	Male	55	South African	Middle-level manager	10 years
Trans#6	HCN	Male	40	Malaysian Indian	Middle-level manager	18 years
Trans#7	HCN	Male	41	Malaysian Chinese	Middle-level manager	9 years

Trans#8	HCN	Female	43	Malaysian Chinese	Top-level manager	13 years
trans#9	AE	Male	38	German	Middle-level manager	1.5 years
trans#10	AE	Male	35	German	Staff	1 year
Trans#11	HCN	Female	34	Malay	Middle-level manager	11 years
Trans#12	HCN	Female	35	Malay	Staff	15 years
Trans#13	HCN	Male	35	Malay	Staff	10 years
Trans#14	HCN	Male	34	Malay	Staff	8 years
Trans#15	HCN	Female	40	Malay	Middle-level manager	10 years
Trans#16	HCN	Male	44	Malay	Middle-level manager	23 years
trans#17	SIE	Male	35	Indian	Middle-level manager	5 years
trans#18	SIE	Female	35	British	Staff	5 years
trans#19	SIE	Male	43	Iraqi	Staff	5 years
trans#20	AE	Male	39	German	Middle-level manager	1 year 3 months
trans#21	AE	Male	59	German	Middle-level manager	3 years

trans#22	AE	Male	29	Dutch	Top-level manager	3 years 4 months
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Note: AE = Assigned Expatriate. SIE = Self-Initiated Expatriate. HCN = Host Country National. For referencing purposes, the transcripts are numbered consecutively with trans# (beginning with a small letter “t”) identifying expatriate participants and Trans# (beginning with a capital letter “T”) referencing HCN participants.

6.2.3 Qualitative data collection

Qualitative data collection was conducted in parallel to the quantitative data collection phase in the period between March and November 2019. In qualitative studies, “pilot studies may not be necessary as the entire process of data collection and analysis includes improving strategies, refining ways of thinking and identifying alternative paths” (Williams-McBean, 2019, p. 1055). Similarly, Yeong et al. (2018) suggest that refining the interview guide is an iterative process in qualitative enquiries which often draws on the insights of previous interviews to inform the subsequent ones. Nonetheless, this thesis has performed pilot interviews to check participants’ understanding of the interview questions and identify potential ethical or practical issues during the data collection process (Ismail et al., 2018; Janghorban et al., 2014; Williams-McBean, 2019).

6.2.3.1 Pilot test of the interview guide

For the pilot test, two semi-structured interviews were conducted, one with a German expatriate and one with an HCN participant (Malaysian Indian; for participants’ background information, see the sample characteristics of all interviewees in Section 6.2.2.2). This is because expatriates and HCNs have different cultural backgrounds, work experience, and socioeconomic status, which might have caused them to have different understandings of the interview questions. Both participants were selected via convenience sampling, which means that they were selected based on their availability and interest in the research topic (Etikan et al., 2016b). Because participants had to elaborate on their prior intercultural work experiences in English, only participants with

sufficient English language proficiency and intercultural work experience were interviewed (see also Ismail et al., 2018; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012).

The pilot interviews were conducted in restaurants chosen by the participants. Both participants were informed in advance about the purpose of the interviews as pilot interviews and that the researcher might make notes on their behaviours during the interview. After consent was given, the interviews were conducted following the interview guide. The interview with the German expatriate lasted 30 minutes, and the interview with the host national interviewee lasted 1 hour. The questions which induced reactions signalling unclarity and confusion (e.g., participants repeating certain phrases or seeking confirmation from the researcher) were discussed with the participants after the interview sessions. Participants were debriefed about the purpose of the questions and asked for their thoughts and interpretations while answering the questions (Willis, 2016). According to the participants' feedback, problematic questions were identified and modified for the subsequent interviews (see Table 13). The final interview guide including the interview questions is presented in Appendix E.

Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) suggest that “in qualitative research, [...] researchers often use some or all of their pilot data as part of the main study” (p. 2). Ismail et al. (2018) and Kim (2011) also purport that pilot interview data may be used for the main analysis because data collection and analysis is an iterative process in qualitative inquiries. Because the pilot interview data contain valuable insights which aid the understanding of how expatriates' Cultural Intelligence may influence their development of social capital with HCNs, these data were included in the final analysis of this thesis.

Table 13: Interview questions before and after the pilot test

Before the pilot test	After the pilot test
Can you tell me something about yourself?	No change
What do you think are the reasons for companies sending expatriates to Malaysia?	No change

What is the role of the local staff in this relation?	Which kind of support could HCNs offer to the expatriate?
What is your experience working with HCNs/expatriates? What are the biggest challenges in your working experience with HCNs/expatriates? And the best part of it?	What are the biggest challenges in your working experience with HCNs/expatriates?
What do you think could expatriates do to gain more support from HCNs?	No change
Imagine a very good working relationship between expatriates and HCNs. How would you describe it?	No change
What is a culturally intelligent person for your understanding?	No change
How do you think Cultural Intelligence of expatriates could help in building a good relationship with the local staff?	No change
Why do you think so?	No change

6.2.3.2 Qualitative data collection process

Qualitative data were collected via face-to-face semi-structured interviews with expatriates and HCNs following the interview guide (for the interview guide, see Appendix E). Interviews were scheduled according to the participants' availability and occurred in restaurants, cafés, and the researcher's and participants' residences. Probing questions (e.g., "What do you mean by...?", "Why is it important?", "Can you give an example?") were used to promote participants' deeper reflections on their lived experiences and discover new themes emerging from the conversation (Boyce & Neale, 2006; Gray, 2004; Weller et al., 2018).

In total, 23 interviews were conducted with expatriates (12) and HCNs (11). The average duration of the interviews was 1 hour with a range from 30 minutes to 2 hours. All interviews were conducted in English and audio-recorded upon participant consent to facilitate data transcription (Hove & Anda, 2005). Transcription refers to the process

where spoken words are transferred into the written form to facilitate analysis (McGrath et al., 2019). The researcher decided to transcribe the interviews herself to become familiar with the data. The researcher used Microsoft Word for transcription, which is a commonly used word-processing software program for editing and organising textual data (Ose, 2016). The interviews were transcribed verbatim so that each spoken word in the audio record was reproduced as a written word in the textual data, and participants' imperfect grammar was maintained to demonstrate authenticity (Ang & Tan, 2016; Williams-McBean, 2019). Although this thesis does not focus on analysing the contextual environment in which participants utter certain statements (for more details, see the discussion of qualitative research methodology in Section 5.2.2), notations for longer pauses and laughter were added to facilitate later interpretations of the statements (Poland, 1995; Sutton & Austin, 2015). Furthermore, to protect participants' anonymity, information which might reveal their identification (e.g., name, employer) was removed from the transcript. For referencing purposes, the transcripts were numbered consecutively, with trans# (beginning with a small letter "t") identifying expatriate participants and Trans# (beginning with the capital letter "T") referencing HCN participants.

The transcription was performed immediately after each interview session, which allowed the researcher to seek timely clarification with the participants in case of unclarity (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; McGrath et al., 2019). This also allowed the researcher to gain a first impression of the important aspects of the data, which facilitated the identification of data saturation. Data saturation is achieved when additional interviews no longer offer new insights that might be relevant for the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fusch & Ness, 2015; Weller et al., 2018). In this thesis, data saturation was observed after 20 interviews, though another three interviews were conducted to reaffirm the presence of data saturation (Boddy, 2016). This resulted in over 200 pages of single-spaced text material for data analysis.

6.3 Ethical considerations during data collection

The Declaration of Helsinki is widely accepted as the cornerstone of ethical research practice (World Medical Association, 2013). The declaration includes five key ethical principles: beneficence, nonmaleficence, informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity of the participants (Sheffield Hallam University, 2020). Beneficence and nonmaleficence mean that any potential harms and risks associated with the research (to individuals, organisations, or the general environment) must be reduced to a minimum and be in proportion to the potential benefits of the research outcomes. Participants must be provided with enough information about the research including its purposes, the procedure, and potential risks and benefits to be able to make an informed and voluntary decision about whether to participate in the research (i.e., informed consent). The collected data must be treated confidentially and anonymised so that no personal identification of the participants can be traced back, which protects participants from potential harassment and negative consequences due to their participation (i.e., confidentiality and anonymity; Sheffield Hallam University, 2020).

In this thesis, the principles of ethical research are considered in the following ways: First, no potential risks or harms were identified in relation to participation in this research. Participants were informed in advance about the purpose of the research project and its expected benefit and risk (see the participant information sheet in Appendix B and survey questionnaire in Appendix G). They were also informed about how they would be involved in the research project and that their participation was completely voluntary, which meant that they were free to withdraw at any time. Participants only proceeded with the survey or the interview after signing the informed consent form (for the consent form, see Appendix C). Furthermore, efforts were made to ensure that participants' anonymity was always maintained and that the collected data were used confidentially. For example, interviews were conducted in private space so that no one could overhear the conversation, and the audio record of the interviews was only accessible to the researcher for transcription purposes and secured with password. Furthermore, all information which might reveal participants' identity (e.g., email address, participants' self-introduction at the beginning of the interviews) were removed or edited so that no backtracking was possible. Hence, participants did not have to fear any negative consequences because of their participation in the research project (e.g., embarrassment,

harassment, etc.). These steps were undertaken in this thesis to follow the principles of ethical research practice, namely beneficence, nonmaleficence, informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity of the participants (Sheffield Hallam University, 2020).

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided details concerning the quantitative and qualitative data of this thesis. Specifically, the chapter has discussed the online survey as the chosen quantitative data collection method, the survey design, adopted measures, and their reliability and validity. Moreover, snowball and self-selection sampling as the applied sampling methods and characteristics of the quantitative sample were explained. Details concerning the pretest of the survey and the quantitative data collection process were also provided.

This chapter has also discussed the semi-structured research interview as the chosen qualitative data collection method and the interview design. Details concerning the sampling method (purposive sampling) and the qualitative sample characteristics were also provided. Moreover, the chapter has described the pilot test of the interview guide and the qualitative data collection process. Finally, principles of ethical research practice and their considerations in this thesis have been discussed.

The next chapter presents the findings of the quantitative and qualitative analyses.

Chapter 7: Analysis and Findings

This chapter presents the quantitative and the qualitative analyses and their respective findings. First, the quantitative findings of the Multiple Linear Regression analysis are outlined to identify general relationships between the Cultural Intelligence (CQ) dimensions and expatriates' social capital. After this, themes identified from the qualitative Thematic Analysis are elaborated to illustrate the roles of CQ and social capital in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs in Malaysia. This chapter only presents the findings; their triangulation and discussion with respect to the research questions are included in Chapter 8.

7.1 Quantitative data analysis

The researcher used IBM SPSS 24 software to analyse the quantitative data because it is easy to apply and includes several parametric and nonparametric tests in a single package (Ong & Puteh, 2017). Specifically, the researcher used Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) to identify significant relationships between the dimensions of CQ (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) and the social capital variables (i.e., the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions and expatriates' overall level of social capital). Because MLR is a parametric test, certain statistical assumptions were checked before the regression analysis was performed.

7.1.1 Tests for homoscedasticity and normality

MLR assumes that the dependent variable (also called the criterion variable) is a linear function of the independent variables (also called predictor variables) plus the residuals (Schroeder et al., 2016; Williams et al., 2013). Residuals are the observed errors, meaning the difference between the observed values and the values predicted by the regression model (Williams, 2019). For MLR to perform correctly, the residuals are assumed to be normally distributed with a mean of 0 and have equal variance across the values of the independent variable (i.e., homoscedasticity; Barker & Shaw, 2015; Schmidt & Finan,

2018; Williams, 2019). Nonnormally distributed residuals indicate poor model fit (Casson & Farmer, 2014). Heteroscedasticity (i.e., the lack of homoscedasticity) means that the variance or the spread of the residuals is not constant across the values of the independent variable but varies as a function of it (Schmidt & Finan, 2018). In such cases, the standard errors are biased, which may lead to untrustworthy results concerning the statistical significance of the observed relationships (Astivia & Zumbo, 2019; Klein et al., 2016). Thus, these assumptions are checked prior to the performance of MLR.

Specifically, homoscedasticity is checked with a scatterplot, which plots the standardised predicted values of the criterion variable against the standardised residuals (Schmidt & Finan, 2018; Williams et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2019). Whereas a clearly identifiable shape of the scatterplot shows a problem with heteroscedasticity, a random cloud pattern of the scatterplot as shown in Figure 9 indicates the presence of homoscedasticity (Garson, 2012). Normal distribution means that the probability of the observed values approximates the shape of a bell curve with a central hump containing most of the observations around the mean and the extreme values spread symmetrically to the flattening tails of the curve (Williams, 2019). The normality assumption can be checked with numerical or graphical tests (Mishra et al., 2019). Numerical tests, including statistical tests and a skewness and kurtosis test, compare the observed empirical data with the theoretical data of a normal distribution and identify nonnormality in case the null hypothesis (i.e., that the distribution is normal) is significantly rejected (Ahad et al., 2011; Fitrianto & Chin, 2016; Mishra et al., 2019). However, the simplest check for normality is done using the histogram, which plots the observed data against their frequency to determine whether the graph approximates a bell-shaped normal curve (Das & Imon, 2016; Mishra et al., 2019).

In this thesis, the histogram of the raw data shows significant negative skewness (see Figure 7). Thus, data transformation is applied to alleviate its severeness, still allowing the MLR to be performed (Manikandan, 2010; Scheffler, 2015). This is because MLR is robust to moderate violation of normality (Norman, 2010; Schmidt & Finan, 2018). Among the most commonly applied mathematical operations for data transformation (i.e., square root, logarithmic, or inverse transformation), logarithmic transformation (hereafter log transformation) is more powerful and straightforward for interpretation (Howell, 2012; Manikandan, 2010; Osborne, 2002; Tabachnick et al., 2007). Hence, the dependent

variables of this thesis (i.e., the social capital variables) were reflected and log transformed prior to another round of normality check (Osborne, 2002).⁴⁶

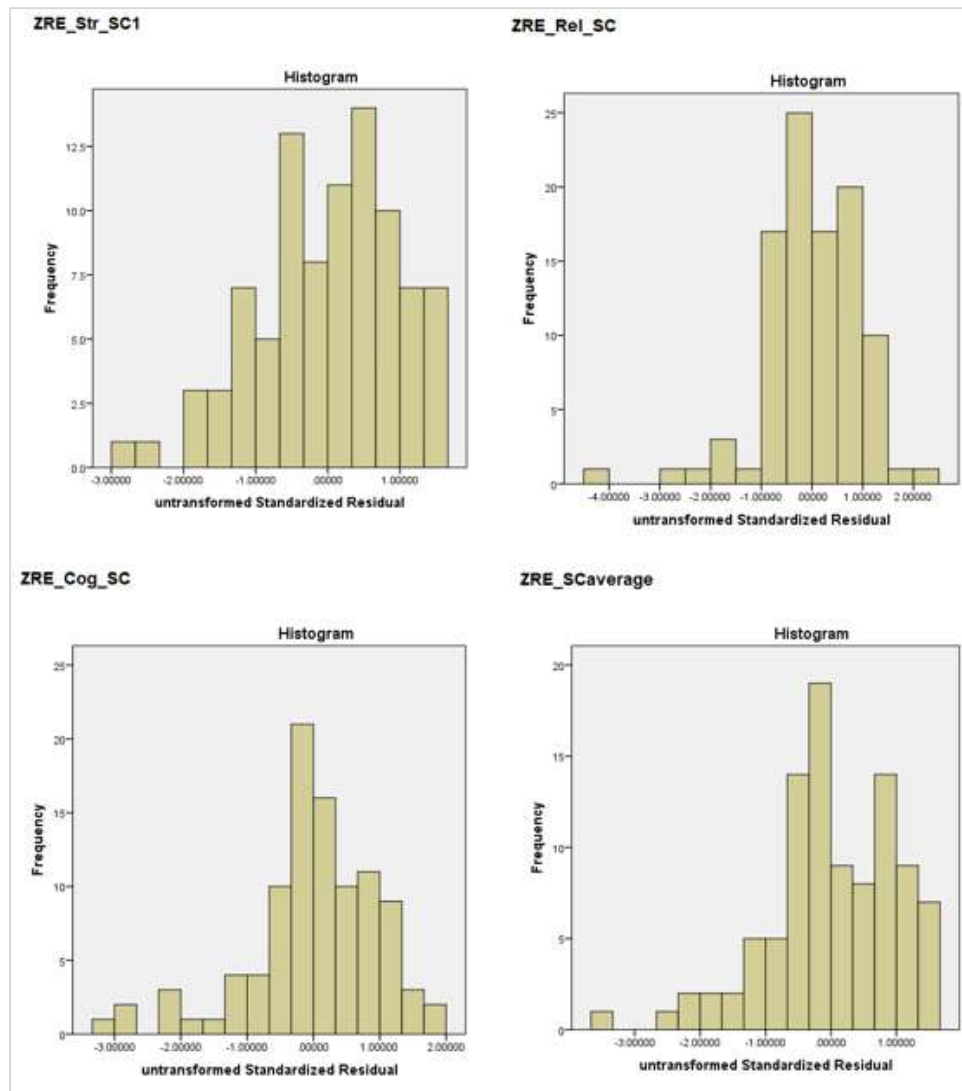


Figure 7: Distribution of residuals before transformation

Note: ZRE_Str_SC1 = standardised residual of the variable measuring the structural dimension of social capital (Str_SC); ZRE_Rel_SC = standardised residual of the variable measuring the relational dimension of social capital (Rel_SC); ZRE_Cog_SC = standardised residual of the variable measuring the cognitive dimension of social capital (Cog_SC); ZRE_SCaverage = standardised residual of the variable measuring the overall social capital (SCaverage).

⁴⁶ Reflection means that the negative skewness is converted to a positive skewness by subtracting each data point from the largest observed score plus 1. This is required for performing the log transformation of the data because the base of the logarithm cannot be negative (Munro, 2005).

Because MLR is robust to moderate violation of normality, the degree of violation is crucial for determining the acceptability of the normality assumption (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Kim, 2013; Norman, 2010; Schmidt & Finan, 2018). Therefore, this thesis followed Fitrianto and Chin's (2016) suggestion by reviewing the results of both numerical and graphical tests to determine whether the normality assumption of MLR is acceptable. Specifically, a skewness and kurtosis test and a histogram were used to check the normality of the transformed data. Statistical tests (e.g., the Shapiro-Wilk test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) were not used because they are very sensitive to sample size. While small samples often pass the normality test, larger sample sizes nearly always cause the normal distribution assumption to be rejected (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Kozak & Piepho, 2018; Mishra et al., 2019). The skewness and kurtosis test, on the other hand, is less sensitive to the sample size (Kim, 2013; Mishra et al., 2019). Skewness and kurtosis are measures of the asymmetry and peakedness (or flatness) of the distribution (Kim, 2013; Mishra et al., 2019). A normal distribution has a skew and kurtosis excess value of 0 (DeCarlo, 1997; Mishra et al., 2019).⁴⁷ For medium to large samples ($50 < n < 300$) such as the sample size of 100 cases in this thesis, z scores exceeding the range of ± 3.29 indicate a substantial deviation from normal distribution (Kim, 2013; Mishra et al., 2019).⁴⁸ After log transformation, the residuals of the regression model in this thesis showed acceptable normality and homoscedasticity, allowing the MLR to be performed (see Table 14, Figures 8 and 9).

⁴⁷ The kurtosis excess value is the original kurtosis value subtracted with 3 because of practical reasons.

⁴⁸ Z scores are calculated by dividing the skewness and kurtosis values by their standard errors (Kim, 2013).

Table 14: Results of the skewness and kurtosis test for the normality check after log transformation

Variable	Skewness and kurtosis coefficient (Z scores)
Str_SC_log	Passed ($< \pm 3.29$)
Rel_SC_log	Passed ($< \pm 3.29$)
Cog_SC_log	Passed ($< \pm 3.29$)
SCaverage_log	Passed ($< \pm 3.29$)

Note: Str_SC_log = structural dimension of social capital (log transformed); Rel_SC_log = relational dimension of social capital (log transformed); Cog_SC_log = cognitive dimension of social capital (log transformed); SCaverage_log = overall level of social capital (log transformed); Z scores are calculated by dividing the skewness and kurtosis values by their standard errors (Kim, 2013).

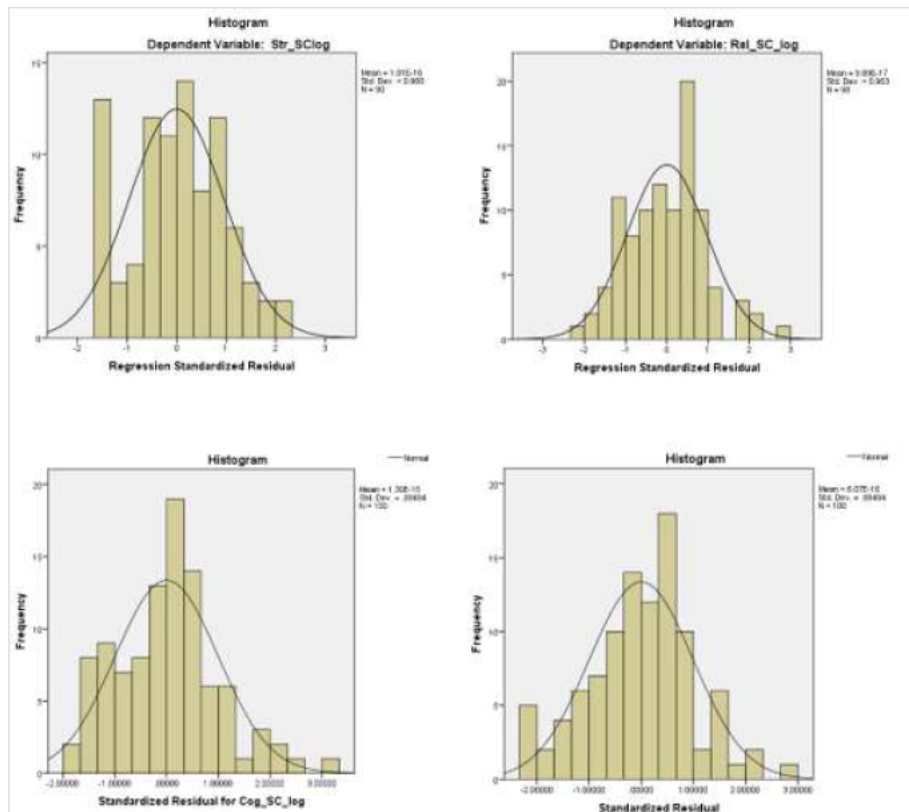


Figure 8: Normality check with histogram after log transformation

Note: Str_SC_log = structural dimension of social capital (log transformed); Rel_SC_log = relational dimension of social capital (log transformed); Cog_SC_log = cognitive dimension of social capital (log transformed); SCaverage_log = overall level of social capital (log transformed).

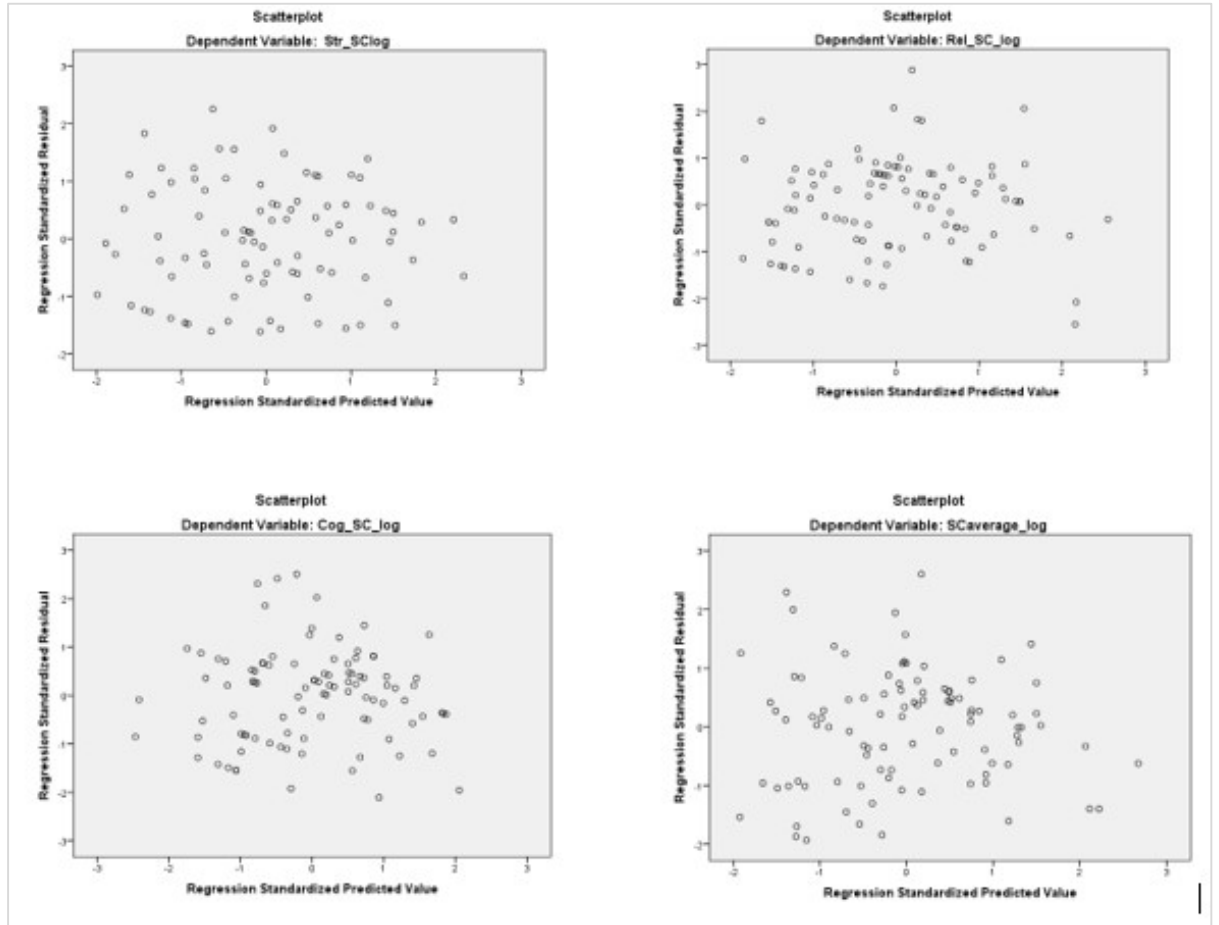


Figure 9: Test results for homoscedasticity after log transformation

Note: Str_SC_log = structural dimension of social capital (log transformed); Rel_SC_log = relational dimension of social capital (log transformed); Cog_SC_log = cognitive dimension of social capital (log transformed); SCaverage_log = overall level of social capital (log transformed).

