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Harum Kusuma Apriyanti

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The Perceptions of the Impact of Social Capital on Expatriate Work Well-Being in the Resources Sector in Indonesia

Ms Harum Kusuma Apriyanti
BA (University of Queensland), BPsySc (University of Indonesia)
Master of International Relations (Griffith University)

Department of Employment Relations and Human Resource Management

Griffith Business School, Griffith University

Supervisors:
Professor Kate Hutchings
Professor Ruth McPhail

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Abstract

This research explores how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Recent research found that work well-being is comprised of cognitive and affective components (e.g., Fisher, 2010). Prior literature has mainly defined job satisfaction as the key aspect of work well-being (e.g., Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Yet, from this quantitative extant literature, questions remain with regard to what constitutes and comprises work well-being as affected by factors internal and external to the organisation. Moreover, there is need for research that examines work well-being amongst employees and sectors that have not been previously examined in the work well-being literature. Thus, the current research involves a qualitative study to explore, identify, and provide an understanding of how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. This is undertaken through examining the perceptions of expatriates, spouses, and HR managers.

Though the resources sector is internationally economically significant and a large employer, it has been suggested that levels of work well-being are relatively low for employees working in the resources sector generally (ACRRMH, 2014). However, consideration has not previously been given to how social capital might impact on work well-being of resources sector expatriate employees who often work in a remote area, which is quite distinct from the workplaces of non-expatriate employees who have been studied in previous work well-being research. In the current research, perceptions of work well-being, and the perceptions of the impact of social capital on it, are also examined with respect to whether they differ across expatriate employees in the resources sector in Indonesia amongst differing organisational ownership (local or multinational corporation) employers as well as by organisational position, age, gender, marital status, nationality, years of expatriation,
length of stay, prior international experience, and work location. The core theory which is used to examine the overarching research question (RQ): “How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” is Social Capital Theory (SCT). This thesis employs social capital theory as utilized by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) because it focuses on the resources embedded in the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit that suits the current qualitative research which scope is to examine the individual and social units.

Using Indonesia as a case study, this research employed a qualitative, interview-based approach. Fifty-eight semi-structured interviews were conducted with 43 expatriate employees working in the mining and oil and gas industries in Indonesia, as well as 8 spouses and 7 human resource (HR) managers, in order to gain an understanding of the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being. The findings suggested that social capital, through its three dimensions (structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions), is perceived to significantly impact on expatriate work well-being. The data were analysed with NVivo 11.

This research provides theoretical contributions to expatriate/expatriation literature, specifically in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital, as well as to both work well-being and social capital literature, in several key areas. This research particularly provides insight into a specific context (i.e., the Indonesian resources sector); both Indonesia and the resources sector internationally have been under-researched in the business/management/HRM literature. First, the research is important in focusing on expatriates/expatriation issues in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital by specifically examining expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia; a sector and country that have received limited attention in the extant expatriate/expatriation literature. Second, the study extends the existing literature on work well-being by offering a more thorough
examination of the components of work well-being through the study of expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia. Third, the current study extends the social capital literature in relation to expatriates by providing an understanding of the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being, particularly by examining three dimensions of social capital; namely, the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions.

This research also offers practical implications for both organisations and individuals. At an organisational level, this research contributes to practice by suggesting the need for organisations that employ expatriates to have an understanding of bureaucracy in Indonesia, hiring issues in Indonesia, and how to work within the business culture of Indonesia. At an individual level, this study offers expatriates suggestions for how to build trust through embracing family values and ways to socially network and find beneficial networks in Indonesia, as well as to encourage their understanding of the cultural diversity in Indonesia.
Statement of original authorship

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university.