7.1.2 Check for Common Method Variance

Because the measures of CQ and social capital were collected all at once by means of self-report survey, Common Method Variance (i.e., shared variance because of the method) might be a problem which either inflates or deflates the effect size of the independent variables (i.e., the CQ dimensions; Aguirre-Urreta & Hu, 2019; Fuller et al., 2016; Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015; Jordan & Troth, 2020). This is because respondents

might give socially desirable answers or try to answer in line with their lay theory (Fuller et al., 2016; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Thus, some procedural and statistical remedies were used to reduce the risk of Common Method Variance. For example, respondents were asked to provide their honest opinion and reassured about their anonymity and the confidential use of the data. This should have reduced their tendency to give socially desirable answers. Furthermore, different types of scales were used to measure the independent (i.e., the CQ variables) and dependent variables (i.e., the social capital variables). For example, the CQ variables were measured by seven-point Likert scales, the structural dimension of social capital was measured using name generator and matrix questions, and five-point Likert scales were used to measure the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital (for details of the measures, see Section 6.1.2; for the complete survey questionnaire, see Appendix G). This should reduce the risk of biased results caused by respondents' consistent answers in line with their lay theory (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Moreover, Common Method Variance was checked with the commonly used Harman's one-factor test (Fuller et al., 2016; Kock et al., 2021; Scheffler, 2015). Because Common Method Variance refers to systematic bias caused by the data collection method, the test would identify a single factor in the unrotated solution of exploratory factor analysis which accounts for most of the shared variances ($> 50\%$; Abdul Malek et al., 2015; Osborne, 2015; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Scheffler, 2015).⁴⁹ In this thesis, exploratory factor analysis shows that the first extracted factor only accounts for 27.18% of the shared variances. Hence, it is unlikely that the data collection method has introduced Common Method Variance and biased the results of this thesis (Fuller et al., 2016).

⁴⁹ The unrotated solution is the initial result of a factor analysis which has not been adjusted ("rotated") to fit the observed clusters of items (Osborne, 2015).

7.1.3 Multiple regression analysis

This thesis used Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) to investigate the relationships between the CQ dimensions and expatriates' social capital with HCNs in Malaysia. Because the raw data do not meet the normality assumption of MLR (for more details, see Section 7.1.1), log-transformed data were used in the regression model as described in Equation (2).

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{SC_{ij-log}} &= \beta_0 + \beta_j CQ_{ik} + \beta_{THo} THo_i + \beta_{age} age_i + \beta_{gender} gender_i \\ &+ \beta_{intwork} intwork_i + \beta_{lan} lan_i + \beta_{type} type_i \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where

$\overline{SC_{ij-log}}$ = the log-transformed measure of the i^{th} expatriate's social capital on the j^{th} criterion variable (the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions and expatriates' overall level of social capital as the average of the three dimensions)

CQ_{ik} = the i^{th} expatriate's CQ on the k^{th} dimension (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural)

THo_i = the i^{th} expatriate's time spent in the host country

age_i = the i^{th} expatriate's age

$gender_i$ = the i^{th} expatriate's gender

$intwork_i$ = the i^{th} expatriate's previous intercultural work experience

lan_i = the i^{th} expatriate's language proficiency

$type_i$ = the i^{th} expatriate's type of expatriation

For each of the social capital variables (i.e., the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital and expatriates' overall level of social capital), CQ dimensions were alternately included as independent variables, resulting in 16 regression models in total. This is because according to prior research, the four CQ dimensions might be highly interrelated (Gooden et al., 2017; Schlaegel et al., 2021; Van Dyne et al., 2010). High interrelations between the independent variables (i.e., multicollinearity) may bias the significance of their effect on the dependent variable, leading to untrustworthy results (Kim, 2019; Tsagris & Pandis, 2021).

Since the researcher entered each CQ dimension simultaneously with the control variables as an independent variable in the regression model, the risk of multicollinearity was checked with Variance Inflation Factor (VIF; Daoud, 2017; Jeong & Jung, 2016; Kim, 2019; Petter et al., 2007). Because all VIF values are below 2, it is unlikely that the correlations between the independent variables would have biased the regression results of this thesis (Jeong & Jung, 2016; Midi & Bagheri, 2010).⁵⁰ The following section presents the regression results of how each CQ dimension may influence expatriates' social capital with their host national colleagues in Malaysia.

7.1.3.1 Regression results

Controlling for expatriates' time spent in Malaysia (THo), age, gender, previous intercultural work experience (intwork), language proficiency (lan), and their type of expatriation (type), metacognitive CQ shows a significant positive effect on all three dimensions of social capital and expatriates' overall level of social capital (see Table 15). Cognitive CQ only has a significant positive effect on expatriates' relational dimension of social capital ($\beta = .238$; $p < .05$; see Table 16). Motivational CQ has a significant positive effect on the relational ($\beta = .507$; $p < .01$) and cognitive dimension of social capital ($\beta = .403$; $p < .01$) but not on the structural dimension of social capital ($\beta = .077$; $p = \text{ns.}$). However, motivational CQ has a strong effect on expatriates' overall level of

⁵⁰ The complete list of all VIF values may be provided by the researcher upon request.

social capital ($\beta = .412$; $p < .01$; see Table 17). Finally, behavioural CQ shows a significant positive effect on all three dimensions of social capital and expatriates' overall level of social capital (see Table 18).

Table 15: Regression results of metacognitive CQ and social capital

Independent variables	Dependent variables			
	Str_SC_log	Rel_SC_log	Cog_SC_log	SCaverage_log
Metacognitive CQ	.242**	.210*	.203*	.308***
THo	-.117	.116	.233**	.126
Age	.042	.041	.049	.034
Gender	-.380***	-.183	-.051	-.245**
Intwork	.111	.029	.158	.072
lan	.128	.071	.036	.103
Type	.141	-.079	-.228**	-.132

Note: Str_SC_log = log-transformed structural dimension of social capital; Rel_SC_log = log-transformed relational dimension of social capital; Cog_SC_log = log-transformed cognitive dimension of social capital; SCaverage_log = log-transformed overall level of social capital (calculated as the average of the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions); THo = expatriate's time spent in the host country; Intwork = expatriate's previous intercultural work experience; lan = expatriate's English language proficiency; Type = type of expatriation (SIE vs. AE); standardised beta reported; reflection reversed.

* represents $p < .10$; ** represents $p < .05$; *** represents $p < .01$

Table 16: Regression results of cognitive CQ and social capital

Independent variables	Dependent variables			
	Str_SC_log	Rel_SC_log	Cog_SC_log	SCaverage_log
Cognitive CQ	-.001	.238**	.121	.151
THo	-.074	.129	.265**	.179
Age	.056	.015	.037	.019
Gender	-.353***	-.198*	-.047	-.233**
Intwork	.181	-.013	.162	.089
lan	.130	.046	.023	.085
Type	.186	-.050	-.201*	-.092

Note: Str_SC_log = log-transformed structural dimension of social capital; Rel_SC_log = log-transformed relational dimension of social capital; Cog_SC_log = log-transformed cognitive dimension of social capital; SCaverage_log = log-transformed overall level of social capital (calculated as the average of the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions); THo = expatriate's time spent in the host country; Intwork = expatriate's previous intercultural work experience; lan = expatriate's English language proficiency; Type = type of expatriation (SIE vs. AE); standardised beta reported; reflection reversed.

* represents $p < .10$; ** represents $p < .05$; *** represents $p < .01$

Table 17: Regression result of motivational CQ and social capital

Independent variables	Dependent variables			
	Str_SC_log	Rel_SC_log	Cog_SC_log	SCaverage_log
Motivational CQ	.077	.507***	.403***	.412***
THo	-.076	.099	.229**	.148
Age	.059	.089	.088	.074
Gender	-.352***	-.152	-.023	-.203*
Intwork	.159	-.042	.112	.049
lan	.102	-.100	-.100	-.037
Type	.173	-.096	-.237**	-.129

Note: Str_SC_log = log-transformed structural dimension of social capital; Rel_SC_log = log-transformed relational dimension of social capital; Cog_SC_log = log-transformed cognitive dimension of social capital; SCaverage_log = log-transformed overall level of social capital (calculated as the average of the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions); THo = expatriate's time spent in the host country; Intwork = expatriate's previous intercultural work experience; lan = expatriate's English language proficiency; Type = type of expatriation (SIE vs. AE); standardised beta reported; reflection reversed.

* represents $p < .10$; ** represents $p < .05$; *** represents $p < .01$

Table 18: Regression result of behavioural CQ and social capital

Independent variables	Dependent variables			
	Str_SC_log	Rel_SC_log	Cog_SC_log	SCaverage_log
Behavioural CQ	.206*	.321***	.225**	.333***
THo	-.097	.118	.249**	.151
Age	.047	.053	.058	.047
Gender	-.389***	-.210*	-.063	-.262**
Intwork	.122	.004	.156	.069
lan	.109	.047	.019	.078
Type	.152	-.089	-.228**	-.132

Note: Str_SC_log = log-transformed structural dimension of social capital; Rel_SC_log = log-transformed relational dimension of social capital; Cog_SC_log = log-transformed cognitive dimension of social capital; SCaverage_log = log-transformed overall level of social capital (calculated as the average of the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions); THo = expatriate's time spent in the host country; Intwork = expatriate's previous intercultural work experience; lan = expatriate's English language proficiency; Type = type of expatriation (SIE vs. AE); standardised beta reported; reflection reversed.

* represents $p < .10$; ** represents $p < .05$; *** represents $p < .01$

7.1.3.2 Control variables

Among the control variables, expatriates' time spent in the host country (THo) and their type of expatriation (Type) have a significant effect on the cognitive dimension of social capital. This means that expatriates with longer stays in Malaysia and those who are Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) report a higher level of shared language and narratives and shared goals with HCNs (see Tables 15, 16, 17, and 18). Prior research suggests that expatriates' length of stay in the host country is positively related to their cross-cultural adjustment, which reflects their psychological comfort living and working in the country

(Ramalu et al., 2010; Shu et al., 2017). Compared to Assigned Expatriates (AEs), SIEs also often report better interaction adjustment, which means that they are less anxious while interacting with HCNs (Inkson et al., 1997; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Von Borell de Araujo et al., 2014). Reduced anxiety may contribute to people's communication effectiveness (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Gudykunst & Nishida, 2001; Presbitero & Attar, 2018). Hence, SIEs and expatriates who have spent more time in Malaysia might achieve a higher level of shared language and narratives and shared goals with HCNs (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital) because of their reduced level of anxiety and enhanced communication effectiveness. Besides this effect, no other significant effect has been observed for expatriates' time spent in the host country (THo) and their type of expatriation (Type) on expatriates' social capital.

Gender is the only control variable which has a significant effect on expatriates' overall level of social capital ($p < .05$; see Tables 15, 16, 17, and 18), though this effect seems only to result from its positive effect on the structural dimension of social capital ($p < .01$; see Tables 15, 16, 17, and 18). Specifically, female expatriates reported a higher level of social capital compared to their male peers. They also seem to have a larger network of HCN contacts and engage in more frequent interactions with HCNs. This is in line with prior findings by Varma et al. (2016) and Fu and Charoensukmongkol (2021), who identify that compared to male expatriates, female expatriates often receive more HCN support in China and Thailand, respectively. One reason for this might be that women are more likely to ask for support from their coworkers than men (Cahill & Sias, 1997; Juvrud & Rennels, 2017; Sloan, 2017). Another reason might be that Malaysia, China, and Thailand are all collectivistic cultures where traits such as nurturance, consideration, harmony, and group orientation are highly valued (Hofstede Insights, 2021; House et al., 2004). Such traits are often associated with women (Christov-Moore et al., 2014; Ristic et al., 2020; Varma et al., 2006). Furthermore, women more frequently react to workplace conflict with constructive behaviours such as perspective taking, while men more often react with dominating behaviours such as anger expression and retaliation (Davis et al., 2010; Rahim & Katz, 2019). Hence, Malaysian HCNs might feel more comfortable interacting with female expatriates, which eventually contributes to their higher level of social capital. This leads to an interesting area for future research, namely the effect of cultural context (e.g., collectivistic vs. individualistic host culture) on female expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. However, the remainder of this thesis focuses

on the effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia to answer the research questions.

7.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews with both expatriates and HCNs (for more details concerning qualitative data collection, see Section 6.2.3.2). After all of the interview data were transcribed, Thematic Analysis was applied to identify common patterns of meanings (i.e., themes) across the dataset which are relevant for understanding the effect of expatriates' Cultural Intelligence on their social capital with HCNs in Malaysia (for discussion of Thematic Analysis, see Section 5.2.2). Specifically, Thematic Analysis involves six steps which may be recurring in the research practice: familiarising oneself with the data, initial coding, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining themes, and producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Nowell et al., 2017). In line with the descriptive phenomenological approach adopted in this thesis, Thematic Analysis is performed at the semantic level, which means that the surface meaning of participants' words is analysed rather than the circumstances, contextual factors, or underlying assumptions that have caused participants to have certain views (Braun & Clarke, 2006; for discussion of descriptive phenomenology, see Section 5.2.2). This is because the focus of this thesis is on understanding the research phenomenon (i.e., the effect of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs) rather than how expatriates and HCNs construct their social reality.

The interview transcripts were analysed using the comment and tabulation functions provided by Microsoft Word (Belotto, 2018; Ose, 2016). Although more sophisticated Computer-Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) exists (e.g., NVivo, ATLAS.ti), the functions provided by Microsoft Word are simple but sufficient for coding and structuring the interview data of this thesis (Belotto, 2018; Ose, 2016). Specifically, the researcher immersed herself in the data by reading and rereading the transcripts and making notes in the margins of the transcripts using the Microsoft Word comment function (see also Belotto, 2018). The notes include the researcher's thoughts about

interesting aspects in the data which might be relevant for understanding the effect of CQ on the development of social capital in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs.

As a second step, the researcher developed an initial coding scheme using deductive and inductive coding on a randomly selected transcript (Campbell et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 2019). Codes are the smallest analytical units which are used to capture the meaning of the data (Clarke & Braun, 2017). Deductive coding was performed based on a theory-driven coding list (Nowell et al., 2017), which included the dimensions of CQ (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) and the dimensions of social capital (i.e., structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions). Inductive coding, on the other hand, refers to the generation of new codes which entail important information but cannot be coded according to the predefined coding list (Bengtsson, 2016; Clarke & Braun, 2017; Tracy, 2013). The coding scheme includes the codes, their definition, and examples of how to use them (Guest et al., 2006; Roberts et al., 2019; for an excerpt of the coding scheme, see Appendix H).⁵¹

Because the researcher had a more active role during the analysis of qualitative data, a second coder was involved to enhance the consistency of the results (Belotto, 2018; Hammarberg et al., 2016). The second coder should arrive at the same or similar conclusions as the researcher when interpreting a given set of data (Hammarberg et al., 2016). Because finding volunteers who are both capable and willing to dedicate themselves to the lengthy coding process was extremely difficult, only one second coder was involved in this thesis. However, this is considered an acceptable approach by prior studies (Belotto, 2018; Campbell et al., 2013; O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). Specifically, the second coder is a former expatriate who was selected because of his availability, interest in the research topic, and English language proficiency. This is important because the second coder had to understand the context and meaning of participants' statements in order to assign or develop codes. It was also helpful that the second coder had some intercultural work experience because in case of disagreement with the researcher, the second coder was able to argue and justify his coding decisions. Finally, because Microsoft Word was used for data analysis, the second coder had to demonstrate a certain level of proficiency in using the software.

⁵¹ The complete coding scheme may be provided upon request.

Due to the substantial amount of data (approximately 200 pages of transcripts) and the time constraints of the second coder, intercoder reliability was determined based on a sample of three randomly selected transcripts (Belotto, 2018; Campbell et al., 2013). This constitutes 13% of the total sample size (the total sample size is 23 cases) and falls into the typically reported range of 10 to 25% of the entire dataset for examining intercoder reliability (Campbell et al., 2013; O'Connor & Joffe, 2020). Intercoder reliability reflects the likelihood that two (or more) coders assign the same codes to the same units of data (MacPhail et al., 2016; Popping, 2010). Using the percentage agreement method of Miles and Huberman (1994), intercoder reliability was calculated as the ratio between the number of coding agreements and the total number of agreements and disagreements (Belotto, 2018; Campbell et al., 2013; Castleberry & Nolen, 2018; Roberts et al., 2019). This method does not account for agreement by chance compared to other sophisticated methods such as Cohen's kappa and Krippendorff's alpha (Cohen, 1960; Krippendorff, 2004; MacPhail et al., 2016). However, Cohen's kappa and Krippendorff's alpha require the codes to be mutually exclusive and have equal chance of occurrence (Burla et al., 2008; Campbell et al., 2013; Eccleston et al., 2001). This is not possible in this thesis because participants' extensive elaborations on their experiences often require multiple codes simultaneously to capture the full meaning of the data (Campbell et al., 2013; MacPhail et al., 2016). Thus, the percentage agreement method was used to examine intercoder reliability.

The second coder received instructions on the coding process and the application of the initial coding scheme. After this, the researcher sent the second coder a randomly selected transcript via email. The second coder performed the coding independently using the comment function in Microsoft Word. Upon completion, the codes of the researcher and the second coder were compared to identify agreement and discrepancies. The first round of reliability checks only arrived at an intercoder reliability of 25%. Discrepancies mostly resulted because the second coder was not acquainted with the inductive coding process in general and the concepts of CQ and social capital in particular. For example, the second coder tried to assign the existing codes from the predefined coding list as far as possible instead of creating new ones that might be more appropriate. Furthermore, the second coder more frequently engaged in the latent level of analysis by interpreting why certain situations occurred rather than remaining at the semantic level of analysis by coding the surface meaning of the participant's words.

Therefore, the researcher and the second coder went through all the codes one by one and arrived at consensus by discussing their understanding of the meaning of the codes and the coded data. Following this discussion, some newly developed codes were added to the coding scheme, and the coding rule of semantic level of analysis was clarified with the second coder. After this, the modified coding scheme was used in the second round of reliability checks, which achieved an intercoder reliability of 60%. Following this second check, the codes were again discussed one by one to identify agreements and resolve discrepancies. After this, the coding scheme was modified and used for a third and final round of reliability checks. The final round of reliability checks arrived at an intercoder reliability of 76%. Prior research suggests that this level of intercoder reliability is acceptable in exploratory studies, where codes are used to identify common patterns rather than used in statistical analyses (Ashmore et al., 2020; Belotto, 2018; Roberts et al., 2019). The researcher alone then coded the remaining transcripts (Belotto, 2018; Campbell et al., 2013). The source of the codes was documented by including the referencing number of the transcript and the line numbers in the coding scheme, which later facilitated verification of the codes in the raw data (Belotto, 2018).

After coding all the transcripts, the researcher began reviewing the codes to search for themes. Themes are patterns of meanings which provide a larger picture of related codes (Castleberry & Nolen, 2018; Sundler et al., 2019). In line with the phenomenological approach adopted in this thesis, the researcher looked for commonalities across participants' statements to explore how and why CQ may influence expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. The initial themes included the four CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) and the three dimensions of social capital (i.e., structural, relational, and cognitive). Furthermore, based on participants' elaborations, the researcher identified that cultural differences present a great challenge in expatriates' work relationship with HCNs. Finally, respect is identified as another theme which plays an important role in facilitating expatriates effectively working with their host national colleagues in Malaysia.

After identifying these initial themes, the researcher read through the corresponding data segments again and identified further subthemes which allow for more detailed insight into how and why CQ may influence expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. In particular, subthemes include the consequences of challenges posed by cultural

differences in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs (i.e., miscommunication, different expectations, and negative attribution of behaviours). Moreover, different types of respect were identified under the overall theme of respect (i.e., appraisal respect, recognition respect, and respect as social power), which have different consequences on expatriates' effectively working with HCNs. An overview of the final thematic map is provided in Figure 10. In the following sections, the meaning and content of these themes are elaborated, though their discussion with respect to the research questions is provided in Chapter 8.

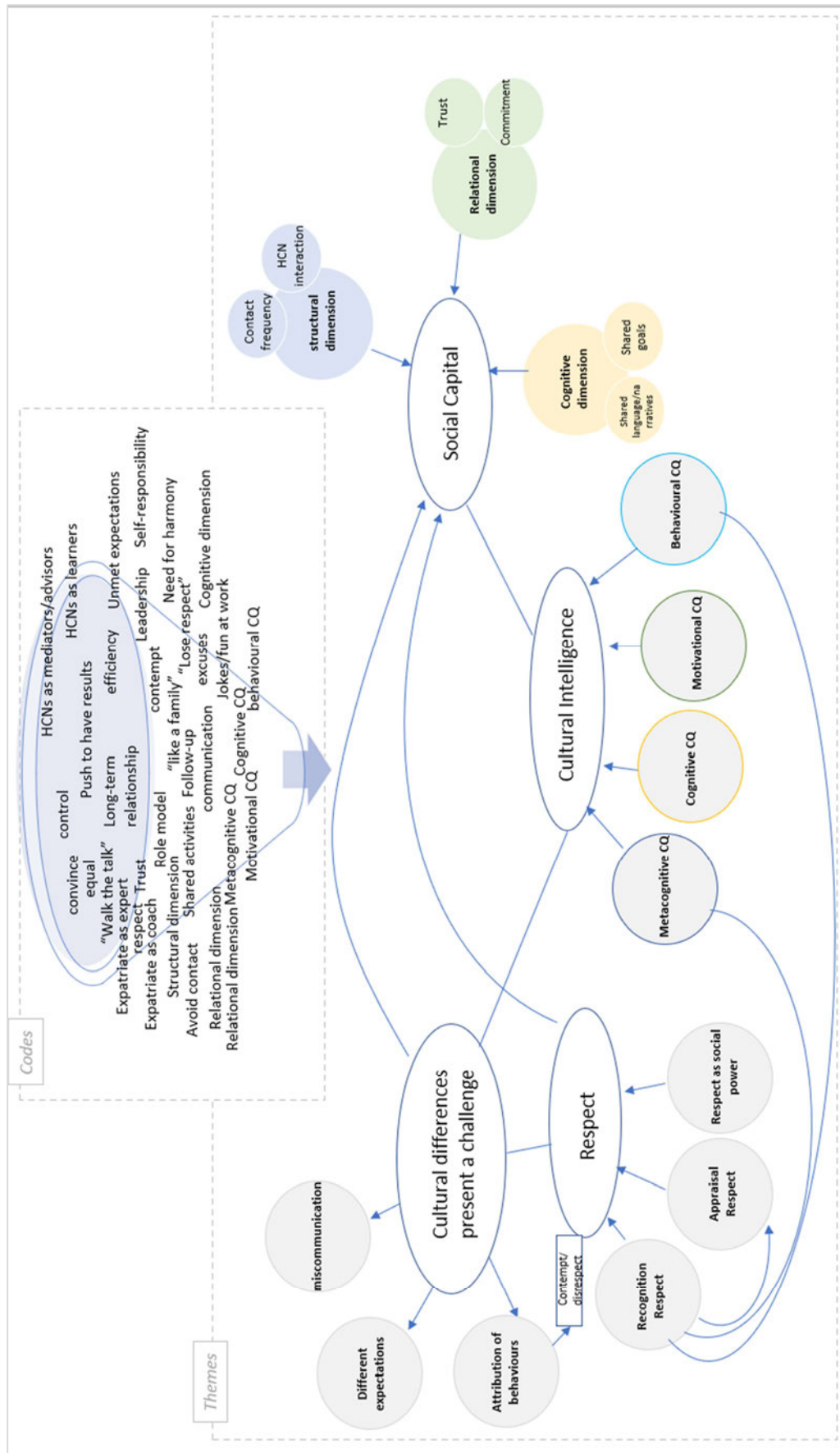


Figure 10: Example codes and thematic map

7.2.1 Theme 1: Cultural differences pose challenges to expatriate–HCN work relationships

Regardless of their ethnicity, nearly all host national interviewees identified cultural difference as a great challenge in their work relationships with expatriates. For example, one Malay interviewee suggested that “the ethics, the working behaviours and the attitudes” (Trans#16) are the greatest challenges in work relationships with expatriates. Another Malaysian Chinese interviewee remarked, “If you work in Germany, the style of how you work and your style of communication, your style of business ethics, can be very different” (Trans#7). Problems occur when expatriates follow their usual approach when working with their culturally diverse host national colleagues in Malaysia, as the following statements show:

Some certain expats when they come here, they do not understand the culture [...]. Then they will stick to the way how it works in Europe and bring it over into Malaysia and think it will also work the same way in Malaysia, but actually, you can't do it this way. (Trans#7)

If the expatriate is dealing with them [the HCNs] the way he used to, like from where he is from, probably the effectiveness will not be as he expects. (Trans#13)

Expatriates also consider cultural difference a great challenge in their work relationships with HCNs, as expressed below:

In Germany, the people like to complain, and they complain a lot. This can be annoying, but this can also bring forward [...], and here, people just accept things as they are and live with it instead of changing it. (trans#0)

It's a big challenge because there is a big difference of culture and not only with the language, also with the people [...], in Malaysians you also have Malays, and Malaysian Indians [...], so quite challenging experience for me [...]. I had to swim against the waves, always. (trans#17)

In our country, or let's say in Middle East, our culture is different, our behaviour is different, our attitude is different that we are sometimes nervous, we are

sometimes jealous, we are temper, so emotional. It's different here. I mean, different, it's not only the face and the clothes, but also the heart, the feeling, is different. (trans#19)

To provide more insight into the potential problems caused by cultural differences between expatriates and HCNs, three subthemes are identified and elaborated in the following sections, namely 1) miscommunication, 2) different expectations due to different norms and values, and 3) negative attribution of behaviours.

7.2.1.1 Miscommunication

In general, cross-cultural communication refers to the interaction of culturally diverse actors to create understanding (Mitra, 2020). Interpersonal communication is a special type of social interaction in which messages are exchanged through interpretation (Burlison, 2010). Besides the exchange of verbal information, interpersonal communication includes the interpretation of nonverbal messages such as people's facial expression, body language, and appearance (Hall, 1959; Hashmi & Waheed, 2020; Knapp & Hall, 2010). Miscommunication occurs when expatriates and HCNs fail to interpret each other's intended verbal or nonverbal messages correctly (Hall, 1959; Mitra, 2020).

In line with Abdulai et al. (2017), the participants of this thesis suggest that cultural differences may cause miscommunications between expatriates and HCNs because they interpret the verbal and nonverbal messages differently. As one Malay interviewee stated, "The way we [HCN] deliver our message, sometimes the message didn't really arrive, and the message didn't really align with what we try to send" (Trans#16). Similarly, another expatriate said, "Maybe the way I put something and the way they put something, say something is ... it can be understood differently" (trans#5). One Malay participant further emphasised that even the same term, such as "quality", might be understood differently by expatriates and HCNs: "If you talk about quality, this is a very ... wide subject. Like, you can say, 'I just pay for the quality car', but how do you know the quality?" (Trans#13).

In line with Tamam (2000), this thesis identifies that although the English language is widely spoken among Malaysian employees, it still presents a barrier for clear communication with expatriates. As one Malay interviewee suggested, “Some of us are not comfortable to speak in English; some also maybe cannot understand expats’ language due to their slang” (Trans#11). The wrong usage and interpretation of certain words may also cause miscommunications between expatriates and HCNs. As one host national participant illustrated, “Sometimes we use direct translation from Malay to English; sometimes you use the word from German to English, okay, to give an example: ‘plant’, ‘plantation’, okay? This also gives confusion” (Trans#16).

Beside the interpretation of verbal messages, misunderstandings may also occur when expatriates and HCNs interpret each other’s nonverbal cues. As one Malay participant observed, “You know foreigners are really open, really straightforward, so, and we are very polite; we are very soft, [...] so for us it is something ‘oh...these people [expats] are very rude’ [...]. That is something that they don’t mean so, but for us, it means differently [...]. For the locals, it just looks like that they think we are stupid” (Trans#11).

Due to Malaysians’ high power distance (see Section 2.2), open challenges to authorities are considered inappropriate and undesirable (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012). Hence, HCNs in Malaysia often hesitate to seek clarifications with their expatriate supervisors which may induce further miscommunication. This is shown by the following statements:

I think because he [the expat] is my supervisor [...] sometimes I don’t understand what he is talking, so I just ask my friend ‘what do you think; what is he talking about?’ Because he is my supervisor, so sometimes I feel shy to ask many times. (Trans#12)

It has happened before where I’ve asked somebody [HCNs], or I’ve given them a task and asked them to do something. Then it’s come back, and it’s basically in a different direction the way what I was wanting. [...] They didn’t question to make sure that they knew what I wanted. (trans#5)

7.2.1.2 Different expectations due to different norms and values

Based on host national interviewees' elaborations, three core values of the Malaysian culture are identified which may collide with the expectations of expatriates. First, compared to the expatriates, Malaysians have a different understanding of effective leader–subordinate relationships. For instance, expatriates from individualistic and low power distance cultures (e.g., Germany, the UK, the USA) often perceive open and direct discussion of disagreement and problems as good leadership practice and a sign of professionalism (Jogulu, 2010; Saad et al., 2015). As one of the host national interviewees observed, “I know one thing is they [the expats] put everything on the table, they clear it, and the next thing it will be like as nothing happened to them” (Trans#8). However, Malaysia is a collectivistic culture which admires leadership characteristics of a “caring parent” (Arun & Kahraman Gedik, 2022; Blunt & Jones, 1997). Specifically, HCNs in Malaysia expect a capable leader to offer protection and guidance and treat subordinates with gentle care and respect (Abdullah, 2001; Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012). This also becomes clear based on the following statements of the HCN participants:

The expatriate will think these people are lousy, but on the other side, these people who are doing assembly for us [HCNs] will think, “He is also not capable because he can’t give us any direction; he only gives us harsh words.” Maybe the expectation between these two parties is different. (Trans#14)

Leader has to show characteristics which is supportive, which is honest. (Trans#6)

You know that your [expatriate] boss will be standing behind you and supporting you [...] someone that you can trust, and also you know that no matter what ... maybe he will scold you like hell when two persons in the room, but when he is outside, he will be like the mother chicken protecting all the small chickens. (Trans#8)

We had a boss from the US, a very old guy; he was kind of a grandfather to me, very kind to me. I still remember him. (Trans#11)

Like a family. I would describe it as a family. [...] I think because he [the expatriate] is knowledgeable, older, he is like a father to me [...] I feel like a daughter to him because he knows everything. [...] he respects me, and I respect him, like a family. (Tran#12)

The preference for a paternalistic leadership style which combines fatherly benevolence with discipline and control also reflects Malaysians' high respect for hierarchy and authority (Farh & Cheng, 2000; House et al., 2004; Jogulu, 2010; Mansur et al., 2017). As one expatriate participant observed, "Role boss is different here than in Germany. Here, it's still differently treated. There is way, way more respect on the one hand, but on the other hand, also way, way more barrier" (trans#0). Hence, Malaysian employees hesitate to express disagreement with their supervisors (Abu Bakar & Mustaffa, 2011; Jogulu, 2010; Kele et al., 2017). As one Malay participant stated, "Even though you know it won't happen, it will fail, but when the boss says 'Yes', then you never say, 'It will fail'" (Trans#15). Another Malaysian interviewee gave an example of how this hesitance may lead to expatriate managers' poor business decisions, saying, "Maybe one side [the expatriate] is too ego, the second one [the HCN] cannot do correction to the boss, 'Boss, this is not right, you are opening a dealership in the village area, nobody will buy our car'" (Trans#14).

In line with prior research which suggests that people from high power distance cultures rely on clear goal setting and instructions from their superiors (Bao et al., 2021; Fock et al., 2013; Wang & Guan, 2018), the host national interviewees in this thesis also expected their leaders to provide very exact instructions. In this relation, very little is expected from the subordinates in terms of accepting responsibility, being proactive, or assuming autonomous actions (Aycan et al., 2000; Jogulu, 2010; McKenna, 1998). As one expatriate participant explained, "I cannot even give her [HCN] a few sheets of paper [to copy] and say, 'Six of these, ten of those, three of those'. I have to say, 'Three times back-to-back, six times back-to-back, or one sided, or ... and please staple together, clip together, or...', very detailed, very exact instructions, or there is confusion later." (trans#18). However, expatriates from low power distance cultures expect capable employees to be proactive and show accountability (Tran et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). As one host national participant stated,

The expatriate will think these people are lousy, but on the other side, these people who are doing assembly for us [HCNs] will think, "He is also not capable because he can't give us any direction; he only gives us harsh words." Maybe the expectation between these two parties is different. So, the first one [the expat] think you need to

think [original emphasis of the participant in the audio record] to reach the target, but these people [the HCNs] think ... they need leadership. (Trans#14)

The following statements of expatriate participants also show that expatriates expect Malaysian HCNs to be proactive and accept responsibility:

Task self-discipline. They don't like "Oh, I have a task and this is my date, so I must be finished", that they, let's say self-driven and self-discipline, sometimes they are missing it. (trans#5)

You ask him [the HCN], "Can you tell me what the normal operation temperature at this place is?" They will tell you "No, we don't have a measurement there." [...] But maybe there is a temperature measurement not far away from this one. [...] So, if you don't ask this very specifically [...] they will tell you "No". (trans#20)

If they [HCNs] are interested, they will not wait until I come. Before I ask [...], they [would] already present me a finished result. (trans#21)

I think Europeans in general are more straightforward, more direct. In the end it's your job, your responsibility. Here, they don't have such responsibility awareness. [...] They don't think about "Oh, what's the next step?" or "How can I improve?" They only do literally what you ask from them. (trans#22)

While expatriates expect their host national colleagues to be more proactive and accept responsibility, "especially to Asians, you have to ask to know what they think" (Trans#7; see also Okada, 2016). Unmet expectations may cause expatriates to commit the fundamental attribution error by explaining HCNs' behaviours with dispositional factors such as their capability or willingness to work (Lilly, 2020). This is shown in the following statements:

Malaysia is known as a polite country [...]. So, sometimes [...], the expatriates [...] think, "These guys are not strict enough, not hard enough; you need to work hard to be like me." This is something we need to figure out ... either we are not capable, or they are being judgemental. (Trans#14)

Malaysians, [...] you do not voice out your opinions until you are directly asked. [...] So that's why the bigger bosses didn't see them [HCNs] that they are capable to do it. (Trans#15)

They [HCNs] only do literally what you ask from them. That's very, very hard, and that's their character. (trans#22)

Another potential source of unmet expectations relates to the perception of particularly Western expatriates that separating relational issues from task-related issues is a sign of professionalism (Brett & Gelfand, 2006; Zhang & Constantinovits, 2016). Hence, expatriates often do not expect negative consequences on the relational level after heavy disputes with HCNs on job-related issues. As one expatriate said, "In Germany, there is nothing wrong to criticise somebody as long as you are based, as long as it's based on facts and you are not getting personal" (trans#0). However, when Malays express disagreement, the discussion is more discursive and packed in polite words, and a soft and gentle tone is always expected (Paramasivam, 2007; Richardson et al., 2016). Accordingly, the host national participants in this thesis are often surprised when expatriates act "as [if] nothing happened" after "scolding" and "banging on the table", as the following statements show:

I know one thing is they put everything on the table, they clear it, and the next thing it will be like as nothing happened to them, you know? They can bang on the table and scold you at one point, and the next 15 minutes they can call you, "Hey, let's go to have lunch." (Trans#8)

Today we can have a really strong argument and tomorrow everything is fine [...]. The Malay is *nachtragend* [German for resentful]. If I lost him today because I was too heavy with him, I think I have completely lost him. (trans#9)

Malaysians also have a high Humane Orientation, which means that they have a high need for social harmony (House et al., 2004).⁵² This is reflected in Malaysians' reluctance

⁵² Humane Orientation is one of the nine cultural dimensions introduced by House et al. (2004) which indicates the degree to which a society encourages individuals to be fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.

to have direct confrontations and their desire to comfort other people (Noordin & Jusoff, 2010; Tamam, 2000), as the following statements show:

Maybe sometimes it's good to just silence rather than saying something that may hurt people [...]. If you like it, you mention it; if you don't like it, maybe you just keep quiet. (Trans#11)

We are not angry, or we don't make people sad. We talk about good things. [...] I don't like to make things worse by talking "You are rude." (Trans#12)

I find that Malaysians like to say "Yes" but don't always forward through the way that they do things. They'd like to please you that if they don't know how to please you, they will just say "Yes". (trans#18)

However, some expatriates expect problems to be stated clearly and discussed openly (see also Friedman et al., 2006; Ting-Toomey, 2010). This is illustrated by the following statements:

Malaysians won't go straight and say it; you will try to either hide it or try to soften the approach, but then, either expat is "No", it's go direct. (Trans#15)

People [HCNs] are used to saying "No" as well here, but sometimes it's easier to not say anything, just to be quiet. This is sometimes really a ... a challenge I face daily, actually. (trans#20)

Mistrust emerges when expatriates recognise HCNs' reluctance to have direct confrontation by pinpointing the "root cause" of a problem. As some expatriates stated,

When you talk to the people here, everyone seems to be friends with everyone, so I think they [HCNs] also don't tell the truth, what is the real root cause of a problem, to avoid that another person gets blamed, and they try to cover themselves. (trans#4)

We don't like to hear stories; we like to hear the truth regardless how good, how bad. This is often ... with locals, it's not given. Either they are protecting the plant or protecting themselves [...] they only tell half of the story. (trans#21)

I just like to know where there is a quality issue or they made a mistake, simple things which you would usually say, but they always try to hide. (trans#22)

On the part of the HCNs, mistrust emerges when expatriates show a lack of interest in building a long-term relationship with HCNs. As one host national interviewee explained, “I just sometimes have this feeling like this guy [expatriate] just want to have this six-months period and be done with it. [...] There are some guys [expats], they [...] think long term, [...] then I have better trust with him” (Trans#13).

According to previous research, social relationship building is a crucial aspect in the Southeast Asian business environment (Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012; Purchase & Phungphol, 2008). Similarly, one Malaysian Chinese participant said, “German suppliers, they are very straightforward. To them A is A, B is B. [...] just business, yeah. In Asia, it’s very different. When you go to supplier, you want to [...] get to know them as a friend first” (Trans#7). However, many Western expatriates in particular are used to drawing a line between business and private relationships (Ang & Tan, 2016; Bader et al., 2018; Bochner & Hesketh, 1994). As one German interviewee observed, “[In Malaysia] there are a lot of things going on beside the actual work [...], if it’s sports events, if it’s dinners, or other festivals. In Germany, it’s more like you go there [to work] on a daily basis, you work there, and that’s it” (trans#20). Another expatriate said, “I was once surprised, so a colleague of mine was taking a call ‘oh hi brother...’, but it was not his brother [...] it’s really like they are treating each other more like family” (trans#9). Therefore, expatriates’ and HCNs’ different expectations regarding how much (private) time to spend with each other may cause HCNs to develop mistrust towards their expatriate colleagues.

Finally, HCNs have a different time orientation, which sometimes causes expatriates’ frustration (Tamam, 2000). For instance, in monochronic cultures (e.g., Germany, Switzerland, the USA), time is perceived as a straight line which is divided into units (Arman & Adair, 2012; Floyd & Cardon, 2020). Thus, the emphasis is put on “doing one thing at a time” and efficiency, which means time commitments, such as deadlines and schedules, are taken seriously (Migdal, 2020; Nonis et al., 2005; Voevoda, 2020). This is illustrated by the following statement of one expatriate participant: “they [HCNs] spend a lot of time at work. [...] I think sometimes it’s not so productive, not all the time. Maybe sometimes it’s even better to spend less time and to work in a more efficient way. [...] For me personally, it’s important to spend a lot of time with my family, so I rather try to get my job done” (trans#20).

In contrast, people of polychronic cultures such as Malaysians consider time as cyclic with no clear beginning and end (Tahir & Ismail., 2007; Tamam, 2000). Many things are done at once, and the focus is put on the completion of tasks rather than the fulfilment of time commitments (e.g., punctuality, deadlines, time schedules; Migdal, 2020; Nonis et al., 2005; Tran et al., 2020). As some expatriate participants observed,

The people here in Malaysia, I don't think they are used to the focus on efficiency. [...] When you don't achieve the production target in 8 hours, in the normal working hours, then you go for 2 or 3 hours overtime, and then you still achieve the target, but with higher cost. To my mindset, it's waste to invest 3 hours more than you have to. (trans#4)

Back in South Africa, if I give something to somebody to do, [...] I would get an answer within one or two days depending on the task, but here [...], the people won't come back to you. They might come back in two weeks or three weeks. (trans#5)

You try to get things done, maybe sometimes then you have to push, you have to set your own deadlines or follow deadlines, and I think this is very flexible here [in Malaysia]. (trans#20)

Non-Western expatriates also perceived different time orientations as a challenge:

For our culture, we do it in a fast way; we do it urgently. [...] Here [in Malaysia] we plan to do meeting, maybe we will do it [in] one month or two months. (trans#19)

Pune [a city in West India] is more or less same as Malaysia. People are a bit relaxed. [...] So, you need to change the wheel completely to the opposite; the one which is running fast at 100 km, you need to slow down to 50 km. This is also a big challenge, but since I moved from Chennai [city in South India] to Pune, I already learned that. (trans#17)

These statements show that different time orientations may cause misunderstandings between expatriates and HCNs on the urgency of tasks, which eventually fuels expatriates' negative attribution of HCNs' behaviours (Alwan, 2019; Horak & Yang, 2016). For instance, one Malay participant remarked, "Malaysians, when we say 'We meet at 5', their 5 can be 5:30" (Trans#16). Meanwhile, expatriates of monochronic cultures often perceive unpunctuality as a sign of unreliability and disrespect (Hall, 1959; Llobet Prada,

2019). Furthermore, Muslim employees in Malaysia pray five times per day (Hashim, 2009; Sloane-White, 2018). This collides with some expatriate participants' expectation of doing one thing (i.e., work) at a time (i.e., during work time). As one Malaysian participant observed, "the Muslims normally pray like five times a day [...], to some of the expats, they don't like it because they feel that this is too much time wasted" (Trans#7).

In sum, the qualitative analysis of this thesis has provided largely confirming results in line with prior research and identified three core aspects which eventually impede effective work relationships between expatriates and HCNs. First, expatriates expect capable and motivated employees to accept responsibility, be proactive, and show assertiveness, whereas HCNs in Malaysia expect leaders to be gentle and caring and to set clear goals by providing detailed instructions (see also Alwan, 2019; Hall, 1959; Horak & Yang, 2016; Okada, 2016). Second, in line with the findings of Friedman et al. (2006) and Ting-Toomey (2010), the Western expatriate participants in particular suggested that they prefer to separate business from private contacts. In contrast, HCNs expect expatriates to spend time and develop a personal relationship with their host national colleagues outside of work (see also Ang & Tan, 2016; Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012; Purchase & Phungphol, 2008). Finally, expatriates of monochronic cultures are used to doing one thing at a time and are driven by deadlines, time schedules, and efficiency (Migdal, 2020; Nonis et al., 2005; Voevoda, 2020). Meanwhile, HCNs in Malaysia emphasise completing a task properly rather than fulfilling time commitments (see also Migdal, 2020; Tahir et al., 2007; Tamam, 2000). Consequently, unmet expectations may cause expatriates to draw negative conclusions about HCNs' motivation to work and underestimate their capabilities.

7.2.1.3 Negative attribution of behaviours

Attribution refers to the underlying process of explaining and drawing inferences from people's behaviour (i.e., behaviour is assigned to cause, or an attribute is assigned to a person because of observed behaviour; Dean & Koenig, 2019; Malle, 2011). People's perceptions are selective and culturally determined (Adler, 1991; Noguchi et al., 2014). For instance, prior research suggests that Asians more frequently identify situational reasons for people's behaviours, while people of individualistic cultures more often

identify individual reasons for others' behaviours (Dean & Koenig, 2019; Kimhi, 2011). For example, trying to explain an expatriate's insulting outburst, one Malay participant in this thesis suggested, "Maybe he has some pressure at home, or maybe he was in a very difficult situation" (Trans#15). Similarly, one expatriate participant observed, "Here [in Malaysia], [...] even if somebody is doing something completely wrong, it's packed very nicely [...], and it's like, 'Oh, maybe he is ill; there are other reasons he can't do that job now'" (trans#9).

In contrast, Western expatriates tend to commit the fundamental attribution error by explaining people's behaviours with dispositional factors related to the individual (Choi et al., 1999; Dean & Koenig, 2019; Kimhi, 2011). For example, in line with Arzhanova (2019), many expatriate participants in this thesis perceived HCNs' inconsistent behaviours as a sign of dishonesty, incapability, or laziness, as the following statements show:

I was frustrated and said, "Okay, either the people here are too stupid or not willing to work." (trans#4)

They are a bit lazy. The Malays are a bit lazy [...]. I have very often the experience in Malaysia, if you don't push things, they will just fall asleep. (trans#9)

After 2.5 years, I'm not clear that these guys are ... if they are either stupid or provoking and lazy. I think they know as more as they are leaning back, as more we will jump; maybe there is already a kind of calculation in it. (trans#21)

They don't have the awareness and responsibility to do things accurately and correctly [...]. You say "Hey, I asked you to change this, but this belongs to that; why didn't you change [that] ... because it's a set?" [...] What do I say? It's like that always. [...] That's their character. (trans#22)

Following the fundamental attribution error, disrespectful feelings such as contempt arise (Kimhi, 2011; Mason, 2017; Roseman, 2018). This is reflected in expatriates' implicit assumption of their superiority and their pessimistic expectations of HCNs' potential for improvement (Arzhanova, 2019; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2018). As one expatriate participant said, "Sometimes they are just ... lazy. Then how to improve?" (trans#22). Disrespect further unfolds in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs through a

condescending attitude, hostile jokes, or simply ignoring the other (Benditt, 2008; Gervais & Fessler, 2017; Mahajan, 2011; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2018). As some host national interviewees noted,

Maybe they [the expatriates] should be more polite to us and respect each other [...]. It's don't simply look down at what we are doing. (Trans#11)

About the food that we eat [...] maybe as they [the expatriates] said it's just a simple joke, but we also need to be respectful to each other. (Trans#15)

Maybe because of misunderstanding, there will be miscommunication, and they [the expatriates] become disrespectful for the local. (Trans#16)

Sometimes you see they [French expatriates] are also ... They don't entertain you, they don't... "Okay... whatever" ... you don't feel welcome sometimes, right? When you ask something, sometimes you feel not responded. (Trans#6)

7.2.2 Theme 2: Respect

Another main theme identified in the qualitative analysis highlights the importance of respect in the intercultural work relationship between expatriates and HCNs in Malaysia. For instance, one expatriate participant noted, "People need a certain respect. Respect that you as an expatriate don't have the impression that you are something better. [...] Because then the people [HCNs] will realise that" (trans#4). Another expatriate said, "Where respect is given, [...] it's another way of working. The other ones are just paddling on the surface; there is no relation" (trans#21).

In line with prior research, this thesis identifies that different types of respect come about in different ways (Clarke & Mahadi, 2017; Middleton, 2006; Huo et al., 2010). These are elaborated in the following sections.

7.2.2.1 Recognition and appraisal respect

Recognition respect considers that people “are owed respect just because they are persons” (Dillon, 2003, para. 25; Laham et al., 2010; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2009). This form of respect is based on the idea of equality and the acceptance of people’s differences (Isaacs, 2020; Malti et al., 2020). For example, as one Malay participant said, “Respect means everybody will have their strength, their good things that others may not have, that we should look at it from a positive way and respect their right and culture” (Trans#11). Similarly, a German expatriate participant suggested that expatriates should “avoid the impression that [...] you are something or somebody better than the local staff [...]. [Because] at the end of the day, everyone contributes to his best abilities” (trans#4). In line with Harris and Han (2020), many host national participants highlighted that recognition respect is the key to successful multiculturalism in Malaysia:

The Malaysian culture, of course since we are multiracial, it’s respecting other people. (Trans#6)

In Malaysia, we have different cultures; we have different ethnics, so I think we still live in harmony because of the respect. We respect each other. [...] it means we accept their way, accept their culture, and most important thing, you know in order to respect, we need to know, we need to learn their culture [...]. Accept, and we appreciate and celebrate their culture. (Trans#12)

That’s why Malaysia is multiracial with multi-religions: because we adapt to each other, we compromise; that’s why we have no issues to accept other cultures. (Trans#16)

Beside recognition respect, appraisal respect arises from a person’s positive evaluation of another person’s excellent character or outstanding capabilities (Clarke & Mahadi, 2017; Dillon, 2003; Naiditch, 2018). According to some participants, appraisal respect must be earned by expatriates showing knowledge and expertise. For example, one expatriate participant suggests that expatriates “have to offer support that they [HCNs] know ‘Oh, experienced ones, capable’” (trans#21). In contrast, when an expatriate “doesn’t know much”, HCNs will “lose respect [...], [and] whatever the expatriate says, it’s not followed by the locals” (Trans#1).