To the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Name: Harum Kusuma Apriyanti

Signed: 

Date: October 2017
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This research explores the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. The current research provides a new conceptual framework of work well-being—developed from the perceptions of Indonesian resources sector expatriates, their spouses, and HR managers understanding of expatriates’ use of social capital. This new conceptual framework builds on Fisher’s (2014) model of work well-being which includes affective, cognitive and social components. The core theory underpinning this research is Social Capital Theory (SCT) which is used to explore expatriates’, their spouses’, and HR managers’ perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. This is because Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) SCT focuses on the resources embedded in the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit that suits the current qualitative research which scope is to examine the individual and social units. In addition, in non-Western countries like Indonesia which is highly collectivist in nature, social capital is argued to be vital (cf. Sorensen, 2015). In this chapter, a background to the study by discussing: the country context of the study, the significance of the research (including research questions), an overview of the research design, the key contributions of the research, and an outline of the structure of the thesis.

Work well-being remains an under-researched concept. Although work well-being is considered to be the most important aspect of overall subjective well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010), exactly what work well-being really constitutes is still unclear. Fisher (2010, p. 9) suggested that “our understanding of the antecedents and consequences of happiness and well-being in the workplace is growing rapidly”. Similar to subjective well-being, there are also cognitive and affective components that have been examined to discuss what constitutes
work well-being. Related job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work engagement, job performance) represent the cognitive part, while certain emotions characterised by the levels of positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) represent the affective part (Fisher, 2014).

Fisher (2010) pointed out that there are several concepts that are associated with work well-being, namely, job satisfaction, job involvement, affective organisational commitment, work engagement, positive and negative emotions and moods at work, flow states, intrinsic motivation, thriving, and vigour. Some researchers also use negative characteristics (i.e., burnout) as a measure, as the absence of or low levels of burnout signify a happier state of well-being for employees. Job satisfaction is the most common measure used to indicate work well-being, with many well-validated measures examining overall job satisfaction and its facets, such as supervisor, pay, and work itself (Fisher, 2014). However, since job satisfaction involves both cognitive evaluations as well as affectivity, criticism has arisen in respect to how most job satisfaction measures fail to capture the affective reactions and how its facets are cognitively loaded (Fisher, 2010). Fisher (2014, p. 16) argued that “job satisfaction might be considered the workplace analogy of life satisfaction – an important component of subjective well-being, but this is by no means the whole story”. Organisational commitment is also widely studied in measuring work well-being, and considers the feeling of identification with an organisation’s goals and values (normative commitment), the feeling of being a part of the organisation (affective commitment), and the degree to which employees perceive the cost associated with leaving the organisation (continuance commitment). Organisational commitment is commonly measured using the Organisational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Further, work well-being is also measured through individual affect and meaning. This is manifested through measuring a person’s affect at work (positive and negative affect), as well as meaning at work, such as job involvement and work engagement (Fisher, 2014).
Finally, with regard to the social well-being dimension, an individual’s social connection at work is also regarded as important in contributing to well-being in the workplace (Fisher, 2014). This is represented through a sense of belonging as well as feeling of appreciation when a person is valued by their supervisor and has a good relationship with their peers (Fisher, 2014). However, as yet, work well-being has not been examined in relation to social capital, and there is need to understand how social capital might impact work well-being.

This is important because social capital determines business success, especially in non-Western countries like Indonesia. Sorensen (2015) noted that the benefits of social capital are particularly pronounced in Asian contexts, where social and exchange relationships serve as the basis for most business dealings, and where the performance of businesses has been found to relate to their ability to build and maintain durable networks. The pronounced importance of social capital influences expatriate work well-being.

Past research has found job satisfaction to be the most important aspect of work well-being (e.g., Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), as well as identified individual factors that influence work well-being such as age, gender, and pay. Yet, from this quantitative extant literature, little is known regarding the impact of social capital on work well-being generally or for particular groups of employees. Social capital has been found to play a central role in assisting successful expatriation (e.g., Fischlmayr & Puchmüller, 2016; McPhail et al., 2016), yet expatriate work well-being has not previously been examined. Thus, this research is significant in providing an analysis of how social capital may impact on expatriate work well-being. Given previous studies on work well-being have mainly used quantitative measures and explored particular aspects of work well-being, the current research is unique as it qualitatively seeks to understand the perception of expatriates, expatriate spouses, and human resources (HR) managers of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the specific context of the resources sector in Indonesia.
In the resources sector, work well-being plays a major role in workers’ productivity, which is important for the organisations. According to The Australasian Centre for Rural and Remote Mental Health (ACRRMH), understanding well-being in the resources sector is vital for improving productivity and profits (ACRRMH, 2014). Working in the resources sector offers substantial financial rewards but at the same time poses significant physical and psychological demands on employees. ACCRRMH (2014) noted that workers in the resources sector are more prone to suffer from mental disorders, given the stressful work and harsh environment in respect to the (often) remoteness of locations and associated isolation. However, rising energy demands and high oil prices, and the importance of the resources to developing international economies means that effective management and high productivity of employees within the sector is crucial.