Appraisal respect is also given by HCNs to those expatriates who can demonstrate appropriate behaviours according to the local culture (see also Benditt, 2008; Malti et al., 2020; Naiditch, 2018). As one host national participant emphasised, “[Expatriates] need to know the rule of the culture; they need to respect our culture the way we respect them” (Trans#14). This starts with simple behavioural norms such as “not wearing shoes into [the] house” and “cover[ing] the head” when going to a mosque, but it also goes deeper to the understanding of cultural values and the willingness to adjust one’s own mental maps and behaviours to fit in the host culture. As one host national participant illustrated,

Even though he was expat, he knew I’m Muslim and he respect my culture and also religion, so I’m giving him full respect on this. [...] So, for example, we are having some meeting on Friday, so our meeting finished a little bit late ... because on Friday we are having some Friday prayer [...]. When we start [the meeting at] around 12, basically we can’t reach our office around 2 [...]. So, how he react? He just stopped at one of the mosques nearby to supplier place. He stopped there and waited for us to pray until we finished. [...] We know that he know about our religion that we are compulsory to pray during that time [...]. He managed to find nearby mosque and stop, ask us “Go to pray”, so I respect this. (Trans#14)

In contrast, the second expatriate supervisor of this host national participant failed to gain HCNs’ respect by trying to impose his cultural norm of doing one thing (i.e., work) at a time (i.e., during work time):

The next boss, one thing that I’m a little bit ... I have some ... not good feelings, is when he asked us whether we are able to pray during break time. So, [...] he asked us, “The first prayer, you need to do it during the break, and the second prayer, you do it when you go back home.” So, this is something I feel not good. (Trans#14)

Consequently, HCNs feel less comfortable working with those expatriates who do not show recognition respect to the local culture. This decreases their willingness to provide honest feedback and hinders the development of trust. As one expatriate suggested, “If you have to do some business with persons you know they don’t respect you, you don’t feel comfortable; you also don’t know how open you can talk” (trans#21). More severely, expatriates who neglect the local practices may encounter a loss of respect from the HCNs, which causes them to “not get the necessary support from the people [HCNs]” (trans#5).

As one host national participant explained, “When they [expats] want to show the anger, they show it in front of everybody else, but that is not the way the Malaysians do it. [...] That normally doesn’t go well with the locals [...], they will tend to lose respect to the expatriates” (Trans#1).

Another host national interviewee provided an example of an expatriate whom HCNs perceive as disrespectful because he failed to comply with the local culture:

We have a recent situation where one of the contract assemblers, operator died, passed away, because of the accident in the line. From our Malaysian culture, when someone passed away, normally the company will give 2 hours break for them [the co-workers] to pay the respect. This one, [...] when the local asked the time out, he [the expatriate boss] said “No”, directly “No”. [...] Okay, at least you ask why, is it normal, [...] but not directly say “No” [...]. Because it’s against our culture. (Trans#15)

Moreover, Van Quaquebeke et al. (2009) suggest that people put more emphasis on being treated respectfully than working for someone with remarkable capabilities. Middleton (2006) proposes that recognition and appraisal respect are cumulative in nature. This is also identified in this thesis, as one host national interviewee stated,

I remember that every morning when he [the expatriate boss] comes to the office, he would shake hands with everybody and say good morning, [...] everyone without fail. [...] He does it to every single one, even to the tea lady who is making the tea, he will go and say good morning to her. Honestly, everybody loves him in the company, everybody. [...] I think this is something you ... you respect. [...]. When people are able to feel that they are respected, they will respect you as well. (Trans#8)

Hence, expatriates receive a higher level of appraisal respect by HCNs when they demonstrate recognition respect. This is also in line with Nguyen et al. (2019), who identify a positive relationship between subordinates’ felt recognition respect and their appraisal respect to leaders in return. Expatriates’ recognition respect to HCNs also becomes evident when expatriates try to “lower the barrier” and establish “some sense of equality” with HCNs. This promotes HCNs’ willingness to engage in open communication and offer support to facilitate expatriates’ actions. As one host national participant stated, “When there is a respect, mutual respect between individuals, you will solve a lot of issues. You will not have any troubles that people are not sharing anything

with you; people may talk different in front of you and at the back of you [...], they will be honest to you” (Trans#8). Another HCN elaborated, “The local will definitely support you if you gain respect from the locals. If the locals understand that you are not coming here as a high and mighty guy, [...] I think the locals will respect you, and then of course they will be very much align[ed] with your objective” (Trans#7). This was also recognised by some expatriate participants who suggested that recognition respect may facilitate open communications with HCNs, as the following statements show:

I always try to speak to the people [HCNs ...] in the way that they don’t have the feeling that I’m above of them but speaking to them on the same level [...]. I think this is important that the local staff here doesn’t have the feeling that you feel that you are something better. [...] To close or to reduce this barrier. [...] Then,] it’s way easier for them also to open up. (trans#4)

Some sense of equality is really important [...]. I think the more equal the workplace is, the more effective the job gets done, essentially. If there is somebody who feels lower, [...] they are not gonna share their ideas. (trans#18)

In contrast, with a low level of recognition respect, the participants suggested that the work relationship will be full of tension and ineffective. This is also in line with Walsh et al. (2018), who note that a low level of recognition respect increases workplace incivility.⁵³ As one Malay participant explained, “if this guy [expat] feel that ‘these guys [HCNs] are stupid’, I mean, he will teach even if he thinks they are stupid, [...] but with] a lot of tension, a lot of friction, cannot be effective” (Trans#13). Furthermore, when HCNs take note of expatriates’ condescending attitude, “the respect for the expatriate sometimes drops” (Trans#1). This is illustrated by the following experience of one Indian expatriate who had once worked as an HCN with an expatriate supervisor:

I try to make one step ahead, bringing some systems inside, making some IT set up, but my boss [German expatriate] said, “No, you Indians need to start from the scratch. Write down, make manual signatures, write down manually [...]”. Just for example, when one truck is coming inside with material, you need to write down “Okay, this

⁵³ Workplace incivility refers to subtle interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace, such as receiving little attention and being a target of derogatory remarks (Walsh et al., 2018).

plate number, what time coming in, [...] you need to write it manually”. [...] the control tower boss, new boss, came here to streamline everything and said, “You need to start from the scratch!” and I said, “Isn’t it insane?” (trans#17)

In sum, the qualitative results of this thesis suggest that expatriates demonstrating recognition respect might foster HCNs’ appraisal respect in return, which eventually promote open communication and the development of an effective working relationship between expatriates and HCNs in Malaysia.

7.2.2.2 Respect as social power

Beside recognition and appraisal respect, Middleton (2006) proposes a third type of respect, namely status recognition respect. According to Middleton (2006), status recognition respect refers to the respect given to people’s social status rather than their qualities. Expanding on this idea, this thesis has identified respect as social power as another subtheme which illustrates how expatriates’ actions may affect their working relationship with HCNs in Malaysia. Specifically, social power is the magnitude of a person’s control and influence over others, which is determined by one’s hierarchical position, personality dominance, or socioeconomic status (Fragale et al., 2011; Schmid Mast, 2010). As one expatriate participant of this thesis elaborated, “If we send somebody from Holland, they [HCNs] have their respect from day one. They have to listen; they don’t have a choice” (trans#22). Another German expatriate participant of this thesis suggested that “the people [HCNs] still have a lot of respect, not only in terms of hierarchy but also in terms of cultural background” (trans#4). One Malay participant emphasised that this is especially true with “people coming from Europe” (Trans#14). This coincides with prior research which suggests that the “historical legacy of privileges” (Leonard, 2008, p. 57) might leave locals in postcolonial countries with a more positive attitude towards expatriates from former colonising countries (Carr et al., 2001; Richardson, 2021). With Malaysia being a former colony of the British Empire (for more details, see Section 2.2), Western expatriates might, therefore, enjoy a higher level of status recognition respect and acceptance in the country compared to non-Western expatriates (Koh & Sin, 2022; Saxena, 2019).

However, in contrast to recognition respect, respect as social power increases the barrier between expatriates and HCNs because it is based on HCNs' docility and obedience (Alvehus, 2020; Dillon, 2003; Malti et al., 2020; Schmid Mast, 2010). As one expatriate participant of this thesis observed, "Role boss is different here than in Germany. [...] There is way, way more respect on the one hand, but on the other hand, also way, way more barrier" (trans#0). Another expatriate suggested, "If you have more support, the gap is smaller; they don't have much respect anymore, then [...] I like to keep the gap with some people [...] because that's the only way to control them" (trans#22). Hence, respect as social power is intended to increase expatriates' control over HCNs rather than promote open discussions with them as equals.

While Malaysian employees tend to accept power differences because of their high power distance orientation (Abu Bakar & Mustaffa, 2011; Hofstede, 2003), their deference and obedience are based on the fulfilment of certain role expectations (Schmid Mast, 2010). For example, as one host national participant of this thesis suggested, "Leader has to show characteristics which is supportive, which is honest" (Trans#6). To illustrate HCNs' role expectation of leaders, another expatriate participant also said, "If you [...] have two faces, this side you show like a lion, this side you show like a rat, then people [subordinates] are lost; which one to follow?" (trans#17). Concerning expatriates in nonmanagerial positions, respect is given because of their status as experts and specialists. Hence, expatriates are expected to be knowledgeable, skilful, and act in line with the organisation's rules. As one expatriate said, "I think especially local staff might have the idea that the expatriate already knows everything better" (trans#3). Another expatriate stated, "I more have the feeling that the Malay people think there is coming somebody from the headquarter, and this is the big boss, and he must know everything" (trans#9). However, when expatriates fail to meet these expectations, HCNs' respect decreases, and "whatever the expatriate says, it's not followed by the locals" (Trans#1). This is supported by the following statements:

Of course, I cannot say to him "[...] this is not the real problem" because sometimes these guys [expats] can be considered "the better one", like expert one, so it's very tricky when I work with guys like this. (Trans#13)

You said you are the specialist, but you are doing something wrong which are not following the rule set up by the company [...]. [Y]ou give some instruction to these

people, local people, [...] so-called standard operation procedure, [...] but then [...], the people who are “so-called” specialist do against the procedure. (Trans#14)

It is more troublesome for expatriates’ effective working with HCNs when they react to HCNs’ reluctance to follow their instructions with even greater use of social power. For instance, one expatriate manager stated, “If you are gentle, they don’t listen, so I just chose to remain firm” (trans#22). Another Indian expatriate recalled from his own experience as a host national employee, “Then the argument will be, ‘We are Germans; we are the pioneers in automotive. You don’t teach us’” (trans#17). However, this may cause a greater loss of respect on the part of the HCNs, which leads to their lower level of commitment, contact avoidance, and deteriorating performance (Clarke & Mahadi, 2017; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2018), as the following statements show:

He [expatriate] will impede on you that he wants you to do this [...], it doesn’t make sense to do this; there is no benefit to anyone [...]. But if he [is] impeding people to do this, [...] you don’t have respect from the locals, and then the locals don’t ... first, he [the HCN] can either become very ineffective person; secondly, eventually he might leave the company because he can’t work with you anymore. (Trans#7)

Maybe they [HCNs] will have some uncomfortable feelings like “Oh, I don’t like to work with this guy [expatriate] anymore”. Maybe they will avoid each other, avoid contact (Trans#11).

Consequently, respect as social power eventually drives expatriates to be even more separated from their host national colleagues, which reduces their likelihood of receiving HCNs’ support. As a host national participant explained, “They [expatriates] think they know better, [...] so there is no point for me to say [...] ‘This is not the problem’” (Trans#13). The example of the expatriate manager who opened a dealership in the village area (see Section 7.2.1.2) also shows that respect as social power silences HCNs where open communications would have been more beneficial for expatriates’ goal achievement. This complies with prior research which suggests that employee silence (i.e., employees’ purposive withholding of information, ideas, and opinions) is a commonly used strategy in high power distance and collectivistic cultures (e.g., Malaysia) for employees to avoid direct confrontation, especially with authorities (Duan et al., 2018; Jahanzeb et al., 2018; Lam & Xu, 2019).

In sum, respect as social power at best results in HCNs' followership and obedience. However, when expatriates fail to meet the role expectations associated with their social powers (i.e., being leaders and experts), the use of respect as social power might result in HCNs' loss of respect and decreased willingness to provide expatriates with extra support.

7.2.3 Theme 3: Social capital as an indicator of relationship quality

In exploring expatriates' and HCNs' perceptions of a high-quality work relationship, themes were identified which relate to the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

7.2.3.1 The structural dimension of social capital

The structural dimension of social capital refers to the impersonal network characteristics such as expatriates' number of network ties and frequency of contact with their host national colleagues (for discussion of the adopted conceptualisation of social capital, see Section 4.2). In line with prior research (e.g., Ang, 2013; Bruning et al., 2012; Ren et al., 2020), this thesis identifies that one important aspect in a good intercultural work relationship concerns expatriates' interactions with HCNs outside of work. As one Malaysian Indian participant of this thesis explained, "If the staff [HCN] is seeing the expatriate only for work matters, or there is more on top of work matters ... For example, they [expatriate and HCN] are sitting and having a lunch meal together, or they are having a chat in the smoking area, or a coffee at the bakery, these are things that you can observe how the expatriate's relationship [is] with the local" (Trans#2). In a similar vein, another Malay interviewee highlighted the importance of expatriates establishing a personal relationship with HCNs outside of work, saying, "At least we should find time out to become friends, not just business. Of course, we don't drink, but [...] I play golf; I play golf with A., with S., but not D yet [all three expatriates]. Definitely one day I will bring D. to the golf field" (Trans#16).

According to Spillover Theory, people's attitudes and behaviours in one domain spill over to another one (Hecht & Boies, 2009; Martinez-Corts et al., 2015; Westman, 2001). Hence, those expatriates who develop a personal relationship with HCNs in the nonwork domain might also benefit from more support at work. This is shown by the following participant statements:

If you talking in a working environment, it shouldn't stop just at the working hours, and there should be occasions when you try to spend time with them [HCN] outside of the working hours. For example, they have a party together, or sports activity ... something, so a lot of the locals also, they are very ... they behave in a more relaxed manner outside of work. When you go *there* [original emphasis of the participant in the audio record], then the input that you get is very different, [...] which will also help you in your work. (Trans#2)

If you are not speaking to a guy [HCN] every day, [...] only when you need something you go to this guy, then you will not get 100% what you need because you don't develop that relationship with him. You need to have a relationship [...] that the [HCN] employees feel "Yes, I have to tell this; this is correct information that needs to be communicated. (trans#17)

I think here it's very, very important to build up this personal relationship [...] because once you set up or you have the personal relationship [...] I think it simplifies things; then you actually can get this opening up. So, yes, it's also about maybe spending times, participating in these activities beyond work. Spend time in the pantry; talk to them. (trans#20)

When HCNs feel uncomfortable interacting with expatriates and avoid contact, "there is just the minimum of communication, [and] the minimum amount of work gets done" (trans#5). As one host national interviewee explained, "Maybe they will have some uncomfortable feelings, like 'Oh ... I don't like to work with this guy anymore'. Maybe they will try to avoid each other, avoid contact. [...] It's not good for working environment; we cannot have good teamwork, [...] it has very negative impact on work" (Trans#11). HCNs' contact avoidance is also shown by the experience of these expatriates:

That would be nice if I'm just being part of this communication flow. That would be just nice, but I'm totally outside of this communication. (trans#3)

When I text her [HCN] sometimes, ask "Let's go outside, take something, eat something", she never replied; she said, "Sorry, I'm busy, busy, busy, busy". [...] No one has called me to make me participant of a project. They [HCN] never called me; they never asked me. (trans#19)

On the other hand, the results of this thesis suggest that frequent contact does not automatically mean that expatriates enjoy their interactions with HCNs. As one expatriate participant stated, "You can join 50 times Nasi Lemak [Malaysian breakfast] with some juice, but the 60th times you will say, 'No, not possible' because they [HCNs] are living in another world" (trans#21). This confirms the argument of this thesis that a single dimension of social capital alone cannot properly reflect expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs (as discussed in Section 4.2.4). Hence, not only the quantity but also the quality of contact with HCNs need to be considered while examining expatriates' relationship quality with HCNs. This aspect is captured by the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

7.2.3.2 The relational dimension of social capital

The relational dimension of social capital reflects the depth of relationship between expatriates and HCNs and is conceptualised in this thesis as trust and commitment (see also Akhavan & Mahdi Hosseini, 2016; Horn et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2013). Mayer et al. (1995) suggest that trust develops from the judgement of a person's trustworthiness, which is based on three criteria, namely the person's ability, benevolence towards the trustor, and integrity. Applying this to the context of expatriates' work relationships with HCNs, expatriates' trustworthiness is determined based on their knowledge and expertise (i.e., ability), good intentions towards HCNs (i.e., benevolence), and consistent behaviour (i.e., integrity).

Accordingly, the participants of this thesis suggest that to win the trust of HCNs, expatriates must be sincere and supportive (i.e., benevolent) and "walk the talk" (i.e., have integrity). As one host national interviewee said, "The expat has to be sincere. When the

expat comes to lead a team, he is the leader, right? Leader has to show characteristics which is supportive, which is honest, so the employees can trust, so the locals can trust the expat” (Trans#6). Similarly, another expatriate emphasised, “You need to walk the talk. That means [...] you are some kind of role model [...]. You can’t tell and expect the people to do something when you as an individual behave completely differently” (trans#4). The importance of expatriates’ ability and integrity to gain HCNs’ trust was also emphasised by another expatriate participant, who said, “You have to act as a role model. What you talk about should be visible later on, not only talk about [...], then you have to offer support that they [HCNs] know ‘Oh, experienced ones, capable’” (trans#21).

Where trust is given, expatriates may benefit from a high level of support from HCNs (see also Ang, 2013; Ang & Tan, 2016; Johnson & Cullen, 2017). As one Malay participant observed, “They [expats and HCNs] have their trust; [...] I think they never had a problem to ask or to request any help because the locals will definitely, will jump to help them” (Trans#15). Another Malaysian Indian suggested, “You have to create the trust. Make sure the employee feel secure; then I think the support from the employee will be given” (Trans#6). Trust is also required for HCNs to feel comfortable enough to provide honest feedback, communicate job-related problems, and resolve interpersonal conflicts faster (Chang et al., 2021; Pinjani, & Palvia, 2013). As one expatriate participant stated, “I just asked [...] the people [HCN] ‘Why are you doing things as you do it?’ In the beginning of course it was difficult because they ... I mean, from the beginning we never had this trust level that everyone really opened up, including myself” (trans#4).

Conversely, mistrust leads to HCNs’ resignation and relational breakdown (Johnson-Tyas, 2021; Ljubica et al., 2019). As one Malay participant of this thesis described, “I tried to do the openness of communication. It got backfired, and I got the burst, the outburst from the expat directly on my face. [...] After that, I stopped. If I have anything or disagreement, I just let it go; I just try to reflect into another way [...]. It becomes mistrust” (Trans#15).

In line with Mpinganjira et al. (2017), who identify a positive relationship between trust and commitment, this thesis also identifies that HCNs in Malaysia have more trust in those expatriates who show affective commitment by building a long-term relationship with HCNs. For example, one Malay participant said, “There are some guys [expats] they [...] think long term, [...] then I have better trust with him” (Trans#13).

Expatriates' affective commitment to their host national colleagues is observable through their interest in trying to understand the local culture and developing a personal relationship with HCNs outside of work. As one expatriate suggested, "Nobody wants to be in work and only think work and talk work; you do need a little bit of a break and say, 'Okay, we are people; we can speak on a normal level and talk about normal things. It's not only work, work, work'" (trans#5). Another host national participant explained, "You want to know a person; you also have to try to understand some personal lifestyle of the person. For example, M. [former expat boss], when he was in Malaysia, he really, really want to know the culture of Malaysia, really, really want to know how it works, how the people work in Malaysia" (Trans#7).

Expatriates with a higher level of relationship commitment also choose to remain in their networks with HCNs "despite them leaving the country". As one Malaysian Indian interviewee described, "They [expatriates] also invite me to their home for a meal and stuff like that, so that relationship continues; it never ends despite them leaving the country or finishing the assignment" (Trans#2). Another Malaysian Chinese participant considers her former expatriate boss her family member, which reveals a high level of trust and commitment in their relationship: "Like my ex-boss [expatriate], he is like my family also. [...] I'm so close to him that sometimes I think he is closer than my own family. If I have any problem, he will be, he or the wife will be the one that I go to. Even though we are much, much far apart now, but we are still keeping that good relationship between us" (Trans#8).

In line with Mäkelä (2007) and Mäkelä and Brewster (2009), this thesis identifies that remaining in a long-term relationship with HCNs provides expatriates with "immediate support" when job-related problems arise which require their former host national colleagues' expertise. As one expatriate elaborated, "In whatever case, I have to contact one of the network colleagues [former host national colleagues], then it's an immediate support because we know each other" (trans#21).

A high level of trust and commitment also allows expatriates to access extra-role support from their host national colleagues which is beyond their formal job descriptions (Johnson & Cullen, 2017; Varma et al., 2016). This becomes clear from the following statements:

You have to create the trust. Make sure the employee [HCN] feel secure; then I think the support from the employee will be given. (Trans#6)

When you know somebody and you feel that person [expatriate] is worth to be a long-time friendship, then you can definitely, you can have that [personal] relationship with them, but some people [expatriates] you feel like “No, he’s not that kind of person who treasure our friendship”, or feel ... appreciate about what we are doing, for those [...] we just be like colleagues, you know? (Trans#8)

They [expatriates and HCNs] have their trust, [...] I think they never had a problem to ask or to request any help because the locals will definitely, will jump to help them. (Trans#15)

Such extra-role support includes emotional support, informational support, and socialisation support (see also Bayraktar, 2019; Mahajan & Toh, 2014; Toh et al., 2012; Vance et al., 2014). As one Malaysian Chinese participant of this thesis explained, “Sometimes when they [expats] are in a foreign country they need a lot of help. They don’t know a lot of things; they need something but they don’t know who to go, where to get it, and I think the local employee[s], [...] have to make them ... that they feel warm, they feel safe, and also they feel life is not so difficult in our countr[y]” (Trans#8). Another Malay participant also suggested, “We can show them [expatriates] direction to go to the interesting place. Introducing with the best local food, [...] I think they will be very happy and excited” (Trans#11). Thus, HCNs may provide expatriates emotional and informational support to make them feel comfortable and safe in the host country.

Besides general information which reduces expatriates’ uncertainty and anxiety in the host country (e.g., information about food and interesting places to visit), HCNs may also provide useful information concerning the culture and the country to support expatriates’ job performance (Martin, 2021). As one Malaysian Chinese participant of this thesis suggested, “When you come to a place like Malaysia, [...] you have to understand the culture and also understand the market so that you can be successful in this region. [...] maybe an expat doesn’t realise that you may not need to stick to your rule how it’s been run in Europe. In the region, maybe sometimes you may want to change it according to how the region’s been run here” (Trans#7).

HCNs may also act as cultural mediators between expatriates and other host national employees to increase their communication effectiveness (Mahajan & Toh, 2014; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2016). As one Malay participant of this thesis suggested, “At work [...] what we can offer is to close communication gap, make them understand our culture, help them how to work with locals, how to engage with us” (Trans#11). Another Malaysian Indian participant stated, “They [expatriates] used to come to us, to ask us, when they had issues dealing with other people, and we used to tell them, ‘Okay boss, you know what, this one just leave it first’, you know, ‘You talk to him later, or just give him some time’, and once they know it, it worked” (Trans#1). Some expatriate participants also recognised the importance of HCNs as cultural mediators. As one expatriate participant illustrated, “My guys [HCNs], I need them. They are talking the local language; I need them to translate in details, to understand and maybe also to teach about the culture, [be]cause often that is now my situation: ‘What is your proposal; how I should react?’” (trans#21).

In sum, the results of this thesis comply with prior research which suggests that a high level of trust and commitment increases HCNs’ willingness to provide expatriates extra informational, emotional, and socialisation support (Johnson & Cullen, 2017; Varma et al., 2016). This eventually contributes to expatriates’ cross-cultural adjustment (i.e., their psychological comfort living and working in the host country) and their improved performance (see also Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Bruning et al., 2012; Varma et al., 2016).

7.2.3.3 The cognitive dimension of social capital

In this thesis, the cognitive dimension of social capital is conceptualised as including both aspects of “shared language and narratives” and “shared goals” (for conceptualisation of the cognitive dimension of social capital, see Section 4.2.3). Shared language and narratives refer to expatriates’ ability to process and interpret HCNs’ messages correctly (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Richardson et al., 2017); shared goals mean that HCNs act in line with expatriates’ goals and offer useful resources for their goal achievement (Chow & Chan, 2008; Liu & Shaffer, 2005; Weerakoon et al., 2019).

Both expatriate and HCN participants of this thesis have highlighted the importance of shared goals in a good work relationship. For example, one expatriate participant

described a good work relationship between expatriates and HCNs in this way: “everyone is working towards the same common goal. Basically, they [expats and HCNs] support each other. Both ways, they [HCNs] can support us [expats] and we [expats] can support them [HCNs]” (trans#5). Another Malay interviewee suggested, “Maybe even we have a different culture, different way of doing things, but we should ... we are having the same objective” (Trans#11).

However, achieving shared goals is a challenging task in intercultural work relationships such as between expatriates and HCNs because of potential miscommunications (Mangla, 2021; Tamam, 2000). This may cause expatriates and HCNs to have different understandings of what the goals are and how to achieve them (i.e., lack of shared goals), as the following statements show:

When you say you don’t achieve the target, then everyone seems to, to my experience, have a different understanding of what is the real problem [...] So, one guy [HCN] said, “Okay, I haven’t achieved the target, but that’s not a problem because I can work 3 hours overtime,” where I would say, “You haven’t achieved the target and now you waste 3 hours of your budget to continue”. (trans#4)

The expatriate needs to learn what are the locals think, because locals just think in number, [...] but the expatriate expect numbers and quality, so the expatriate need to have a way of how to convey this message in a locally accepted way. (Trans#13)

Besides working towards the same goal, participants also highlighted the importance of shared language and narratives for expatriates and HCNs to “have some fun at work” (trans#0). In one HCN’s words, “You can joke, you have serious times, but you are able to joke with your colleagues; that is the most amazing time” (Trans#8). Another host national interviewee said, “They [expatriates and HCNs] have their trust, and then they make jokes among them, and I think they [expatriates] never had a problem to ask or to request any help because the locals will definitely, will jump to help them” (Trans#15). Shared language and narratives hence provide expatriates the opportunity to develop a more personal relationship with HCNs by sharing their humour and telling the right joke at the right time (Kuipers, 2011).

Moreover, this thesis identifies that shared language and narratives facilitate expatriates' correct interpretations of HCNs' verbal and nonverbal messages, which reduces the likelihood of miscommunication. As one expatriate explained, "The guy says 'I will do' are more confident. Persons who say, 'I can try', maybe you need to give him more confidence, then the leader should take more responsibility giving him knowledge, or transfer the knowledge more" (trans#17). In contrast, a low level of shared language and narratives causes expatriates to draw incorrect conclusions from HCNs' behaviours, as the example of one expatriate participant shows: "I go to them and I get mad. I said, 'I already asked you twice; you don't follow my instructions! You don't do what I ask you to do!' Then they don't reply; they are shocked" (trans#22). While the expatriate interpreted HCNs' silence in response to his tantrum as a state of shock, the following statements of HCNs suggest that silence reflects HCNs' disapproval rather than that "they don't have something good to say back" (trans#22; see also Mahmud et al., 2010; Rhee et al., 2014):

Maybe sometimes it's good to just silence rather than say something that may hurt people. [...] if you like it, you mention it; if you don't like it, maybe you just keep quiet. (Trans#11)

If we are angry, I mean only at a time, only at a time, usually we stop at there. (Trans#12)

Early in my management years, I tried to, I didn't even involve in any discussion even though I know it's wrong. [...] I didn't confront it when the people [expatriates] said it was right. (Trans#15)

In sum, the results of this thesis suggest that both shared goals and shared language and narratives are important aspects of a high-quality work relationship between expatriates and HCNs. However, cultural differences between expatriates and HCNs may cause problems such as miscommunication, which impede their achievement of shared goals and shared language and narratives.

7.2.4 Theme 4: The Role of Cultural Intelligence in expatriate–HCN work relationships

As discussed in Section 7.2.1, cultural differences present a great challenge in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs. Problems such as miscommunication, mistrust, and disrespect occur when expatriates do not have “cultural sensitivity” and try to “bulldoze their way through [as] it's done in their country” (Trans#1). Thus, the qualitative results of this thesis suggest that expatriates' Cultural Intelligence (CQ) plays an important role in helping expatriates overcome these cultural challenges, thereby achieving a more effective work relationship with HCNs in Malaysia.

7.2.4.1 Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence

Metacognitive CQ refers to expatriates' awareness of how cultural assumptions may influence their own as well as HCNs' perceptions and actions (Ang et al., 2007). Expatriates with high metacognitive CQ can reflect on previous interactions with HCNs to develop more effective action strategies (Ang et al., 2007; Klafehn et al., 2015). Thus, metacognitive CQ is identified when expatriates demonstrate understanding of the local expectations and adjust their action strategies to facilitate their interactions with HCNs. As the example of this expatriate shows, “I think here [in Malaysia] it's very, very important to build up this personal relationship [...] because once you set up or you have the personal relationship [...] I think it simplifies things, then you actually can get this opening up. So, yes, it's also about maybe spending times participating in these activities beyond work. Spend time in the pantry; talk to them” (trans#20).

Furthermore, expatriates with high metacognitive CQ more easily register cues from their interactions with HCNs which hint at HCNs' disagreement and uncomfortable feelings (Klafehn et al., 2015; Van Dyne et al., 2012), as the following statements show:

I think the expats also realise sometimes that they cannot do this with different culture, and then they start to, like, soften a little bit. Maybe at first [...] people would just bang three times on the table and scold, but the next round he know that people are not able to accept; they maybe just bang one time softly. (Trans#8)

If there is an argument or so, [...] I have then to do something that the next day everything is good again or explain if I see that person [HCN] has a problem with that behaviour, which is not always the case in Germany because I know the people [Germans]. They know about how to take it, [...] it's different here. (trans#9)

There were some discussions for work, but he [expatriate boss] always come, and we talk after that so that we understand why he say something very hard at the first place, and we feel positive after that. (Trans#11)

Because expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ expect misunderstandings in intercultural interactions, they are more attuned in using different action strategies to avoid miscommunication (Klaffehn et al., 2015; Mangla, 2021; Van Dyne et al., 2012). As one expatriate participant stated, "Maybe the way I put something and the way they put something, say something is ... it can be understood differently. [...] So, w]hat I try to do is I always try to get them to ask questions; then I ask them, 'Tell me what I want' [...] to try ensure that we have the same understanding" (trans#5). This confirms prior research which suggests that reaffirmation is a commonly used strategy for achieving a shared understanding in cross-cultural interactions (Deng & Gibson, 2008; Tingvold & Munkejord, 2021).

Expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ also often choose those more effective strategies for persuading HCNs (Ang et al., 2007; Klaffehn et al., 2015). For example, recognising the low involvement of HCNs in pursuing the company's goals, one expatriate manager suggested increasing HCNs' involvement by explaining why certain tasks are necessary, saying, "I don't think that the people really understood why they need to do it. [...] I think the key is first of all to explain [...] that everyone is really aware why this is important" (trans#4). However, Malaysians are more receptive to emotional appeals than to facts and rational arguments (Brett & Gelfand, 2006). As one expatriate participant observed, "For the majority, they [HCNs] are not interested if it would be a high-end premium car or that will be a low brand car; they have the same [low] motivation [in assuring the quality]" (trans#21). Expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ, on the other hand, would choose the more effective action strategy by reminding HCNs of their social duties (i.e., using emotional appeals). This expatriate participant explained, "The Malaysians are quite proud people. [...] T]hey are quite patriotic. So, you can use that to

say, ‘You want to be a proud Malaysian; you want to make sure that any product you are producing here in Malaysia is good. Would you be proud to give this to somebody and say this is proudly Malaysian?’” (trans#5).

Moreover, expatriates with a low level of metacognitive CQ are less likely to consider HCNs’ behaviours as a reaction to their own behaviour (Klafehn et al., 2015; Schlaegel et al., 2021). This is shown by the following excerpt:

trans#22: [...] most of the times they [HCNs] say something stupid, which I already knew; then I get angry and start to shout sometimes.

Interviewer: What do you shout?

trans#22: Just “DO! YOU HEARD ME!”, but everyone is so quiet here. If I do it in Holland in the office, nobody would even pay attention. Here, they all sit there behind their computer. There is no radio, there is no nothing, no atmosphere. They don’t talk to each other about soccer; they don’t talk to each other about anything [...]. They are just like robots.

As discussed in Section 7.2.1.2, silence reflects Malaysian HCNs’ passive resistance and disapproval (see also Carpenter et al., 2004; Rhee et al., 2014). Instead of relating HCNs’ silence to one’s own behaviour (i.e., shouting) and reflecting on it to develop more effective action strategies, a low level of metacognitive CQ causes expatriates to misinterpret the situation and develop disrespectful feelings (e.g., “They are just like robots.”).

In sum, a high level of metacognitive CQ is identified when expatriates are sensitive about the expectations in the Malaysian culture, reflect on their previous experiences with HCNs, and adjust their mental systems to develop more effective action strategies which facilitate their interactions with HCNs.

7.2.4.2 Cognitive Cultural Intelligence

Cognitive CQ refers to expatriates’ knowledge of the norms and values, religious beliefs, legal and economic systems, and social practices of the host culture (Ang & Van Dyne,

2008; Le et al., 2018). Such knowledge includes the dos and don'ts in the host culture as well as knowledge about the country's history, traditions, social/economic background, politics, food, spoken languages, and arts and crafts (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Most of the participants referred to such knowledge as "textbook material" (Trans#2) which is learned from cultural training and reading. As one host national interviewee observed, "Whenever these guys [Korean and Japanese expatriates] come to Malaysia, they are well prepared. They get a proper training that comes to the expressions, when you pray, what are the dos and don'ts of the Malaysian culture. [...] Before they come here, they know we have Hari Raya [Muslim festivity], [...] then we are multiracial. Not just Malaysians; they go to a deeper level. Malays, this is how Malays behave. Indians, this is how Indians behave. Chinese, this is how Chinese behave. [...] Even they have books, different books" (Trans#16).

HCN participants in this thesis also referred to such knowledge as "homework" that expatriates have to do to have a better starting point in Malaysia (Trans#7). As one HCN described, "He [expatriate] also understand the culture of Malaysian, which I think he did homework before. He knows that Asians, we are shy people, so we don't speak up that fast" (Trans#7). Another expatriate participant explained, "We had this cultural training before we came here, and I talked a lot ... at least one year with other expats about their experience here, and this was strongly setting my mind, and with that, I think I had a good start here" (trans#9).

In contrast, this thesis identifies that a low level of cognitive CQ may cause HCNs to perceive expatriates as ignorant and disrespectful. As one host national participant stated, "For example, the Muslims do not eat pork here, the Hindus do not eat beef, so sometimes [...] the expat has to also understand, so you should not be eating something which is not halal in front of them. [...] If you go to certain areas, [...] they get very offended, although they are not eating but on the same table" (Trans#6). Another host national participant observed, "For example, in Europe, when you deal with the Europe customs, it is the same across all. [...] But when it comes to the regions in Southeast Asia, different countries have their own different rules. [...] So, some of the expats when they come here, they do not understand this, and they will go, 'In Europe there is only one way to do this, so why do we have to create so many ways? Why don't we just use this way?'" (Trans#7).

Such statements cause HCNs to discredit expatriates' knowledge and ability, which leads to a decrease in respect (see Section 7.2.2.1). As one HCN participant observed, "Sometimes when the expat come, they don't have the right information about the location; they don't even know the geography [...], it can make things worse. For example, they want to open in 'Klang', but the direction of the expat, he said, 'We open in *Kluang*'. These are two different places. [...] you are opening a dealership in the village area; nobody will buy our car" (Trans#14). Another Indian expatriate recalled from his own experience as a host national employee, "I told him [the participant's former expatriate boss], 'What do you know about India, from South to North? Do you know what kind of people are living ... how many different languages they speak? Everything you don't know. So don't tag that Indians are like this; this is not correct'" (trans#17).

On the other hand, the participants also suggested that cultural knowledge alone is only of limited use in expatriates' everyday interactions with HCNs. As one Malaysian Indian participant explained, "Of course the basics, the base is there, but not things is 100% true, applicable to all situations; it's just a basic. [...] When you go to real time, real life, it does not work in every culture or every situation" (Trans#6). Another expatriate said, "There are some trainings [...]. Sometimes these trainings are just telling you the dos and don'ts, and this sometimes also lead to assumptions which are not always true" (trans#3).

One Malay participant provided the following example to illustrate the limited usefulness of cognitive CQ in expatriates' real-life interactions with HCNs: "Maybe no one prepared ... maybe always is the example given about don't shake hands with a Malay woman or something like that, but then I think there is no chapter about what to do when someone pass away" (Trans#15). An expatriate participant gave another example, saying, "Before we came here, actually we were told, 'Saying no is very difficult in the Asian culture'. I believe, or my experience in Malaysia so far, it's not. People are used to saying no as well here, but sometimes it's easier to not say anything, just to be quiet. This is sometimes really a ... a challenge I face daily, actually" (trans#20).

These statements suggest that "textbook material" only provides expatriates with a surface understanding of the host culture, but "the deeper side of it" (Trans#2) needs to be learned through observation and reflection. This complies with Social Learning Theory, which suggests that people learn from their observations of others' behaviours and reflections on the feedback they receive through communication and interaction (Bandura,

1977; Halim et al., 2019). As one host national participant of this thesis elaborated, “You can learn in your cultural training, [...] don’t touch the forehead, [...] but, end of the day, I think if you observe and the guy is able to accept that these are how things are done here [...]. And to blend in, to blend in with the locals is very important” (Trans#1). Similarly, another host national participant said, “It’s necessary to learn the basics of the culture in Malaysia. [...] Learning that is good; it could be useful in your early days here, but once you pass that early stage, then it’s all about learning as you go, observing what other people do” (Trans#2). This ability reflects expatriates’ metacognitive CQ (Ang et al., 2007).

In short, the results of this thesis suggest that cultural knowledge (i.e., cognitive CQ) allows expatriates to have a better start with HCNs in Malaysia by acting in line with the cultural dos and don’ts. However, “textbook material” (Trans#2) cannot cover all situations in expatriates’ interactions with HCNs and sometimes leads to inaccurate generalisations which may damage expatriates’ relationship with HCNs.

7.2.4.3 Motivational Cultural Intelligence

Motivational CQ reflects expatriates’ intrinsic interest and self-efficacy to engage in and manage the uncertain and complex situations in their cross-cultural interactions with HCNs (Earley & Ang, 2003). Expatriates with high motivational CQ are interested in maintaining their relationships with HCNs even when difficulties arise (Chen et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2015). Thus, expatriates’ motivational CQ becomes evident when they make efforts to understand the local culture and know their host national colleagues better.

For example, one Malaysian Chinese participant described his prior expatriate boss as follows: “When he [expatriate] was in Malaysia, he really, really want to know the culture of Malaysia, really, really want to know how it works, how the people work in Malaysia, also what are the things that need to be careful of, what are the things you think it’s good” (Trans#7). Another expatriate participant suggested, “I think you should be interested in what they [HCNs] do and how they do and also the cultural side. [...] The fact that you are interested in their life and their culture [...] is a good sign to show, ‘I’m not here only to fulfil my task and to maybe earn some money and leave, and you guys can all go to hell. No, I’m also interested in you’” (trans#0).

Motivational CQ is also identified when expatriates try their best to chat with HCNs in the local language, though it is not their language proficiency that matters. For example, one HCN participant elaborated, “I’m not saying you should learn the language that you become a pro [professional]. I’m not saying that. I said you should learn that you can understand, at least to communicate a simple conversation” (Trans#6). Another host national participant observed, “They [expatriates] also take the initiative to learn the basic Malay language, the local language. Even like greetings and ‘Have you had your lunch?’ or things like that. So, this makes an impact to the local staff” (Trans#2).

Furthermore, expatriates’ motivational CQ is evident when they enjoy interacting with HCNs and persist in maintaining their relationships with HCNs despite initial difficulties (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). As one host national interviewee illustrated, adapting to the local culture is not easy: “I’m not saying it’s easy. It’s a lot of effort. It’s a lot of effort because a lot of these is not textbook material. It’s something that you need to ... try to ... learn to your days and months and weeks in the company” (Trans#2). Expatriates with high motivational CQ more willingly accept these challenges and persist to fit into the local culture. As one expatriate participant said, “9 months was really hard job for me. I had to swim against the waves, always, it was a really good experience” (trans#17).

However, expatriates with low motivational CQ give up soon after the first hurdles. For example, when confronted with the Malaysian practice of mixing business and private life (see Section 7.2.1.2), one expatriate participant complained, “To find out what information is important between all that private stuff they are also talking ... is too hard, so, I’m not in all these WhatsApp groups to find out ... no, cannot” (trans#3).⁵⁴ Another expatriate participant explained his withdrawal from interactions with HCNs in this way: “there were two of them [HCNs]. They were asking me about money. I gave them money. After one or two years, [...] they just like, ‘Okay, okay, I will give it to you later, never mind’ [...], so I felt like they used me [...]. So, at that time I said, ‘Okay, I don’t want to get any more relationships or friendships’; it’s better to keep things superficially” (trans#19). These statements suggest that a low level of motivational CQ causes

⁵⁴ WhatsApp is a free internet-based messaging app which allows users to exchange videos, photos, and text messages or make voice calls to stay in touch (Business Insider, 2020).

expatriates to give up interacting with HCNs when difficulties arise instead of showing persistence and trying to fit in.

In sum, expatriate participants are considered to have a high level of motivational CQ when they show interest in knowing more about HCNs' lives and understanding their culture, enjoy interacting with HCNs, and persist in maintaining their relationships with HCNs despite arising challenges. In contrast, a low level of motivational CQ is identified when expatriates withdraw from interacting with HCNs as soon as difficulties arise.

7.2.4.4 Behavioural Cultural Intelligence

Behavioural CQ refers to expatriates' ability to exhibit a wide range of appropriate verbal and nonverbal behaviours according to the expectations of the local culture (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015). Verbal behaviours include the choice of words, speed of speaking, sound, and speech style (Van Dyne et al., 2012). Nonverbal behaviours include gestures, facial expressions, body language, and appearance (Fenlon et al., 2019; Knapp & Hall, 2010).

As elaborated in Section 7.2.1, cultural differences present a great challenge in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs due to three behavioural aspects. First, HCNs expect expatriates to provide "very detailed, very exact instructions" (trans#18). Expatriates with high behavioural CQ can change their behaviour accordingly (Ang et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2015). For example, as one expatriate elaborated, "I have to say, 'Three times back-to-back, six times back-to-back, or one sided, or ... and please staple together, clip together', or [...] there is confusion later" (trans#18). Another expatriate said, "It's quite ... explaining them more, it's not asking 'Could you tell me about this?' but 'I need this information to actually come to this and this and this conclusion'. It really takes a lot of time to explain things more, maybe more detail" (trans#20).

Second, Western expatriates often use a direct, confrontational communication style, while HCNs in Malaysia prefer an indirect communication style and expect a gentle and respectful tone (Jogulu, 2010; Tamam, 2000). As one expatriate participant observed, "We found the people [HCNs] are cool, are calm, quiet, kind, peaceful; they don't want

problems” (trans#19). Another expatriate participant noted, “Here [in Malaysia] nobody raises his voice” (trans#22).

Accordingly, expatriates’ behavioural CQ becomes evident when they change their usual behaviour to act in line with HCNs’ expectations (Ang et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2015). As one expatriate participant elaborated, “I always try to speak to the people [HCNs ...] in the way that they don’t have the feeling that I’m above of them [...]. I try to adapt to some extent” (trans#4). Another expatriate said, “‘Criticism’ is not very common [in Malaysia], [...] we have to find a very, very careful way to criticise. So, it’s not [...] the straight German way to ‘Yes, that’s the way it is; what did you do? This was horrible.’ Maybe you can do it also in Germany in a nicer way, but I think here it’s even more important. You know? ‘Ah, actually, not bad, but maybe there is something else we can do to get things improved.’ [...] Definitely softer” (trans#20).

Behavioural CQ is also observed when expatriates change their tone of speaking and communication style to fit into the local culture:

In Germany, I had let’s say two times a year a meeting where I was getting really upset, and I could get really loud with other people in the meeting, like really argue, which would never happen here. (trans#9)

I usually write emails very strongly and said, “This is not done, this is not done, this is not done from your side” [...]. Then my boss [HCN] that time said, “Your message is correct, clear, but don’t make it too strong that the guy may have also a little bit ... it may upset the guy by reading the email”. [...] So now I’m being careful; I think I have improved in that respect. (trans#17)

If I was persuading somebody to keep the pace moving, I would remind them in a discrete way, [...] be a bit more around, rather than keep pestering and reminding, and nagging. (trans#18)

Finally, besides verbal behaviours, high behavioural CQ also allows expatriates to meet HCNs’ expectations by demonstrating appropriate nonverbal behaviours (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). As one host national participant of this thesis emphasised, “We don’t really bang on the table, or flip over the table, or talk about bad words during the meetings, or when you are really angry, you walk out from the room” (Trans#8).

Hence, expatriates' behavioural CQ becomes evident when they change their body language and soften their approach. As this host national participant observed, "First, people [expatriates] would just bang three times on the table and scold, but the next round he knows that people [HCNs] are not able to accept; they [expatriates] maybe just bang one time softly" (Trans#8).

Appropriate nonverbal behaviours also include showing respect with appropriate gestures (Fenlon et al., 2019; Zhao & Ma, 2005). As this expatriate participant explained, "When locals shake hands, they shake hand, and then they put their hand to their heart or to their chest. You know, if you do this and shake the hand with someone, I think this is kind of showing respect" (trans#20).

In contrast, expatriates with a low level of behavioural CQ fail to demonstrate behavioural flexibilities according to the local expectations (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). For example, while Malaysians expect a gentle and soft tone while speaking with others (Tamam, 2000), expatriates with a low level of behavioural CQ fail to act in line with this expectation, as the following examples show:

Sometimes I just like, "HI! GOOD MORNING, EVERYONE!" I would [be] screaming through the whole corridor. (trans#3)

When I ask something, just do it. Otherwise, I get very firm and sometimes a bit aggressive. (trans#22)

In sum, expatriate participants are considered to have high behavioural CQ when they adjust their tone of speaking, communication style, and gestures (e.g., softer, more indirect, giving more precise instructions) according to HCNs' expectations. In contrast, a low level of behavioural CQ is identified when expatriates fail to make such behavioural adjustments by being loud, aggressive, or pushy.

7.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the analysis and the findings of the quantitative Multiple Linear Regression and the qualitative Thematic Analysis. The quantitative regression analysis examined the general relationships between the CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural) and expatriates' social capital with HCNs. Regression analysis showed a significant positive effect of metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on expatriates' social capital with HCNs, while the effect of cognitive CQ is very limited. This chapter has also presented the regression results concerning the effect of each CQ dimension on the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

The qualitative analysis explored how and why expatriates' CQ may influence their development of social capital with HCNs. Specifically, four main themes have been identified and elaborated: 1) Cultural differences posing challenges to expatriates' work relationships with HCNs, 2) Respect, 3) Social capital as an indicator of relationship quality, and 4) The role of Cultural Intelligence in expatriate–HCN work relationships.

The next chapter presents the point of integration in the mixed methods research design by discussing the quantitative and qualitative findings to answer the research questions.

Chapter 8: Discussion

This chapter includes four sections which integrate the quantitative and qualitative findings to answer the following research questions:

RQ1 What is the relationship between metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ and expatriates' social capital with HCNs?

RQ2 How and why may CQ influence the development of social capital between expatriates and HCNs in Malaysia?

As explained in Section 4.2.4, the discussion of this thesis focuses on expatriates' overall social capital because each dimension of social capital alone cannot fully capture the different aspects of a good work relationship. Nonetheless, the dimensions of social capital are included in the analysis to show how each CQ dimension may contribute to the development of social capital on its respective dimension.

8.1 Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence and Social Capital

Granovetter (1983) suggests that social connections to significantly different others, such as between expatriates and HCNs, require a high level of cognitive flexibility for people to meet the other's complex expectations. Metacognitive CQ reflects expatriates' cognitive flexibility (Ang et al., 2007; Klafehn et al., 2015). According to Morris et al. (2014) and Van Dyne et al. (2010), metacognitive CQ is the key which links expatriates' cultural knowledge to effective actions. Because prior research has provided ample evidence of the positive effect of metacognitive CQ on expatriates' interaction adjustment (Akhil & Liu, 2019; Guðmundsdóttir, 2015; Kour & Jyoti, 2021), a positive effect was expected for metacognitive CQ on expatriates' social capital with HCNs. This is because interaction adjustment reflects expatriates' psychological comfort interacting with HCNs (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Akhil & Liu, 2019; Black & Stephens, 1989). According to the Conservation Of Resources (COR) theory, people strive to protect their

available resources and acquire new ones (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1989). Hence expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ might have more energy to develop their social capital with HCNs. Therefore, the first research objective is to investigate how expatriates' metacognitive CQ may influence expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

In line with this expectation, the quantitative findings of this thesis suggest that expatriates' metacognitive CQ has a significant and positive effect on expatriates' overall social capital with HCNs in Malaysia ($\beta = .308, p < .01$; for regression results, see Table 15). More specifically, metacognitive CQ contributes to the development of social capital on its structural ($\beta = .242; p < .05$), relational ($\beta = .210; p < .10$), and cognitive dimensions ($\beta = .203; p < .10$). Hence, expatriates with a higher level of metacognitive CQ are more likely to receive useful resources from HCNs because they have more frequent interactions (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital), enjoy a higher level of trust and commitment (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital), and more easily achieve shared language and shared goals with HCNs (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital).

The qualitative findings provide further complementary insights which explain how and why metacognitive CQ may have a positive impact on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. For example, because expatriates with a higher level of metacognitive CQ more quickly recognise the importance of relationship building with HCNs, they more actively seek interactions with HCNs, which enhances their structural dimension of social capital (i.e., contact frequency and network ties with HCNs), as the following expatriate participant statement shows: "I think here [in Malaysia] it's very, very important to build up this personal relationship [...]. I think it simplifies things [...]. So, yes, it's also about maybe spending times, participating in these activities beyond work" (trans#20).

Expatriates who adopt the local practice of mixing business and pleasure enjoy a more in-depth relationship with HCNs and are rewarded with higher levels of trust and commitment (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital). This is shown with the following statements:

They [expatriates] also invite me to their home for a meal and stuff like that. So, that relationship continues; it never ends despite them leaving the country or finishing the assignment. (Trans#2)

They [the expatriates] join the sport activities [with HCNs]; they went to Mamak [food stall] for evening supper or something like that. So, it's winning the trust of people. [...] the locals will definitely, will jump to help them. (Trans#15)

Some expats, they [...] only look for business relationship. They don't mix business and pleasure. Some, they mix. When some mix, the relationship is more intense, and the people are ... tend to open. [...] But when we just talk about business relationship and that's it [...], it takes time to improve the situation because of trust is missing. (Trans#16)

The qualitative findings further suggest that metacognitive CQ may enhance the relational dimension of social capital (i.e., trust and commitment) because expatriates more easily recognise HCNs' uncomfortable feelings during their interactions. This gives them the opportunity to seek clarification and reconciliation with HCNs "before it gets to cancer" (Trans#16). As one Malay participant explained, "There were some discussions for work, but he [expat] always come and we talk after that, so that we understand why he say something very hard at the first place, and we feel positive after that" (Trans#11).