Although the growth of business in many Asian economies as a result of resources, market and supply chain advantages has drawn much research attention (e.g., Dellestrand & Kappen, 2012), Indonesia, in particular, remains under-researched in respect to management and human resource management. Despite the limited attention Indonesian business practices and organisational management has received in the academic literature, Indonesia’s richness in natural resources and abundance of human resources has attracted multinational corporations (MNCs) to invest in, and establish offices and manufacturing in Indonesia. The Indonesia Investment Coordinating Board (BKPM) has highlighted key reasons to invest as including Indonesia’s abundant natural resources, the numbers of young and skilled people in the workforce, combined with a vibrant and growing domestic market and a strong investment climate and global recognition of Indonesia’s position in the world (BKPM, 2014). Therefore, work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia is important for sustaining the growth of the Indonesian economy. By understanding work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia – specifically, by focusing on the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate employees’ work well-being – this current research not only
contribute to expatriate/expatriation, work well-being, and social capital literature, but it may provide HR practitioners with guidelines to ensure better work well-being and contribute to continuing to attract and retain expatriates in organisations in the sector.

1.1.1 Study context

Indonesia, the largest archipelagic country in the world with some 17,000 islands and possessing a rich variety of natural resources, is strategically positioned on major trade routes between Asia and Australia (Figure 1.1). Indonesia has five main islands; Borneo (the third largest island in the world at 539,460 sq. km), Sumatra (the sixth largest island in the world at 473,606 sq. km), Papua (the second largest island in the world at 421,981 sq. km), Sulawesi (189,216 sq. km), and Java (132,107 sq. km). Indonesia is a developing country with over 17,000 islands and more than 300 ethnic groups and over 300 native languages, which makes it highly diverse in terms of cultures and natural environment.

![Figure 1.1: Map of Indonesia.](http://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/map/indonesia_map.htm)
1.1.2 Culture

Indonesia is the largest populated Muslim country in the world with more than 80% of its 244 million people being Muslims (Indonesia Investment, 2016). However, Indonesia is not an Islamic state in that the state acknowledges six official religions and promotes pluralism. Indonesia is the world’s fourth most populous country, as well as the largest and most populated country in South East Asia.

As a highly diverse country, Indonesia is united under its state motto, ‘Bhinneka Tunggal Ika’, which means ‘Unity in Diversity’. To illustrate, Indonesians are united by the national language, Bahasa Indonesia, or Indonesian language. Culturally, Indonesia, which stretches from Sabang in Sumatera to Merauke in Papua, consists of various ethnic groups and religions, and a wide range of languages and local dialects are spoken. The Indonesian Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2014) noted that “the Javanese are the largest ethnic group and, politically, the most dominant”.

As quoted on the official website of The Indonesian Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2014), Indonesia’s history has experienced significant influence from other nations. Since the 7th century, the Indonesian archipelago became a vital trading area when the Kingdom of Sriwijaya (one of the Indonesian oldest kingdoms), founded religious and trade relations with China and India. Hindu and Buddhist Kingdoms pioneered the establishment of Indonesian kingdoms in the early AD centuries, which was then followed by the spread of Islam brought by later traders. Given its richness in resources in the form of spices, European sailors, when exploring the world, came to Indonesia and settled on the island of Moluccas – the far eastern island of Indonesia.

1.1.3 Political system

Colonised by the Dutch for more than 300 years (from the 17th through to the mid 20th centuries), Indonesia was later occupied by the Japanese for three years (from 1942) and finally gained independence in 1945. As a former colonial state, colonial rule has largely
affected post-independence rule. For example, the country’s economic and political growth is mostly centralised in Jakarta, the country’s capital (e.g., Lange, 2010). Given the centralised development in the island of Java, Schlossberg (2007) argued that the gradual Javanisation has brought about resentment from people on the outer islands.