Moreover, the fact that expatriates consider it necessary to seek reconciliation with HCNs signals expatriates' recognition respect, which is based on the ideas of equality and acceptance of people's differences (Isaacs, 2020; Malti et al., 2020). As elaborated in Section 7.2.2, recognition respect lowers the barrier between expatriates and HCNs and promotes HCNs' appraisal respect in return (see also Clarke & Mahadi, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2019). Consequently, these two types of respect may enhance expatriates' depth of relationships with HCNs (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital), as the following statement from an expatriate participant shows: "where respect is given, [...] it's another way of working. The other ones are just paddling on the surface; there is no relation" (trans#21). Another Malaysian Chinese participant suggested, "When there is a respect, mutual respect between individuals, you will solve a lot of issues. You will not have any troubles that people are not sharing anything with you. People may talk different in front of you and at the back of you they talk differently; they will be honest to you" (Trans#8).

Expatriates with a higher level of metacognitive CQ are also aware of potential misunderstandings in cross-cultural interactions (Ang et al., 2007), which allows them to use more effective action strategies to avoid such misunderstandings. This eventually facilitates their development of the cognitive dimension of social capital (i.e., shared language and narratives and shared goals). As one expatriate participant explained, “Maybe the way I put something and the way they put something, say something is ... it can be understood differently. [... So, w]hat I try to do is I always try to get them to ask questions; then I ask them, ‘Tell me what I want’ [...] to try ensure that we have the same understanding” (trans#5). Another expatriate participant elaborated, “Of course, you can achieve a lot of things by putting on a lot of pressure, [...] but I think this is not ... especially not in Malaysia sustainable at all. The better way is [...] to be as gentle as possible. I think that’s what brings you to the target or to the goal; that makes you to achieve whatever is required” (trans#20).

As elaborated in Section 7.2.1.2, Malaysians are more receptive to emotional appeals than to facts and rational arguments (Brett & Gelfand, 2006). Expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ may hence achieve shared goals with HCNs by reminding them of their social duties instead of offering rational arguments. As the example of this expatriate participant shows, “The Malaysians are quite proud people. [...] They are quite patriotic. So, you can use that to say ‘You want to be a proud Malaysian, you want to make sure that any product you are producing here in Malaysia is good. Would you be proud to give this to somebody and say this is proudly Malaysian?’” (trans#5). Consequently, higher metacognitive CQ allows expatriates to develop their cognitive dimension of social capital (i.e., shared language and narratives, shared goals) with HCNs by choosing those more effective action strategies.

In contrast, expatriates with lower levels of metacognitive CQ tend to choose ineffective or even damaging action strategies when HCNs do not act in line with their expectations by drawing on respect as social power, for example (for discussion of respect as social power, see Section 7.2.2.2). As one expatriate manager suggested, “If you are gentle, they don’t listen, so I just chose to remain firm” (trans#22). As discussed in Section 7.2.2.2, respect as social power at best results in HCNs’ full obedience. However, when expatriates do not meet the role expectations associated with their social power (i.e., being leaders and experts), the use of respect as social power may damage the relationship by

reducing HCNs' commitment and their willingness to interact with expatriates, as the following statement shows:

He [expat] will impede on you that he wants you to do this [...], it doesn't make sense to do this; there is no benefit to anyone [...]. But if he [is] impeding people to do this, [...] you don't have respect from the locals, and then the locals don't ... first, he [the HCN] can either become very ineffective person; secondly, eventually, he might leave the company because he can't work with you anymore. (Trans#7)

Maybe they [HCNs] will have some uncomfortable feelings like 'Oh, I don't like to work with this guy [expat] anymore'. Maybe they will avoid each other, avoid contact. (Trans#11)

Hence, the misuse of respect as social power might drive expatriates to be more separated from their host national colleagues, thereby hindering expatriates' development of social capital.

Finally, the qualitative findings suggest that expatriates with a lower level of metacognitive CQ tend to underestimate the impact of cultural differences on their interactions with HCNs (for elaboration on this see Section 7.2.4.1). This increases their tendency to commit the fundamental attribution error by explaining HCNs' behaviours with dispositional factors such as HCNs' capability or character (for discussion of the fundamental attribution error, see Section 7.2.1.3) as the following statement of an expatriate participant shows: "After 2.5 years, I'm not clear that these guys are ... if they are either stupid or provoking and lazy" (trans#21).

Instead of relating HCNs' nonverbal behaviour (i.e., silence) to their own action (e.g., shouting), low metacognitive CQ caused this expatriate to misinterpret HCNs' nonverbal behaviour by committing the fundamental attribution error:

trans#22: Most of the times, they [HCNs] say something stupid, which I already knew; then I get angry and start to shout sometimes.

Interviewer: What do you shout?

trans#22: Just “DO! YOU HEARD ME!”, but everyone is so quiet here. [...] Here, they all sit there behind their computer. There is no radio, there is no nothing, no atmosphere. They don’t talk to each other about soccer; they don’t talk to each other about anything [...]. They are just like robots.

Consequently, disrespectful feelings towards HCNs arise (e.g., “They are just like robots”), which reduces both expatriates’ and HCNs’ willingness to interact and develop a more in-depth relationship with each other (i.e., decreases the structural and relational dimensions of social capital; Benditt, 2008; Gervais & Fessler, 2017; Miceli & Castelfranchi, 2018).

In sum, both the quantitative and the qualitative findings provide confirming evidence that expatriates’ metacognitive CQ has a positive impact on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia. The qualitative results suggest that this is because expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ are more aware of the local cultural expectations and potential misunderstanding in cross-cultural interactions. Hence, they can develop a higher level of social capital by using more effective action strategies. Furthermore, expatriates with higher metacognitive CQ more easily recognise HCNs’ uncomfortable feelings during their interaction, which allows them to seek quick reconciliation with HCNs. This also signals expatriates’ recognition respect, which prompts HCNs appraisal respect in return and facilitates expatriates’ development of social capital. Finally, high metacognitive CQ contributes to expatriates’ development of social capital as it reduces the likelihood that expatriates develop disrespectful feelings towards HCNs by committing the fundamental attribution error.

8.2 Cognitive Cultural Intelligence and Social Capital

Cognitive CQ includes expatriates’ knowledge about the legal and social systems and the cultural dos and don’ts in the host country (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Earley & Ang, 2003; Le et al., 2018). Such knowledge is acquirable from books and traditional classroom teachings of cultural dos and don’ts (Ang et al., 2007; Morris et al., 2014). However, although cultural knowledge might provide expatriates with a better starting point in the

host country, inaccurate generalisations and stereotyping may also cause HCNs' disapproval and rejection, which eventually damage the relationship quality (Morris et al., 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2010; Wilczewski et al., 2019). Hence, the second objective of this thesis is to investigate the effect of expatriates' cognitive CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

The quantitative results of this thesis show that cognitive CQ is the only CQ dimension which does not have a significant effect on expatriates' overall social capital ($\beta = .151, p > .10$; for regression results, see Table 16). There is also no significant effect of expatriates' cognitive CQ on the structural ($\beta = -.001, p > .10$) and cognitive dimensions of social capital ($\beta = .121, p > .10$), though a significant effect is observed on the relational dimension of social capital ($\beta = .238, p < .05$). This means that expatriates with a higher level of cognitive CQ report a higher level of trust in and commitment to HCNs in Malaysia (for conceptualisation of the relational dimension of social capital see section 4.2.2).

The qualitative results provide complementing evidence which explains why expatriates' cognitive CQ does not necessarily lead to more interactions between expatriates and HCNs (i.e., the structural dimension of social capital). Specifically, cognitive CQ reflects expatriates' cultural knowledge, which is acquirable from reading and cultural training (Ang et al., 2007). Thus, expatriates might have developed a high level of cognitive CQ only because of compulsory trainings required by the company. This becomes clear through the following statement of one host national interviewee: "I'm sure nowadays they make it compulsory that a lot of expatriates [...] have these cultural training programs, but whether it's effective or not, I don't think so. [...] So, you see the culture here is, it is not acceptable that you ... that the boss shout at the subordinate, [...] but it happens" (Trans#2). Furthermore, as one expatriate said, "We had this cultural training before we came here, and I talked a lot ... at least one year with other expats about their experience here" (trans#9). Hence, expatriates might have learned about the Malaysian culture only to reduce their own uncertainty, which has caused the relationship between cognitive CQ and the structural dimension of social capital to become insignificant in the regression analysis.

The qualitative results also offer some explanations for the positive effect of cognitive CQ on the relational dimension of social capital, which is measured in this thesis as trust

and commitment. Specifically, the qualitative findings suggest that cultural knowledge is the primary basis for expatriates to demonstrate their recognition respect (for discussion of recognition respect, see Section 7.2.2.1). As one expatriate participant said, “If I have a guy in front of me, [...] if it’s Chinese, whatever I know about his way of life, of course I will respect” (trans#21). Another Malay participant explained, “In order to respect, we need to know, we need to learn their culture” (Trans#12). Cognitive CQ hence provides expatriates with the necessary knowledge to show recognition respect, which may eventually result in HCNs’ appraisal respect and increase their trust and commitment (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital; for more detailed elaboration on recognition and appraisal respect, see Section 7.2.2.1). This is illustrated by the following statements of both host national and expatriate participants:

When I’m respecting a different culture, [...] and that person [HCN] thinks ‘Oh, he is respecting my culture; he’s not wearing shoes into my house’ [...] or ‘When he goes to a mosque, he just cover his head’ [...] of course that person [HCN] will feel comfortable. [...] I’m comfortable working with you because you respect me [...]. When people respect other people’s sensitivity, respect and trust will come. (Trans#6)

I will be more receptive to what he [expat] says because I know the guy already considered all the circumstances in that situation [...], he won’t be like the guy who is thinking out of the context. (Trans#13)

If you have to do some business with persons you know they don’t respect you, you don’t feel comfortable. You also don’t know how open you can talk. (trans#21)

Furthermore, the qualitative findings suggest that cultural knowledge may reduce the likelihood of misunderstandings between expatriates and HCNs. As one host national participant said, “You as an expat, you come work with us [...], you will shake your hands; you want to shake your hands with us. We Malays, we are Muslim; we will not shake your hand. (Interviewer: Because I’m female?) Yes. It’s not good, because we *respect* you” (Trans#16). However, a female expatriate without this cultural knowledge might perceive this behaviour as disrespectful, which reduces her trust of and commitment to HCNs (i.e., decreases the relational dimension of social capital).

Expatriates with the necessary cultural knowledge are also likely to evaluate HCNs' behaviours more positively, which contributes to the development of the relational dimension of social capital. For example, someone who knows that HCNs need "very explicit instructions to be able to carry out tasks" might assess HCNs' performance more positively because "they are very good at following instructions" (trans#18). However, expatriates without this knowledge might more easily make negative attributions of HCNs' behaviour (for more details on negative attribution of behaviour, see Section 7.2.1.3), which diminishes the development of trust and commitment (i.e., decreases the relational dimension of social capital), as the following statements show:

The expatriate will think these people are lousy, but on the other side, these people who are doing assembly for us [HCNs] will think, "He is also not capable because he can't give us any direction; he only gives us harsh words." Maybe the expectation between these two parties is different. So, the first one [the expat] think you need to *think* to reach the target, but these people [the HCNs] think ... they need leadership. (Trans#14)

They don't think about "Oh, what's the next step?" or "How can I improve?" They only do literally what you ask from them. That's very, very hard, and that's their character. (trans#22)

The findings are nonconclusive regarding the effect of cognitive CQ on the cognitive dimension of social capital (i.e., shared language and narratives, shared goals). Specifically, the quantitative results suggest that there is no significant effect of cognitive CQ on the cognitive dimension of social capital ($\beta = .121$, $p > .10$). However, the qualitative results suggest that cultural knowledge may well provide expatriates with a better "starting point" to "align their expectations" (Trans#16). As one host national participant explained, "Most of us are Muslim, so we pray five times a day, so if expats know, okay, this is the time we pray, how we pray, which one is compulsory, then expats can align their expectation to the working environment" (Trans#16). Another expatriate said, "[Knowing] the cultural beliefs, so the dos and don'ts from a cultural point of view, because that is important to achieve goals at the end of the day" (trans#5). Hence, the qualitative results suggest a positive effect of cognitive CQ on expatriates' development of shared understanding and shared goals with HCNs (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital).

One explanation for this inconclusive finding regarding the effect of cognitive CQ on the cognitive dimension of social capital (i.e., shared language and narratives, shared goals) might be that cultural knowledge only promotes the development of shared understanding with culturally diverse others when the knowledge is accurate (Adair et al., 2013). However, within Malaysia's multicultural environment, expatriates might easily misconceive the accuracy of their cultural knowledge. As one Malay participant cautioned, "We are multiracial. Not just Malaysians [...]. Malays, this is how Malays behave. Indians, this is how Indians behave. Chinese, this is how Chinese behave" (Trans#16). Similarly, one Indian expatriate recounted from his own work experience as HCN with expatriates, "I gave him [expatriate] only one reason. From Mumbai to Pune he drives by car, [...] then from plant to the residence area, shopping mall in Mumbai, he only knows this triangle, or rectangular route, nothing else he knows about India, [...] so I told him, 'Everything you don't know. So, don't tag that Indians are like this; this is not correct.' And he [expat] said, 'No, this is my understanding'" (trans#17). Another expatriate participant said, "There are some trainings [...]. Sometimes these trainings are just telling you the dos and don'ts, and this sometimes also lead to assumptions which are not always true" (trans#3). Hence, misconceptions of the accuracy of their cultural knowledge might have caused the relationship between expatriates' cognitive CQ and the cognitive dimension of social capital to become insignificant in the regression analysis.

Moreover, as previously discussed, even if expatriates' cultural knowledge is accurate, different motivations may be at play when expatriates decide to learn about the local culture. Thus, advanced cognitive CQ does not necessarily mean that expatriates enjoy learning about the local culture (i.e., motivational CQ). The qualitative findings of this thesis further suggest that expatriates need to know how to use their cultural knowledge to achieve shared goals with HCNs. However, this ability is captured by expatriates' metacognitive CQ (Ang et al., 2007). As one Malaysian Chinese employee explained, "If you just know the culture, but you do not know how to use that knowledge that you have to achieve your objective, it doesn't have any purpose also" (Trans#7). Another expatriate said, "It's important that you do know the cultural beliefs of the country; then you don't *do* [original emphasis of the participant in the audio record] something that adversely affects achieving the goal" (trans#5). Therefore, compared to cognitive CQ, expatriates' metacognitive and motivational CQ might have a more superordinate role in facilitating the development of the cognitive dimension of social capital.

In sum, the quantitative and qualitative findings of this thesis suggest that the effect of expatriates' cognitive CQ on their social capital with HCNs is very limited. While high cognitive CQ might provide expatriates with a better starting point in the host country, cultural knowledge alone cannot effectively improve expatriates' probability of success by gaining more useful support from HCNs. This finding is particularly relevant for practitioners because many global organisations still focus on increasing expatriates' cultural knowledge to prepare them for their international assignment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Kim, 2020).

8.3 Motivational Cultural Intelligence and Social Capital

Motivational CQ includes expatriates' intrinsic interest (i.e., joy) in interacting with culturally diverse others (Ang et al., 2007; Ghonsooly et al., 2013). It also reflects their self-efficacy in successfully managing cultural challenges (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). Expatriates with a high level of motivational CQ maintain their interactions with HCNs even when difficulties arise (Earley & Ang, 2003; Ghonsooly et al., 2013). Hence, a positive effect of expatriates' motivational CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia is expected.

The quantitative findings of this thesis suggest that among all other CQ dimensions, motivational CQ most substantially increases expatriates' overall level of social capital ($\beta = .412, p < .01$; for regression results, see Table 17). Although the regression analysis identifies no significant effect of expatriates' motivational CQ on the structural dimension of social capital ($\beta = .077, p > .10$), a significant and positive effect was observed on the relational ($\beta = .507, p < .01$) and cognitive dimensions of social capital ($\beta = .403, p < .01$). These findings suggest that expatriates with higher motivational CQ are more likely to receive useful resources from HCNs because of their higher level of trust and commitment (i.e., represent the relational dimension of social capital) and shared language and shared goals with HCNs (i.e., represent the cognitive dimension of social capital).

However, the quantitative and qualitative findings are inconclusive concerning the effect of motivational CQ on the structural dimension of social capital (i.e., conceptualised as contact frequency and network ties with HCNs). While no significant effect was observed

in the regression analysis ($\beta = .077$, $p > .10$; for regression results, see Table 17), the qualitative results suggest that expatriates with higher motivational CQ (i.e., intrinsic interest) should seek more frequent interactions with HCNs (i.e., increase the structural dimension of social capital). As one host national interviewee illustrated, “M. [expatriate] when he was in Malaysia, he really, really want to know the culture of Malaysia, really, really want to know how it works, how the people work in Malaysia [...]. There is a lot of times when after work, or even sometimes during work, we will have a chat, totally not about work, but it’s about politics of the country, how do I see the country, how do I see the company fitting to the countries” (Trans#7).

One explanation for the insignificant regression result concerning the effect of motivational CQ on the structural dimension of social capital might be that at the time of the survey, those expatriates with lower levels of motivational CQ did not necessarily have fewer interactions with HCNs. As one expatriate elaborated, “You can join 50 times Nasi Lemak [Malaysian breakfast] with some juice, but the 60th times you will say ‘No, not possible’, because they are living in another world” (trans#21). Another expatriate said, “Some of them [HCNs ...], they call us, ‘Okay, come, let us go there and there’. We do it; we do it a few times, but [...] you will think there is some limits, some borders” (trans#19). Consequently, expatriates with a low level of motivational CQ might have had frequent contact with HCNs at the time of the survey but do not enjoy these interactions.

Regarding the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital, the qualitative results provide confirming and complementary evidence in line with the quantitative findings. For example, the qualitative findings of this thesis suggest that HCNs in Malaysia generally do not separate business from personal contact (for discussion of HCNs’ expectations, see Section 7.2.1.2). Expatriates who are interested in developing a more personal relationship with their host national colleagues also benefit from a higher level of trust in the work relationship (i.e., an increase in the relational dimension of social capital). As one expatriate participant explained, “I think then there will be more trust from the local because the local would feel that the person values the country and actually wants to be involved” (trans#18). The following statement of another expatriate participant also shows how expatriates’ interest in the host culture (i.e., motivational CQ) is identified as a sign of relationship commitment:

I think you should be interested in what they [HCNs] do and how they do and also the cultural side. [...] The fact that you are interested in their life and their culture [...] is a good sign to show “I’m not here only to fulfil my task and to maybe earn some money and leave, and you guys can all go to hell. No, I’m also interested in you.” (trans#0)

When they recognise expatriates’ commitment, HCNs develop a higher level of trust in return, which allows expatriates to access timely support when needed (Hon & Lu, 2010; Tamer & Dereli, 2014). As one Malay participant observed, “They [expats and HCNs] have their trust, [...] I think they never had a problem to ask or to request any help because the locals will definitely, will jump to help them” (Trans#15). Furthermore, another Malaysian Indian participant suggested that adapting to the Malaysian culture is “a lot of effort” for expatriates, saying, “I’m not saying it’s easy. It’s a lot of effort. It’s a lot of effort because a lot of these is not textbook material” (Trans#2). Hence, expatriates’ affective commitment becomes particularly evident to HCNs when they make efforts and persist in trying to fit into the local culture. This includes expatriates learning a few words of the local language. As one Malaysian Indian participant elaborated, “My expatriate boss has asked me in the local language, ‘Have you had your lunch?’ or ‘How was your day?’ [...]. So, these are the extra that gives an impact. [...] The same people, then you have a very strong and good relationship with them” (Trans#2). Consequently, expatriates with higher levels of motivational CQ enjoy a stronger and more in-depth relationship (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital) with HCNs in Malaysia because they make efforts to fit into the host culture.

When HCNs recognise expatriates’ efforts to fit in with the local culture, they are also more willing to support expatriates’ actions, which enhances their development of the cognitive dimension of social capital (i.e., shared language and narratives and shared goals). As one expatriate participant said, “There were people [expats] who would never frequent the same restaurants, whereas here, you just likely to bump into local employees as your expats actually. [...] I think it’s also good for building a relationship as well; it’s shared understanding, shared knowledge” (trans#18). Another expatriate participant explained, “It’s not ‘us’ and ‘you’. At the end of the day, we are all one, and we are all trying to achieve the same goal [...]. I think what does help is if you could try to learn a little bit of the language because even though the people may be able to help themselves

in English, I think it does help if they also see you try to make an effort to learn the local language even if it's just small saying or greetings" (trans#5).

Expatriates with high motivational CQ also maintain their relationships with HCNs despite arising difficulties (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). The qualitative results suggest that this gives them the opportunity to develop a shared language (i.e., cognitive dimension of social capital) with their host national colleagues. As the following statement of a Malay interviewee illustrates,

D. [expat] is the head of line, but when it comes to the operation, D. works with us. Maybe he has master's, maybe even PhD. I have no idea. So, the speaking level, the talks are different compared to the ones that he is speaking to every day, the engineers, the young engineers, the managers [...]. So, these are the difficulties, where we have issues to translate expectations. [...] Two times, then you will get it, but two hard times. (Trans#16)

In contrast, expatriates with a low level of motivational CQ give up after the first arising difficulties, as the following statements show:

To find out what information is important between all that private stuff they are also talking ... is too hard, so I'm not in all these WhatsApp groups to find out ... no, cannot. (trans#3)

There were two of them [HCNs]. They were asking me about money. I gave them money. After one or two years, [...] they just like, "Okay, okay, I will give it to you later, never mind" [...], so I felt like they used me [...]. So, at that time I said, "Okay, I don't want to get any more relationships or friendships." It's better to keep things superficially. (trans#19)

Hence, a low level of motivational CQ causes expatriates to give up soon when difficulties arise (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003), while expatriates with higher motivational CQ are more persistent and thus able to achieve shared language and narratives with their host national colleagues (i.e., increase the cognitive dimension of social capital).

In sum, both the quantitative and qualitative findings of this thesis provide corroborating evidence for the positive effect of expatriates' motivational CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs. Specifically, expatriates with high motivational CQ can

develop a more in-depth relationship with HCNs characterised by a high level of trust and commitment (i.e., the relational dimension of social capital), shared understanding, and shared goals (i.e., the cognitive dimension of social capital). This is because HCNs perceive expatriates' interest in the host culture and persistence in fitting in as signs of commitment and benevolence, which in turn increase their willingness to support expatriates' actions. The insignificant effect of motivational CQ on the structural dimension of social capital as observed in the regression analysis might be due to the cross-sectional design of this thesis. The qualitative results show that those expatriates with low motivational CQ might cease interacting with HCNs in the future, although they had frequent interactions with HCNs at the time of the survey. These potential long-term effects require future research to be clarified.

8.4 Behavioural Cultural Intelligence and Social Capital

Behavioural CQ reflects expatriates' ability to exhibit a wide range of appropriate behaviours in line with the local expectations (Ang & Van Dyne, 2015; Thomas et al., 2008). Previous research suggests that expatriates' behavioural CQ is a positive predictor of expatriates' interaction adjustment which reflects their psychological comfort interacting with HCNs (Akhal & Liu, 2019; Dang & Khai, 2021; Huff, 2013; Templer et al., 2006). Zhang et al. (2021b) suggest that among the CQ dimensions, behavioural CQ is most crucial for expatriates achieving high task performance in high power distance cultures. Because Malaysia is a high power distance culture (House et al., 2004), additional behavioural norms might become relevant when expatriates interact with their host national colleagues in Malaysia. Thus, the fourth and final objective of this thesis is to identify how expatriates' behavioural CQ may influence their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

Specifically, the quantitative findings of this thesis suggest a positive effect of expatriates' behavioural CQ on their overall social capital with HCNs ($\beta = .333, p < .01$; for regression results, see Table 18). Behavioural CQ also has a significant and positive effect on the structural ($\beta = .206, p < .10$), relational ($\beta = .321, p < .01$), and cognitive dimensions of social capital ($\beta = .225, p < .05$). This means that expatriates with high behavioural CQ

are more likely to receive useful resources from HCNs in Malaysia by having more frequent contact with HCNs (i.e., contact frequency and number of ties to HCNs constitute the structural dimension of social capital). Higher level of behavioural CQ also allows expatriates to develop a more in-depth relationship with HCNs as shown by their higher levels of trust and commitment (i.e., represent the relational dimension of social capital). Finally, the quantitative findings suggest that expatriates with higher behavioural CQ more easily achieve a shared understanding and shared goals with HCNs, which represent their cognitive dimension of social capital.

The qualitative results offer complementary explanations for the quantitative findings. For example, the following excerpt shows that a low level of behavioural CQ causes HCNs to perceive expatriates as odd, which reduces HCNs' willingness to interact with them (i.e., decreases the structural dimension of social capital):

trans#17: Slow down. Slowing down is very difficult. You can increase your speed, but reducing your speed is always difficult, and you have to burst a lot: "EY, come on! Why don't you?" "Come on, run!" [... E]ven the production stops. People [HCNs] will be very, very slow. When you say, "AH, THE LINE STOPPED!", [response from HCNs will be] "Ah, the line stopped." But there in my hometown, [...] if line stops, then the pressure is going highest hike, [...] every one issue, I'm getting killed. So, that is how it is.