With regard to Indonesian political history, Indonesia has had seven presidents in the post-independence era; Sukarno (1945–1967), Suharto (1967–1998), B.J Habibie (1998–1999), Abdurrahman Wahid (1999–2001), Megawati Sukarnoputri (2001–2004), Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono (2004–2014), and Joko Widodo (2014–present). Indonesia transformed into the largest democratic country (in terms of its population and country size) in South East Asia following the fall of Suharto, who held the office of presidency for 32 years and exercised an authoritarian regime with a centralised unitary state, where paternalism was enforced and constructive regional autonomy was suppressed (Keller, 2001). Following the fall of Suharto in 1998, a period of reform began. Reformasi, or reform period, marked the newly democratic Indonesia when national policies and the governance system were reviewed. According to Macrae and Putra (2007, p. 171), elections held in Indonesia since reform have been more free and fair. Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono was the first president who was elected by the people through a fair election (e.g., Macrae & Putra, 2007). As reported by EIU ViewsWire (2009), Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono managed to gain a remarkable victory in the presidential election on July 8, 2009, and his victory could be attributed to his mandate of pursuing the reformist policy agenda. As for his predecessor, the Lowy Institute (2014), an Australian thinktank for international policy, wrote that Joko Widodo’s victory offers Indonesians a new path for political advancement. Unlike his six predecessors, Joko Widodo did not work his way up the military or political party hierarchy; rather, he proved himself to be successful in finishing projects and cleaning up municipal level government.
1.1.4 Indonesian economy

As one of the Asia Pacific’s largest developing countries, Indonesia has attracted many sizeable foreign organisations to invest in its growing economy. Despite the negative impact of the global financial crisis, which commenced in 2008, over the past 30 years, Indonesia’s economy has grown, and this has also resulted in a remarkable socio-cultural transformation. For instance, Ramstetter and Sjöholm (2006) referred to Indonesia as one of the examples of the Asian miracle phenomenon. Heuer, Cummins, and Hutabarat (1999) noted that given the implementation of a market-oriented economic policy, Indonesia’s economy has significantly shifted towards a more positive financial state with apparent increases in gross domestic product per capita and growing numbers in the middle class. Consequently, with increasing foreign organisations present, the numbers of foreign workers (expatriates) has also increased. Indonesian immigration office data indicate that there were a total of 55,010 foreigners with work permits in Indonesia in 2011, which was an increase of 10% compared to the numbers in 2010. The numbers of foreign residents also increased by 6% to 111,752 in 2011 (excluding tourists and foreign envoys), and this number increased by the end of 2016. Based on data from the Indonesian Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration (2017), by the end of 2016, most expatriates were from the People’s Republic of China (PRC), and most expatriates work as professionals and in the service industry (see Table 1.1, Table 1.2, and Table 1.3 below).
### Table 1.1: Expatriate workers in Indonesia based on country of origin (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Origin</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People’s Republic of China</td>
<td>21,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>12,490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>8,424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>5,059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>4,138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3,428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>2,812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2,483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>2,394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>2,252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>1,748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7,684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>74,183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Data generated from the Indonesian Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration (http://binapenta.kemnaker.go.id/uploads/data_informasi/IMTA_2012-NOV2016.pdf)

### Table 1.2: Expatriate workers in Indonesia based on position (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>23,078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>12,889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>11,468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advisor/Consultant</td>
<td>10,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>10,614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>3,795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commissioner</td>
<td>1,612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>74,183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Professionals are expatriates working in professions who do not hold a leadership role such as directing (i.e. director) or managing (i.e. HRM manager, general manager) the employees.

Table 1.3: Expatriate workers in Indonesia based on work sector (2016)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trade and services</td>
<td>51,695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial</td>
<td>20,584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1,904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>74,183</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Following the 1997 economic and financial crisis, foreign investment started to be considered as a significant way to rebuild the Indonesian economy (PKF, 2014). New laws and regulations were then created to support and attract more foreign investment. For example, in 2008, Indonesia’s growth rate had grown to 6.4% compared to 6.3% in 2003. However, as a developing country, Indonesia’s economy is largely dependent on its agriculture and natural resources, such as oil and gas, as well as mining products. Foreign investment, which may bring with it more skilled staff and advanced technology, is important in helping improve Indonesia’s ability to manage its resources. As globalisation also brings about a more open and competitive market, Indonesia needs to establish good relationships with other countries, especially its neighbours. As a country with abundant natural and human resources, Indonesia needs to prioritise improving and developing its human resources, including foreign workers, in order to maximise the potential economic benefits of its natural resources.

1.1.5 Organisational ownership types

Organisations in Indonesia are categorised into three main types: public company, private company, and state owned enterprise (SOE). The PKF (2014) stated that it is compulsory for each public company to have at least three boards: a general meeting of shareholders (*Rapat Umum Pemegang Saham*), a board of directors (*Dewan Direksi*), and a board of supervisors (*Dewan Komisaris*). All of the members must be Indonesian nationals while the entities must be wholly Indonesian-owned, except for approved foreign investment companies.
Penanaman Modal Asing – PMA; PKF, 2014). Private companies are quite common in Indonesia and are owned by big conglomerates. Most of them are family companies. Based on Indonesian national constitution law no 33/1945, the Indonesian government strictly limits the ownership of business that governs the lives of their people to state-owned companies only (PKF, 2014). Examples of such organisations include Pertamina, a state-owned oil and gas company, Perusahaan Gas Negara (PGN), a state-owned natural gas transportation company, and Perusahaan Listrik Negara (PLN), a state-owned electrical distribution company).

1.1.6 International business

Based on the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA), Indonesia is shifting its energy production to meet its growing domestic demands, while in the past it primarily served export markets (EIA, 2015). This is due to Indonesia’s energy struggles and growing domestic energy consumption. The energy struggle resulted in declining revenues from the oil and gas sector, which previously accounted for about 20% of total state revenues, but has fallen below 20% since 2008 (EIA, 2015). It continued to decline to 14% in 2014 and only 4% in 2015, and even lower in 2016 at 3% of state revenue (Price Waterhouse Cooper [PWC], 2017). In a report on oil and gas in the Indonesia Investment and Taxation Guide, PWC (2012) stated that following the 5 years of the oil recession that started in 2008, there have been rising investment rates in the oil and gas sector as well as increasing associated revenue. PWC noted that investment in the oil and gas sector in Indonesia was worth US$12.8 billion in 2011 and constituted US$34.4 billion of state revenue. There were also more than 30 new oil and gas contracts established in 2011. The number of investments has been rising and is estimated to reach US$20 billion in 2016 and US$26.8 billion in 2017 (PWC, 2017a).

Indonesia has been a major player in the international oil and gas industry for more than 130 years, since the first oil discovery in North Sumatra back in 1885. Given its 3.7
billion barrels worth of oil reserves, Indonesia is ranked in the top 20 of the world’s oil producers (PWC, 2017a), which contributes approximately 1% of world oil production (EIA, 2015). Moreover, the PWC (2017a) noted that Indonesia is ranked 10th among the world’s top gas producers, with proven reserves of 102 trillion cubic feet (TCF) in 2016, which puts Indonesia as 15th in the world and third in the Asia-Pacific region (following Australia and China). Following the announcement in 2006 policy to prioritise natural gas production for domestic needs, Indonesia dropped from the world’s largest exporter of liquid natural gas (LNG) in 2005 to the world’s fifth largest exporter in 2016, behind Qatar, Australia, Nigeria, and Malaysia (PWC, 2017a). With the new regulations on the energy sector that were implemented, which require the energy producers to prioritise local energy demands, Indonesia has turned into a net oil importer country and suspended its membership with the Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in 2008, although it regained its membership in OPEC in December 2015 (OPEC, 2017). However, coal supplies are still abundant, which continues to make Indonesia one of the world’s largest exporters of thermal coal (PWC, 2017b). In 2014, Indonesia produced 458 million tonnes of thermal coal, while in 2015 Indonesia saw a significant decline in thermal coal production to 392 million tonnes. Despite the declining coal prices in 2015, the Indonesian government targeted an increase in thermal coal production to 419 million tonnes, although the actual result exceeded this target by 3.6% due to the significant increase in thermal coal prices in the second half of 2016 (PWC, 2017b). According to British Petroleum (BP) (2017) Indonesia’s coal reserves were ranked ninth in the world, which contributes to 2.2% of total proven global coal reserves.