Interviewer: How did you deal with the slow down?

trans#17: Yes, this was very challenging for me. I mean, you are always odd man out. You will be always odd in your department; you will be strange.

Accordingly, one host national participant suggested, "Some of the people [HCNs ...] feel a bit weird and not comfortable with meeting expats" (Trans#11). Similarly, an expatriate participant suggested that behavioural abnormalities (i.e., low behavioural CQ) "would probably just drive that difference [between expatriates and HCNs] more; it would kind of make them [expatriates and HCNs] feel more separated" (trans#18). These findings lend support to the Conservation Of Resources theory, which suggests that people strive to protect their available resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 1989). When HCNs feel stress and anxiety when interacting with expatriates, they might choose to retain their energy for other activities by avoiding contact with expatriates. Thus,

expatriates who fail to adapt their behaviours according to the local expectations (i.e., low behavioural CQ) more often experience workplace ostracism (i.e., being ignored or isolated by coworkers, communication breakdown; Ferris et al., 2008). This also reduces their trust and commitment to HCNs in return (i.e., reduces the relational dimension of social capital), as the following statements of two expatriates show:

In the corridor where all the lecturer rooms are, it's totally silence. The only people talking were actually me. Sometimes I just like, "HI! GOOD MORNING, EVERYONE!" I would [be] screaming through the whole corridor, especially this month. Sometimes I get a response, but mostly not. [...] all these not communication led to the point that I'm also not communicating anymore. So, I just ... I don't know ... if someone wants to know something, can come, but if not, I'm not looking for anything. (trans#3)

Sometimes I feel they are not comfortable on their night out because I'm there. So, after a while, I didn't get invited anymore. [...] I don't know if they have problems with their colleagues; I just like to know where there is a quality issue or they made a mistake, simple things which you would usually say, but they always try to hide. (trans#22)

One interesting finding of this thesis is that the positive effect of behavioural CQ on expatriates' social capital might be mediated by recognition and appraisal respect (for discussion of recognition and appraisal respect, see Section 7.2.2.1). Specifically, this thesis identifies that HCNs often perceive expatriates who fail to show appropriate behaviours in line with local expectations as disrespectful. For example, as elaborated in Section 7.2.1.1, HCNs in Malaysia sometimes perceive expatriates' direct communication style as rude. Consequently, HCNs might feel less comfortable socialising with those expatriates and avoid contact, which reduces expatriates' structural dimension of social capital (i.e., contact frequency and network ties with HCNs). Moreover, when HCNs lose respect for expatriates, they are less willing to follow expatriates' instructions, which reduces their likelihood to achieve shared goals (i.e., decrease the cognitive dimension of social capital), as the following statements show:

When they [expats] want to show the anger, they show it in front of everybody else, but that is not the way the Malaysians do it. [...] That normally doesn't go

well with the locals [...], they will tend to lose respect to the expatriates. [...] And it will come, it does come, [...] that] whatever the expatriate says, it's not followed by the locals. (Trans#1)

Maybe in foreign country when you do like that [banging on the table], people are really understand, they feel that they are wrong, and then they change. You know, they accept and over it, but people here will think, "Oh, what kind of crazy boss you are." (Trans#8)

In contrast, high behavioural CQ allows expatriates to demonstrate their recognition respect by adapting their behaviours accordingly. As one expatriate participant described, "I always try to speak to the people [HCNs ...] in the way that they don't have the feeling that I'm above of them [...]. I try to adapt to some extent. I think this is important that the local staff here doesn't have the feeling that you feel that you are something better" (trans#4). Another expatriate participant suggested, "I think here [in Malaysia] if you shake hands, when locals shake hands, they shake hand and then they put their hand to their heart or to their chest. You know, if you do this and shake the hand with someone, I think this is kind of showing respect" (trans#20).

Earley and Mosakowski (2004) suggest that adopting HCNs' behaviours ultimately demonstrates expatriates' respect for the host culture. As elaborated in Section 7.2.2.1, when HCNs recognise expatriates' recognition respect, "respect and trust will come" (Trans#6). For example, one host national participant explained, "Because the expat is respecting the local's culture, right? [...] And that person [HCN] thinks, 'Oh, he is respecting my culture [...]', for example, he takes off his shoes, or when he goes to a mosque, he just covers his head [...], of course that person will feel comfortable. [...] I'm comfortable working with you because you respect me, so I show you my respect back again [...]. When people respect other people's sensitivity, respect and trust will come" (Trans#6). Hence, expatriates' behavioural CQ may contribute to the development of the relational dimension of social capital (i.e., reflected by higher levels of trust and commitment) through the mediating effect of recognition and appraisal respect.

Furthermore, the qualitative results of this thesis suggest that expatriates with a high level of behavioural CQ are able to avoid miscommunications with HCNs by providing "very detailed, very exact instructions" (trans#18). This allows them to achieve a shared

understanding and shared goals with HCNs more easily, which promotes the development of the cognitive dimension of social capital. As one HCN observed, “I think they [expatriates] make it very clear now their instructions. What they want and also how can we achieve it” (Trans#8). Expatriates with high behavioural CQ are also able to “approach [HCNs] in the right way” (i.e., through shared language and narratives), which in turn promotes the development of shared goals. This is illustrated with the following statements, which also confirm the findings of Adair et al. (2013) and Gregory et al. (2009) that team members’ behavioural CQ may positively influence the development of shared culture in cross-cultural teams:

C. [expatriate] as a head of manufacturing, so he needs to push more to get output, but [...] some of them [HCNs] don’t care about that pressure given by C. When other people come, let’s say local people [...] ask them to do it, and the things will be happening. This is something that [...] either you approach them in the right way, or you approach them in a different way. (Trans#14)

When you [...] shout at them, it demotivates. [...] That’s why you need to say in a way that they [HCNs] can understand. You can put your talks in a way that it doesn’t hurt him. [...] You touch the emotions; there will be a commotion [...] Finally, what is the result? Outcome is zero. (trans#17)

In contrast, the qualitative results suggest that a low level of behavioural CQ impedes the development of the cognitive dimension of social capital because of potential miscommunications between expatriates and HCNs. For example, as one expatriate participant illustrated, “When I asked why, the explanation they gave, I can understand why they went that way because my communication was not very clear [...]. So, there are these chances that you have these misunderstandings” (trans#5).

In sum, the quantitative and qualitative findings provide confirming and corroborating evidence for the positive effect of expatriates’ behavioural CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia. This is because expatriates’ behavioural CQ allows them to act in line with local expectations, which makes HCNs feel more comfortable interacting with them. Furthermore, behavioural CQ allows expatriates to approach HCNs in the right way, which reduces the likelihood of miscommunication and promotes the development of shared understanding and shared goals. Finally, the qualitative findings

of this thesis suggest that recognition and appraisal respect might have a mediating role between expatriates' behavioural CQ and their development of social capital with HCNs. However, these potential mediating effects require future research to be validated.

8.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the quantitative and qualitative findings to elaborate on the effect of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on their social capital with HCNs in Malaysia. Specifically, both quantitative and qualitative results suggest that metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ have a significant positive effect on expatriates' social capital. Metacognitive and behavioural CQ promote expatriates' development of social capital through their positive effect on all three dimensions of social capital (i.e., structural, relational, and cognitive). Motivational CQ contributes to expatriates' development of social capital through its positive effect on the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital. The qualitative results provided further explanations for these findings, namely that cultural differences may cause miscommunication, mistrust, and disrespect between expatriates and HCNs; however, expatriates with higher metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ are able to overcome these challenges, thereby developing a higher level of social capital. Moreover, the qualitative results suggest a mediating effect of recognition and appraisal respect between expatriates' metacognitive and behavioural CQ and their development of social capital. Finally, the triangulated findings suggest that cognitive CQ is the only CQ dimension which has a very limited effect on expatriates' social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

The next chapter presents the theoretical and managerial implications of the findings and the strengths and limitations of this thesis. Recommendations for future research are also provided.

Chapter 9: Conclusions and Recommendations

In the era of globalisation, multinational organisations rely on expatriates' performance to implement global strategies, transfer knowledge, and control and coordinate international operations (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; He et al., 2019; Yang & He, 2014). Expatriates' social capital with their host national colleagues determines whether they will receive useful support from HCNs which facilitate their cross-cultural adjustment and performance (Bruning et al., 2012; Van Bakel et al., 2016; Wang & Varma, 2018). However, little is known about why some expatriates can develop a higher level of social capital with HCNs than others. Addressing this gap, this thesis investigates the effect of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural Cultural Intelligence (CQ) on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia.

This chapter begins by discussing the theoretical and practical implications of the findings. After this, the chapter identifies the strengths and limitations of this thesis. Finally, recommendations for future research are provided.

9.1 Theoretical contributions

This thesis presents the first empirical research which investigates the unique effect of the four CQ dimensions (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural) on expatriates' development of social capital with their host nation work colleagues. Previous research has identified social capital with HCNs as facilitators of expatriates' adjustment and performance (Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014; Sokro & Moeti-Lysson, 2018), though very little is known about why some expatriates are more successful in developing a higher level of social capital than others. A few studies have investigated expatriates' overall CQ in relation to some individual elements of social capital such as trust or shared vision (e.g., Hsu, 2012; Zulkifly et al., 2020). However, no empirical research exists so far which examines how each CQ dimension influences expatriates' social capital with HCNs in a holistic way by including the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital. Therefore, the main contribution of this thesis pertains to the theoretical development of Cultural Intelligence and social

capital by identifying the positive effect of metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. Specifically, the findings of this thesis suggest that metacognitive and behavioural CQ have a positive effect on all three dimensions of social capital (i.e., the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions), while motivational CQ contributes to expatriates' social capital primarily through its positive effect on the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

This thesis also contributes to knowledge by being the first to explore how and why expatriates' CQ may influence their development of social capital with HCNs. The findings suggest that expatriates with higher metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ develop a higher level of social capital with HCNs because they more easily overcome the challenges posed by cultural differences such as miscommunication and mistrust. In this regard, one important contribution of this thesis pertains to the discovery of the potential mediating effect of recognition and appraisal respect between expatriates' metacognitive and behavioural CQ and their social capital. Specifically, the thesis identifies that HCNs perceive expatriates with a higher level of metacognitive and behavioural CQ as having a higher level of recognition respect. This promotes HCNs' appraisal respect in return, which results in their higher level of willingness to support expatriates' actions. Consequently, recognition and appraisal respect might have facilitated expatriates' development of social capital. So far, "research on the development and implementation of intercultural understandings of 'respect' has been scarce" (Vásquez-Fernández et al., 2021, p. 128). Hence, this thesis adds to the expatriate literature by providing a first insight into the potential role of metacognitive and behavioural CQ as facilitators and social capital as an outcome of recognition and appraisal respect in expatriates' work relationships with HCNs.

9.2 Managerial implications

The findings of this thesis also have practical implications. First, the findings offer human resource managers suggestions for the selection of future expatriates. As one participant in this thesis emphasised, "[The] expat will be here temporally, 2 years, but the damage what he makes, or impact what he makes, that is going to be very strong for the entire

team” (trans#17). Hence, the selection of appropriate candidates for foreign assignments has far-reaching consequences for the success of global organisations (McDonnell & Boyle, 2012; Naeem et al., 2020).

Specifically, this thesis suggests that metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ might be important selection criteria because these aspects of CQ significantly promote expatriates’ development of social capital with HCNs. According to previous research, social capital with HCNs has a positive effect on expatriates’ adjustment and performance (Johnson et al., 2003; Lee & Kartika, 2014; Sokro & Moeti-Lysson, 2018). Hence, human resource managers may consider including the assessment of these CQ dimensions in the selection process of future expatriates beyond the mere focus on their work experience and technical expertise (Bücker et al., 2020; Inkson et al., 1997).

Second, the results of this thesis have implications for the design of future cultural training programs. In particular, this thesis identifies that expatriates’ cognitive CQ has very little impact on their development of social capital with HCNs. Conventional cultural training programs mostly focus on the teaching of cultural dos and don’ts and introducing general information about the host country (e.g., food, weather, history, religion, political system, etc.; Commisceo Global, 2021; Kim, 2020). This form of cultural training merely focuses on increasing expatriates’ cognitive CQ and is cost and time efficient (Alexander et al., 2021; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Kim, 2020; Kour & Jyoti, 2021). In contrast, field experiences and postarrival coaching are effective training programs in enhancing all four CQ dimensions but are often more expensive (Engle & Crowne, 2014; Kurpis & Hunter, 2017; Morrell et al., 2013). Thus, the results of this thesis provide valuable guidance for human resource managers to use their limited resources to develop more aspects of expatriates’ CQ (i.e., metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ) which most effectively enhance their social capital with HCNs.

Finally, poor relationship quality with HCNs may have severe psychological consequences for expatriates such as anxiety, frustration, and depression (Andresen & Margenfeld, 2015; Feitosa et al., 2014; Ljubica et al., 2019). The results of this thesis suggest that expatriates’ metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ have a positive effect on their social capital with HCNs, which reflects their quality of working relationship. Because CQ is malleable, expatriates may consider improving their relationship with HCNs by developing the metacognitive, motivational, and behavioural

aspects of CQ. For example, experiential learning based on interactions with HCNs allows expatriates to identify inaccurate stereotypes, reduce the feeling of anxiety, and practice newly acquired behavioural skills (Alexandra, 2018; Pettigrew, 1998; Rosenblatt et al., 2013; Wang & Varma, 2018). Improving one's cognitive CQ by reading more books about the cultural dos and don'ts is less effective because cognitive CQ does not have a significant impact on expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. Hence, the thesis contributes to practice by providing professional expatriates with recommendations on how to effectively improve their relationship quality with HCNs

9.3 Strengths and limitations

This thesis offers a first insight into the effects of expatriates' metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural CQ on their development of social capital with HCNs in Malaysia. The triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative results within the convergent mixed methods design is the greatest strength of this thesis because confirming results provided evidence for the robustness of the findings (Hammarberg et al., 2016; Palinkas et al., 2015; Taguchi, 2018). Furthermore, the qualitative results offer complementary insight which allows for a more comprehensive understanding of how and why expatriates' CQ may contribute to their development of social capital with HCNs.

Another strength of this thesis is the inclusion of both Assigned Expatriates (AEs) and the under-researched group of Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) in the investigation (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Bonache et al., 2018; Brewster et al., 2021). Previously, the research focus was mostly on traditional AEs (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Bonache et al., 2018). This might be because the failure of AEs is more costly for global organisations due to their more comprehensive compensation packages (e.g., cross-cultural training, housing, travel allowances, insurance, and relocation services; Tharenou, 2013). However, more research involving SIEs is needed because SIEs constitute a larger group in the expatriate population and are attractive, less expensive alternatives for global organisations' staffing policies (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Tharenou, 2013). By including both groups of expatriates in the investigation, the findings of this thesis have, therefore, advanced generalisability to both AEs and SIEs.

Nonetheless, this thesis is not without limitations. First, due to the thesis' cross-sectional design, it is not possible to conclude with certainty about the causal direction of the observed relationships between the CQ dimensions and social capital (Levin, 2006; Setia, 2016; Solem, 2015). Cross-sectional design is also limited in identifying long-term effects (Solem, 2015). However, because expatriates are newcomers in the host country (Firth et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2018), it is expected that they will have to start from scratch to develop their social capital with HCNs in Malaysia. CQ is an individual ability which affects expatriates' interactions with HCNs from day one. Therefore, expatriates' CQ must precede their development of social capital with HCNs. Moreover, the qualitative results confirm the initial effect of expatriates' CQ on their development of social capital. Nevertheless, it is by no means exclusionary that expatriates' social interactions with HCNs might not facilitate their development of CQ in the feedback loop. For example, frequent interactions with HCNs may offer expatriates more opportunities to learn about the host culture (i.e., cognitive CQ), extend their behavioural repertoire (i.e., behavioural CQ), and develop a higher level of cultural sensitivity (i.e., metacognitive CQ). However, these long-term effects could not be discovered with the cross-sectional design of this thesis.

The second limitation of this thesis pertains to the sample and the research setting. Although the combination of snowball and self-selection sampling methods effectively increased the diversity of the sample (e.g., both AEs and SIEs from 36 different countries and more than nine industries and sectors were included), most of the expatriate interviewees in this thesis are Westerners.⁵⁵ Thus, the qualitative findings of this thesis might be limited to the cultural values of Western expatriates. For example, the expatriate participants in this thesis highlighted the importance of equality and low barriers with HCNs in a good work relationship. However, these aspects might be less important from the perspectives of, for example, Japanese expatriates due to their higher acceptance of power differences (Hofstede, 2003; House et al., 2004). Furthermore, the qualitative findings of this thesis highlight the potential mediating role of recognition and appraisal respect in the relationship between aspects of CQ (i.e., metacognitive and behavioural CQ) and expatriates' development of social capital with HCNs. However, Malaysia is a

⁵⁵ Westerners refer to expatriates with a European or North American cultural background (Parida et al., 2021).

country with high Humane Orientation (House et al., 2004).⁵⁶ In such countries, respect might have higher importance in interpersonal relationships compared to countries with lower levels of Humane Orientation (e.g., the USA, Brazil; House et al., 2004). Thus, the findings of this thesis might have limited generalisability to non-Western expatriates and other host country environments with different cultural orientations.

9.4 Recommendations for future research

The theoretical contributions and limitations of this thesis offer some interesting areas for future research. First, the qualitative findings of this thesis suggest that HCNs perceive expatriates with a higher level of metacognitive and behavioural CQ to have a higher level of recognition respect. This should in turn increase HCNs' appraisal respect, which results in expatriates' higher level of social capital. So far, very limited research exists which has investigated the development of different types of respect in intercultural work relationships (Vásquez-Fernández et al., 2021). Hence, future research may wish to test and validate the potential mediating effect of recognition and appraisal respect between expatriates' metacognitive and behavioural CQ and their social capital with culturally diverse HCNs, for example.

Second, although this thesis has identified expatriates' motivational CQ as a strong facilitator of expatriates' overall level of social capital, no significant effect was found for motivational CQ on the structural dimension of social capital. This is surprising because it is expected that expatriates who enjoy intercultural interactions would normally seek more frequent contacts with HCNs. The qualitative findings of this thesis suggest that expatriates with lower levels of motivational CQ might cease interacting with HCNs in the near future, although they reported frequent interactions with HCNs at the time of the survey. This is one possible explanation for the insignificant effect of motivational CQ on the structural dimension of social capital as observed in the regression analysis. However, such a long-term effect requires future research with, for example,

⁵⁶ Humane Orientation refers to the degree to which a society encourages individuals to be fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others (House et al., 2004).

longitudinal design to be investigated. Therefore, future research could investigate the long-term effects of the CQ dimensions on expatriates' structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

Finally, as discussed earlier, the findings of this thesis might have limited generalisability to non-Western expatriates and other host countries with a lower level of humane orientation, for example. Therefore, future research could include expatriates of other cultural backgrounds and host countries with different cultural orientations to validate the findings of this thesis. Future research could also include different host countries to test the moderating effect of humane orientation on respect and expatriates' development of social capital with their culturally diverse host national colleagues.

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Appendix A Cultural Dimensions of Hofstede and the GLOBE study

Hofstede (1980; 2003)	
Cultural Dimension	Definition
Uncertainty Avoidance	The degree to which members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity.
Power Distance	The extent to which members of a society expect and accept power difference and inequalities.
Individualism vs. Collectivism	The preference of a society to encourage care for oneself or care for the group.
Masculinity vs. Femininity	A society's preference for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material rewards for success, or harmony, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life.
Long-term vs. Short-term Orientation	A society's tendency to delay immediate gratification to be prepared for the future, or care more about the present and the past.
Indulgence vs. Restraint	A society's tolerance towards the generous fulfilment of human desires leading to enjoying life and having fun.

GLOBE Studies – House et al. (2004)	
Cultural Dimension	Definition
Uncertainty Avoidance	The degree to which members of a society rely on norms, rules and procedures to avoid uncertainty.
Power Distance	The degree to which the society accepts and endorses power inequalities, authority, and privileges.
Institutional Collectivism	The degree to which societal practices encourage collective distribution of resources and collective actions.
In-group Collectivism	The degree to which individuals express loyalty, pride and cohesiveness in their in-groups.
Performance Orientation	The degree to which a society endorses performance improvement and excellence.
Humane Orientation	The degree to which a society encourages individuals to be fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.
Gender Egalitarianism	The degree to which gender differences are minimized by the societal norms and practices.
Assertiveness	The degree to which members of a society are assertive, aggressive and

	confrontational in their relationships to others.
Future Orientation	The degree to which individuals in a society engage themselves in future-oriented behaviours.

Appendix B Participant Information Sheet



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title of project. Cultural intelligence and social capital: An investigation on expatriates' working relationships with host nationals in Malaysia.

Purpose. The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of expatriates' cultural intelligence on the quality of working relationships with their host national colleagues from a social capital perspective.

Volunteer participation. You have been selected as research participant because of your knowledge and experience in working with culturally diverse others. However, the participation to this study is voluntary. You are entirely free to participate or not, and you can withdraw at any time, without giving any reasons.

Task and implications. Your task as a participant is to answer an online questionnaire, which will take about 20 minutes of your time. If you are willing to be interviewed, an appointment will be made according to your convenient time and place. The interview will be audio-recorded and takes about 1 hour of your time.

Benefits. The study is designed to achieve a better understanding of the factors which have influence on the quality of working relationships between expatriates and their local colleagues in Malaysia. Results of this research may provide expatriates with opportunities to improve their working relationships with the local employees, thereby facilitating a better cooperation and higher performances of these intercultural working teams.

Risks and inconveniences. Beside the time investment, no inconvenience or risk are associated with your participation to this study by or from itself.

Confidentiality. Your answers to this survey will be handled confidentially and cannot lead to your identification, as data collected will be anonymised. Survey data including completed questionnaire and/or interview material (e.g. audio-record, notes, and transcripts) will be kept in separate password-protected files and will not be shared with a third party without your explicit agreement. Interview materials will be analysed with regard to emerging common patterns and themes, so that results will be discussed only in aggregated form, and no personal identification can be followed.

Researchers. This project is conducted by Bishan Leverenz (b.leverenz@student.shu.ac.uk) as part of her doctoral program at the Sheffield Hallam University (UK). You can contact the researcher, or the director of studies Dr. [dr. \[redacted\]@shu.ac.uk](mailto:dr. [redacted]@shu.ac.uk) in case of any questions or concerns pertaining to the research.

Ethical approval. This research has been reviewed and approved by UREC with Converis number ER7035699. Further information can be found at <https://www.shu.ac.uk/research/ethics-integrity-and-practice>. A full statement of your rights as participant can be found at <https://www.shu.ac.uk/about-this-website/privacy-policy/privacy-notices/privacy-notice-for-research>.

Research results. A summary of the research findings can be provided to participants with interest, once the doctoral thesis has been examined and approved by the university. To obtain such a summary, participants are requested to provide their contact information to the researcher.

Further contacts. DPO@shu.ac.uk for more information or issues regarding data protection. In case you have concerns with how the research was undertaken or how you were treated, please contact the Head of Research Ethics Professor [\[redacted\]@shu.ac.uk](mailto: [redacted]@shu.ac.uk).

Appendix C Consent Form



PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of the research study:

Cultural intelligence and social capital: An investigation on expatriates' working relationships with host nationals in Malaysia.

Please answer the following questions by ticking the response that applies

- | | YES | NO |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have read the Information Sheet for this study and have had details of the study explained to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. My questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction and I understand that I may ask further questions at any point. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study within the time limits outlined in the Information Sheet, without giving a reason for my withdrawal or to decline to answer any particular questions in the study without any consequences to my future treatment by the researcher. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I agree to provide information to the researchers under the conditions of confidentiality set out in the Information Sheet. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I wish to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I consent to the information collected for the purposes of this research study, once anonymised (so that I cannot be identified), to be used for any other research purposes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Participant's Name (Printed): _____

Contact details: _____

Researcher's Name (Printed): BISHAN LEVERENZ

Researcher's Signature: _____

Researcher's contact details:

Bishan Leverenz, Bishan The Graduate School, +60 146248224

Appendix D Email invitation Online Survey



E-Mail Invitation to Participation on Online Survey

Dear Sir or Madam,

my name is Bishan Leverenz and I am a doctoral student from the Sheffield Hallam University (UK). My current research on the topic *"Cultural intelligence and social capital: An investigation on expatriates' working relationships with host nationals in Malaysia"* aims at identifying factors, with which expatriates' working relationships with local (host national) employees can be improved.

To this end, I kindly ask for your support in answering some questions in my online questionnaire. You have been selected for the purpose of this study because of your knowledge and experience in working with local employees in Malaysia. Therefore, your answers to the questionnaire may provide particularly valuable and important insight to the research findings. Nonetheless, your participation is completely voluntary, so that you can withdraw from the study at any time, without giving any reasons.

The completion of the questionnaire takes about 20 minutes of your time. Your response will be anonymised and treated confidentially, so that no personal identification can be followed.

To proceed with the online questionnaire, please click on this link:

https://shusls.eu.qualtrics.com/ife/preview/SV_8IX651qASey1z5H?Q_SurveyVersionID=current&Q_CHL=preview

In case you have further questions or concerns pertaining to this research, please feel free to contact me on Bishan.Leverenz@student.shu.ac.uk, or [REDACTED]

Appendix E Interview Guide

Interview guide

Introduction:

Good morning/afternoon/evening, my name is Bishan Leverenz. I am a doctoral student from the Sheffield Hallam University. First of all, thank you so much for your interest in my research. My research aims at investigating expatriates' cultural intelligence in relation to the quality of their working relationships with host national employees in Malaysia. To explore this topic in more detail, I would like to discuss your understanding of the challenges within such intercultural working relationships, and your views on how to manage them. This discussion is expected to aid in developing new ideas on how to work effectively with colleagues from different cultural backgrounds, gain more understanding on host nationals'/expatriates' behaviours, or even gain better understanding of own cultural preferences.

This interview is expected to take approximately 1 hour. I need to take some notes and audio-record our conversation in order to not miss any important details when analysing the information that you gave to me in the interview. You can be sure that all records, transcripts, and any other details of our conversation will be anonymised and kept confidential. The participation on this interview is voluntary. You can end the interview at any time, without giving any reasons.

Do you have any questions so far? (→ If yes, answer the question and proceed; If no, proceed)

Based on these premises, are you willing to participate on this interview?

→ **If YES**, can you please sign the informed consent form? Thank you so much for your trust and your interest in my research. If you feel comfortable, we can start with the interview.

→ **If NO**: End of Interview, thank the person and provide contact information in case he or she changes his or her mind

Main part:

1) Can you tell me something about yourself?

- Age
- Nationality, ethnicity
- Where do you work now?

- What is your occupation? Job position?
 - How long have you been working with HCNs in Malaysia until now? (Expatriate only)
 - How long is your working experience with expatriates? (HCNs only)
 - Family accompanying (Expatriates only)?
- 2) What do you think are the reasons for companies sending expatriates to the host organization?
- The role of expats in the working relationship with HCNs
- 3) Which kind of support could HCNs offer to the expatriate? ~~What is the role of the local staff in this relation?~~
- What kind of resources HCNs can offer?
 - Why is it important to establish good relationships with HCNs?
 - Power relations?
- 4) ~~What is your experience working with HCNs/expatriates?~~ What are the biggest challenges in your working experience with HCNs/expatriates? ~~and the best part of it?~~ (Can you tell me some examples?)
- Cultural challenges?
 - Reasons for having a good relationship between expatriates and HCNs?
- 5) What do you think could expatriates do to gain more support from HCNs? (Can you explain in which situation ... is helpful)
- Elements of CQ?
 - Metacognitive (reflection, ready to change mental models)
 - Cognitive (have knowledge about the culture, how the systems work)
 - Motivational (be willing to interact with HCNs, seek opportunities, do not give up too soon)
 - Behavioural (verbal, non-verbal appropriate behaviours)
 - CQ in relation to Social Capital?
- 6) Imagine a very good working relationship between expatriates and HCNs. How would you describe it?
- Elements of Social capital?
 - Structural (Frequent interactions, contact)
 - Relational (Trust, Commitment)
 - Cognitive (shared goals, shared language and narratives)
- 7) What is a culturally intelligent person for your understanding?

8) How do you think cultural intelligence of expatriates could help in building a good relationship with the local staff?

9) Why do you think so (referring to question 8)?

Conclusion of interview:

We are approaching to the end of this interview. Thank you very much for your time and support in my research.

After our interview, I will transcribe our conversation and conduct my analysis. In case I need to clarify any information, or any additional questions arise, is it okay for me to contact you again? Confidentiality and anonymity will also be ensured in these cases, and you can withdraw from further participation at any later point in time without giving any reasons.

→If yes, could you provide me with your information with which I can contact you (E-mail, phone, ...)?

→If no, thank you again for your time.

In case you have any concerns or questions, please feel free to contact me on:

XXXXXXXX@student.shu.ac.uk, or +66 1 433 46534

Thank you very much again and have a good day.

.....

Appendix F Descriptive Statistics, Reliability, Correlations, and factor loadings of reflective measures

1. Descriptive Statistics:

Descriptive Statistics (raw score before transformation)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
MetaCog	2,75	7,00	5,9350	0,85989
CogCQ	2,50	7,00	5,0733	0,84630
MotiCQ	4,80	7,00	6,1180	0,62803
BehaCQ	2,60	7,00	5,3160	1,02185
Str_SC1	2,00	5,00	3,8479	0,80242
Rel_SC	1,33	5,00	4,1083	0,65408
Cog_SC	1,86	5,00	3,9529	0,68589

MetaCog = Metacognitive CQ; CogCQ = Cognitive CQ; MotiCQ = Motivational CQ; BehaCQ = Behavioural CQ;
Str_SC1 = Structural dimension of Social Capital; Rel_SC = Relational dimension of Social Capital; Cog_SC = Cognitive dimension of Social Capital

2. Reliability and Correlations:

Reliability and Correlations of study variables

Variables	AVE	Cronb.α	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.MetaCog	.736	.872	.858					
2.CogCQ	.460	.729	.520	.678				
3.MotiCQ	.478	.714	.426	.450	.691			
4.BehaCQ	.601	.827	.535	.383	.421	.775		
5.Rel_SC_log	.610	.869	.148	.177	.364	.227	.781	
6.Cog_SC_log	.578	.877	.204	.174	.333	.179	.736	.760

AVE = Average Variance Extracted

Cronb.α = Cronbach's Alpha used to check scale reliability

Square root of AVE shown in bold in the diagonal

Correlations of study variables (raw score before transformation)

	MetaCog	CogCQ	MotiCQ	BehaCQ	Rel_SC	Cog_SC
MetaCog	1	.520**	.426**	.535**	0,148	.204*
CogCQ	.520**	1	.450**	.383**	0,177	0,174
MotiCQ	.426**	.450**	1	.421**	.364**	.333**
BehaCQ	.535**	.383**	.421**	1	.227*	0,179
Rel_SC	0,148	0,177	.364**	.227*	1	.736**
Cog_SC	.204*	0,174	.333**	0,179	.736**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations of Sub-dimensions (raw score before transformation)

	Trust	Commitment	Shared_language	Shared_Goals
Trust	1	.688**	.532**	.658**
Commitment	.688**	1	.607**	.658**
Shared_language	.532**	.607**	1	.634**
Shared_Goals	.658**	.658**	.634**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

3. Factor Loadings of reflective measures:

		factor loading	AVE
<i>Metacognitive CQ</i> (Ang et al., 2007)			.736
Item1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds	.864	
Item2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me	.878	
Item3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions	.864	
Item4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures	.826	
<i>Cognitive CQ</i> (Ang et al., 2007)			.460
Item5	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures	.625	
Item6	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages	.460	
Item7	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures	.701	
Item8	I know the marriage systems of other cultures	.705	
Item9	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures	.828	
Item10	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures	.696	
<i>Motivational CQ</i> (Ang et al., 2007)			.478
Item11	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	.734	
Item12	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	.744	
Item13	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me	.726	

Item14	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me	.704	
Item15	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture	.523	
<i>Behavioural CQ</i> (Ang et al., 2007)			.601
Item16	I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	.812	
Item17	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations	.793	
Item18	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it	.817	
Item19	I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	.708	
Item20	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	.741	
<i>Relational dimension of social capital</i> (Horn et al., 2014; Liu & Shaffer, 2005)			.610
trust_1	When making decisions, my local colleagues consider my business interest, too	.602	
trust_2	I can trust that my local colleagues will lend me a hand if I need it	.846	
trust_3	My local colleagues are sincere and honest with me	.822	
trust_4	I believe the information my local colleagues provide	.809	
commitment_1	I would not drop my networking with my local colleagues because I enjoy being connected with them	.799	
commitment_2	I am happy to continue working with my local colleagues for the rest of my assignment	.782	
<i>Cognitive dimension of social capital</i> (Chang & Chuang, 2011; Chow & Chan, 2008)			.578

Shared language and narratives _1	My local colleagues and I use an understandable way of communication during discussion	.682
Shared language and narratives _2	My local colleagues and I use common terms and jargons in daily business interactions	.767
Shared language and narratives _3	I can interpret the deeper meanings of my local colleagues' words correctly	.676
Shared goal _1	My local colleagues provide useful resources for me to achieve my goals at work	.792
Shared goal _2	My local colleagues and I have a common understanding about what is important at work	.826
Shared goal _3	My local colleagues and I are highly motivated about pursuing our goals at work	.736
Shared goal _4	My local colleagues and I frequently take actions in line with our goals at work	.826

Appendix G Survey Questionnaire

Start of Block: Cover Letter and Consent

Thank you for your interest in my research. Before we start, I need to be sure that you are informed about the purpose of this research and you agree to participate on this survey.

Purpose. The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of expatriates' cultural intelligence on the quality of their working relationships with host national employees in Malaysia from a social capital perspective.

Volunteer participation. You have been selected as research participant because of your knowledge and experience in working with culturally diverse others. However, the participation to this study is voluntary. You are entirely free to participate or not, and you can withdraw at any time, without giving any reasons.

Task and implications. Your task as a participant is to answer some questionnaires. It will take about 20 minutes of your time.

Benefits. The study is designed to achieve a better understanding of the factors which have influence on the quality of working relationships between expatriates and their local colleagues in Malaysia. Results of this research may provide expatriates with opportunities to improve their working relationships with the local employees, thereby facilitating a better cooperation and higher performances of these intercultural working teams

Risks and inconveniences. Beside the time investment, no inconvenience or risk are associated with your participation to this study by or from itself.

Confidentiality. Your answers to this survey will be handled confidentially and cannot lead to your identification, as data collected will be anonymised. Survey data will be kept in separate password-protected files and will not be shared with a third party without your explicit agreement.

Researchers. This project is conducted by Bishan Leverenz (Bishan.Zhu@student.shu.ac.uk) as part of her doctoral program at the Sheffield Hallam University (UK). You can contact the researcher, or the director of studies Dr. Issa (S.Issa@shu.ac.uk) in case of any questions or concerns pertaining to the research.

Ethical Approval. This research has been reviewed and approved by UREC with Converis number ER7035699. Further information can be found at <https://www.shu.ac.uk/research/ethics-integrity-and-practice>. A full statement of your rights as participant can be found at <https://www.shu.ac.uk/about-this-website/privacy-policy/privacy-notices/privacy-notice-for-research>.

Research results. A summary of the research findings can be provided to the participants, once the doctoral thesis has been examined and approved by the university. To obtain such a summary, participants are requested to provide their contact information to the researcher.

Further contacts. DPO@shu.ac.uk for more information or issues regarding data protection. In case you have concerns with how the research was undertaken or how you were treated,

Q3 What is your highest educational achievement?

- ☐ High school diploma
 - ☐ Bachelor's degree
 - ☐ Diploma degree
 - ☐ Master's degree
 - ☐ Doctoral degree
 - ☐ Others, please type in your answer and press the next button
-

Q4 What is your nationality? Please type in your answer in the box below.
Use the next button to proceed to the next question.

Q5 Are you currently working in a foreign country because you were sent by a company/organization?

- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
-

Q6 In which country do you work now?

- ☐ Malaysia
- ☐ Other country

Skip To: End of Survey If In which country do you work now? = Other country

Q7 In which part of Malaysia are you working now?

- ☐ Penang
 - ☐ Selangor
 - ☐ Johor
 - ☐ Sabah
 - ☐ Malakka
 - ☐ Sarawak
 - ☐ Perak
 - ☐ Pahang
 - ☐ Terengganu
 - ☐ Others, please type in your answer and press the next button
-

Q8 How long have you been working in Malaysia until today?

- ☐ Less than 6 months
- ☐ 6 months - 2 years
- ☐ More than 2 years, less than 5 years
- ☐ 5 years and above

Skip to End of Survey if How long have you been.... = less than 6 months.

Q9 Which industry does your current company/organization (in Malaysia) belong to?

- ☐ Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries
 - ☐ Construction
 - ☐ Education
 - ☐ Energy & Utilities
 - ☐ Finance & Investment
 - ☐ IT
 - ☐ Manufacturing
 - ☐ Retail & Wholesale
 - ☐ Transportation
 - ☐ Travel & Tourism
 - ☐ Others, please type in your answer and press the next button
-

Q10 Please answer the following question by selecting the option which best describes your experience. Use the next button to proceed to the next question.

	Never (1)	Seldom (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Always (5)
Have you worked with people from other cultural backgrounds before your current assignment?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q11 Do you have to work with host nationals (local staff) on your current assignment?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Skip To: End of Survey If Do you have to work with host nationals (local staff) on your current assignment? = No

Q12 Which language do you use **most of the times** for communicating with the local staff?

- ☐ English
- ☐ Other languages

Skip To: End of Survey If Which language do you use most of the times for communicating with the local staff? = Other languages

Q13 Please position the slider according to your proficiency in the language you mostly use to communicate with the local staff.

Use the next button to proceed to the next question.

Beginner Intermediate Advanced

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

What is your proficiency level in the selected language?



Q14 What is your current job position?

- ☐ Staff / Employee/ Technician
- ☐ Mid-level manager
- ☐ Top-level manager
- ☐ Others, please type in your answer and press the next button


End of Block: demographics

In the following questions, please select the answer that **BEST** describes you **AS YOU REALLY ARE** by shifting the slider to the appropriate position. Use the **Next** button to proceed to the next questions.

Start of Block: CQ

Q15


Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.							

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Q16

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.							

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Q17

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**I am conscious of
the cultural
knowledge I apply to
cross-cultural
interactions.**



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Q18

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**I check the accuracy
of my cultural
knowledge as I
interact with people
from different
cultures.**



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Q19

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement in general.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.



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Q20

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement in general.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.



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Q21 Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement in general.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.



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Q22

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement in general.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I know the marriage systems of other cultures.



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Q23

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement in general.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.



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Q24

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement in general.

Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Somewhat Agree Strongly
disagree disagree disagree agree agree agree
nor agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I know the rules for
expressing non-verbal
behaviours in other
cultures.



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Q25

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Somewhat Agree Strongly
disagree disagree disagree agree agree agree
nor agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I enjoy interacting with
people from different
cultures.



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Q26

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.



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Q27

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7


I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.



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Q28


Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.							

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Q29

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.							

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Q30

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.



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Q31

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.



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Q32

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.							
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Q33

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							
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Q34

Position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

4

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End of Block: CQ

Start of Block: Social Capital

Q35 Please list up to 5 colleagues from your current work, who have provided you support in the last 6 months. The support you received can be instrumental such as support for you to perform your task, or emotional, for example someone was there to listen to your problems or helped you to feel more comfortable in your working environment. For data protection reasons please only enter the initials (e.g., John Smith = JS), so that **no personal identification can be followed and you know to whom you are referring to** in the later questions.

- ☐ Person 1 _____
- ☐ Person 2 _____
- ☐ Person 3 _____
- ☐ Person 4 _____
- ☐ Person 5 _____

Carry Forward Entered Choices - Entered Text from "Please list up to 5 colleagues from your current work, who have provided you support in the last 6 months. The support you received can be instrumental such as support for you to perform your task, or emotional, for example someone was there to listen to your problems or helped you to feel more comfortable in your working environment. For data protection reasons please only enter the initials (e.g., John Smith = JS), so that no personal identification can be followed and you know to whom you are referring to in the later questions. "



Q36

Please identify the ethnicity of the persons you named before by selecting the appropriate option in the dropdown list.

Person 1	▼ Malay ... I don't know
Person 2	▼ Malay ... I don't know
Person 3	▼ Malay ... I don't know
Person 4	▼ Malay ... I don't know
Person 5	▼ Malay... I don't know

Carry Forward Entered Choices - Entered Text from "Please list up to 5 colleagues from your current work, who have provided you support in the last 6 months. The support you received can be instrumental such as support for you to perform your task, or emotional, for example someone was there to listen to your problems or helped you to feel more comfortable in your working environment. For data protection reasons please only enter the initials (e.g. John Smith = JS), so that no personal identification can be followed and you know to whom you are referring to in the later questions."



Q37 Please select the appropriate option for the persons you named before.

	This person is...				
	my subordinate (1)	my co-worker in the same department (2)	my supervisor (3)	colleague from another department (4)	I don't know (5)
Person 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 2	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 3	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 4	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Person 5	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Carry Forward Entered Choices - Entered Text from "Please list up to 5 colleagues from your current work, who have provided you support in the last 6 months. The support you received can be instrumental such as support for you to perform your task, or emotional, for example someone was there to listen to your problems or helped you to feel more comfortable in your working environment. For data protection reasons please only enter the initials (e.g., John Smith = JS), so that no personal identification can be followed and you know to whom you are referring to in the later questions."



Q38 How often do you have contact with the persons you named before? Please position the slider at the appropriate position.

	Very seldom	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very often
	1	2	3	4	5
Person 1					
Person 2					
Person 3					
Person 4					
Person 5					


Q39

Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
When making decisions, my local colleagues consider my business interest, too.					


Q40

Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**


	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
I can trust that my local colleagues will lend me a hand if I need it.					

Q41

Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
My local colleagues are sincere and honest with me.					

Q42 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
I believe the information my local colleagues provide.					

Q43 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither disagree nor agree Agree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

I would not drop my networking with my local colleagues because I enjoy being connected with them.



Q44 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither disagree nor agree Agree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

I am happy to continue working with my local colleagues for the rest of my assignment.



Q45 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither disagree nor agree Agree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

My local colleagues and I use an understandable way of communication during discussion.



Q46 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
My local colleagues and I use common terms and jargons in daily business interactions.					

Q47 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
My local colleagues provide useful resources for me to achieve my goals at work.					

Q48 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your **local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
I can interpret the deeper meanings of my local colleagues' words correctly.					

Q49 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither disagree nor agree Agree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

My local colleagues and I have a common understanding about what is important at work.



Q50 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither disagree nor agree Agree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

My local colleagues and I are highly motivated about pursuing our goals at work.



Q51 Please position the slider to indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please answer the following questions with reference to your local colleagues (e.g., Malaysians) at work.

Strongly disagree Disagree Neither disagree nor agree Agree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5

My local colleagues and I frequently take actions in line with our goals at work.



Q52

From where have you heard about this survey?

- ☐ E-mail forwarded from friends, or acquaintances
 - ☐ KL Expats
 - ☐ ExpatGo
 - ☐ Others, please enter your answer
-

Q53

Is it the first time you participate on this survey?

- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
-

Q54

We are approaching to the end of this survey. Thank you very much for your honest response so far!

When necessary, may I contact you for an interview? You can be sure that the information you provide in the interview will be anonymised and treated confidentially.

- ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
-

Q55 Please enter your e-mail address to be included in the lottery.

- ☐ Contact me with this e-mail address:

 - ☐ I don't want to be contacted
-

End of survey

Coding Scheme

No.	Code Name	Definition	Examples	Source (line)
1.	Metacognitive CQ	A person being highly reflective, aware and has a deeper understanding of cultural similarities and differences, able to develop effective action strategies based on prior interactions with culturally diverse others.	"When you interact with the locals, you need to observe the way how they get the things done, you need to think first before you act" "But then, I asked myself, or I also challenged myself "why was it not working?" others.	Trans#1: 347-348 Trans#2: 359-361 Trans#3: 102-104, 255-260, 264, 271-275 Trans#4: 181-182 Trans#5: 58-59, 61-63, 89-90, 117, 122-123, 132-135, 140, 159, 219-221, 274-276, 278-281, 286-289, 292-294 Trans#7: 233-235 Trans#8: 191-193 Trans#9: 115-119, 309-313 Trans#10: 97-99, 131-133, 230-232 Trans#11: 133-135, 185-186 Trans#13: 101-103, 288-289 Trans#17: 327-328 Trans#20: 60-62, 200-203, Trans#21: 368-369
2.	Cognitive CQ	Cultural knowledge (dos and don'ts) acquired from training, books etc.	"For example, in Malaysia there are Malays, then you have Chinese, then you have Indians" "Sometimes trainings are only telling you the dos and don'ts. This leads to assumptions which are not always true"	Trans#1: 345-347 Trans#2: 357-359 Trans#3: 67-69, 256-259 Trans#5: 43-44, 61-63, 73-74, 274-276, 278, 284-285, 291-292, 301-304 Trans#6: 371-374, 413-414 Trans#7: 154-159, 231-233

				trans#9: 121-123 trans#10: 229 Trans#14: 315-316, 332-334, 415-418 Trans#15: 319-327 Trans#16: 115-119 trans#17: 319-322
3.	Motivational CQ	A person showing interest to know people of other cultures, making efforts to fit in, and show perseverance despite of difficulties	"At the beginning I asked many questions. After a while I stopped because these questions were never answered" (low motivational CQ)	trans#10: 198; 209-210 Trans#2: 327-329, 337-339 trans#3: 76-77, 85-87, 95-97 trans#5: 78-79, 186-189, 232-234 Trans#6: 135-137 trans#10: 208-209, 211-212, 222 trans#17: 58-59 trans#19: 99-100
4.	Behavioural CQ	A person showing observable behavioural changes (e.g., gestures, use of space, tone or style of communication) according to the cultural expectation	"What I do different is I ask different, or I try to.. if I have the feeling they don't share their real opinion, then I give examples with what happened to me" "Sometimes I would scream through the whole corridor" (low behavioural CQ because not according to the local expectation of being gentle and soft)	trans#3: 135-138 trans#4: 371-374 trans#5: 117-119, 122-123 Trans#7: 221-223 Trans#8: 191-193 trans#9: 115-119 trans#10: 230-232 trans#17: 217-225 trans#18: 39-41, 138-141 trans#20: 169-171, 287-290, 303-304
5.	Structural dimension of Social Capital	Any indices of contact frequency and number of HCN contact in one's network	"Sometimes, I go for dinner with my local colleagues"	Trans#2: 365-367, 381-382

		<p>"most of the times, I don't see the locals except at work" (low structural dimension of social capital)</p> <p>Trans#3: 132-135; 204-205; 249-251 Trans#5: 243-245; 271-272 Trans#7: 223-225; 227-228 Trans#8: 235-236 Trans#10: 189-190 Trans#11: 113-114 Trans#15: 219-220 Trans#16: 224-226 Trans#17: 420-422 Trans#19: 137-138; 213-215 Trans#20: 203-204 Trans#21: 285-286 Trans#1: 202-203 Trans#2: 335-336 Trans#3: 76-79; 110-113; 149-150; 184-186; 226-230; 243-247 Trans#4: 192-193; 273-274; 381-382 Trans#5: 253-254; 268-269 Trans#6: 320-321; 323-324 Trans#7: 219-220; 260-261 Trans#8: 115-119; 285-286; 303-305; 372-376 Trans#10: 62-63; 150-154; 164-168; 213 Trans#11: 122 Trans#13: 201-202; 205-207 Trans#15: 149; 220-221</p>
6.	Relational dimension of social capital	<p>Trust, commitment</p> <p>"I think this is a good sign to show I'm not here only to fulfil my task, and to maybe earn some money, and you guys can all go to hell. No, I'm also interested in you" (commitment)</p> <p>"This is the situation now, where I only take actions when someone tells me to do it" (low commitment)</p> <p>"How should I know what they really think about me? I just try to give a good impression so that they don't have that many chances to talk bad about me" (low level of trust)</p> <p>"they are greedy, they just like to misuse it for their advantage" (mistrust)</p>

			<p>Trans#16: 207-208; 210; 215-216 Trans#17: 424-425 Trans#18: 206-207 Trans#21: 83-84; 288-289; 398-399 Trans#22: 107-108; 185-186 Trans#1: 221-223 Trans#4: 127-131; 140-143 Trans#5: 43-44; 89-90; 117-119; 122-123; 183-185; 252-253; 285-289; 291-298; 315-316 Trans#7: 215-216 Trans#8: 234-235; 307-309; 323-325 Trans#10: 90; 218-219 Trans#11: 145-146 Trans#13: 101-103 Trans#15: 230-231 Trans#17: 411-412 Trans#18: 169-170; 178-180 Trans#21: 186-189 Trans#1: 195-197 Trans#3: 17-21; 56-59 Trans#5: 27-28 Trans#9: 167-169 Trans#10: 47-48 Trans#13: 267-268 Trans#14: 199-201 Trans#17: 412-414</p>
7.	Cognitive dimension of social capital	<p>Shared language and narratives: A person speaking the same language with his or her colleagues (verbal as well as non-verbal communication), his or her ability to understand the deeper meanings of other people's words, or the lack of it; shared understanding of jokes</p> <p>Shared goals: same goal, objectives, or work together towards a certain goal. Or indices that a person knows what the other person needs and offers support accordingly</p>	<p>"Sometimes we make jokes, but you know that's just jokes, he doesn't mean it bad" (shared language and narratives)</p> <p>"When he shows a problem, I will straight away start to tell him what do I think already" (shared goals)</p>
8.	Role Expatriate_Knowledge Transfer	<p>Expatriate are sent to transfer knowledge, experiences and expertise; Coach the local employees</p>	<p>"There are experts who are sent, you can learn a lot from them"</p> <p>"Because they are the experts, right? They need to tell me what to do, right?"</p> <p>"Then, you are here to help them, so that one day, they can do it alone"</p>

21.	Hierarchy/ Power relationship	Any statements indicating respect for supervisors, power relations with authority and supervisors	"Because he is my supervisor, so sometimes I feel shy to ask many times"	trans#0: 122- 124 trans#4: 382- 383 Trans#6: 320- 321 Trans#8: 372- 375 Trans#11: 121-122 Trans#12: 120-123, 169- 170; 185-186 Trans#14: 115-117; 147- 152; 426-429 Trans#15: 180-181 trans#17: 399- 402; 412-414; 464-465 trans#22: 39- 40; 108-109; 123-124; 224- 225