In Indonesia, the electricity sector is managed by an Indonesian state-owned company called Perusahaan Listrik Negara (PLN), while the geothermal industry is considered a new breakthrough in Indonesia. Thus, given their significance and growth, this study will focus specifically on the oil and gas and coal industries in Indonesia. The Indonesia Investment Coordinating Board (BKPM) noted that given the challenge to balance exports with domestic
demands, Indonesia, as the single largest holder of proven natural gas reserves in the Asia Pacific region, requires energy companies to have effective management. As quoted from BKPM’s official site:

*Indonesia’s gas plays an important role for East Asia’s (Japan, China and Korea) energy supply. With reserves of 112 trillion cubic feet (TCF), Indonesia has expanded gas pipe network to neighbouring countries (Singapore and Malaysia). Hence, exponential growth demand of gas from domestic market has pushed Indonesia’s government to secure national interest by rebalancing of export and domestic market. This demand creates new opportunities for investors to support domestic gas logistics.*

**1.1.6 HRM practices in Indonesia**

Having explored the current state of the Indonesian economy and organisational types, it is important to consider utilisation and knowledge of HRM practices in Indonesia as identified in extant research. There is a growing, although still limited, body of research on the work environment and the role of HRM in Indonesia. Bennington and Habir (2003) noted that HRM practices in Indonesia are different from more developed countries (e.g., Western industrialised economies). Many private organisations in Indonesia have invested more in recruitment, more so than any other aspect of HRM, as it tends to be the top priority given high growth and turnover rates (Bennington & Habir, 2003). Rachmi (2013) argued that the availability and competency of human resources is the main issue overshadowing HRM practices in Indonesia. For instance, Susilowati, Hutagaol, Pasaribu, and Djohar (2012) acknowledged the importance of the role of line managers in implementing HR systems and procedures, employees’ competency motivation, and performance as a significant predictor that mediates the relationship between Strategic HRM (SHRM) and firm performance. In addition, HRM in Indonesia is also faced with the issue of corruption across public services and the existence of patronage networks that particularly operate in subnational governments in the country (Blunt, Turner, & Lindroth, 2012).

Private organisations in Indonesia use multiple methods of recruitment in order to help with the talent acquisition process, as simple as word-of-mouth to advertisements across
different forms of media, and ranging from university hiring to using recruitment consultant firms (e.g., Bennington & Habir, 2003). High quality workers are always in high demand in Indonesia. As a result, importing or hijacking (an aggressive direct approach from one individual to another individual aimed to take the individual from their current organisation to join another organisation) managers is common in order to acquire the best talent to fill vacant positions. In Indonesia, hijacking is not the same as headhunting, since headhunting is usually done through a third party external to the organisation (headhunter/recruitment firms). As noted in one of Indonesia’s biggest English newspapers, The Jakarta Post, Indonesia is experiencing a shortage of high quality local managers and the recruitment process has overlooked management skills potential when acquiring new talent. Consequently, hiring expatriate managers is seen as one of the best solutions to overcome the shortage (The Jakarta Post, 2013).

Lange (2010) identified three issues in recruitment; method of recruitment, recruitment of expatriates, and hijacking of skilled staff. Recruitment of expatriates can be challenging. This is partly because of the complicated nature of the bureaucratic process set by the Indonesian government for expatriates to obtain work permits, as well as the sensitive nature of expatriate hiring. Expatriates are only allowed to fill positions that cannot be filled by locals (Tjiptoherijanto, 1998). Bennington and Habir (2003) argued that given the implications of the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA) agreement, which occurred in 2003, the Indonesian government made adjustments to remove the problematic regulations regarding expatriate workers’ obligations. According to data from the Indonesian Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, by the end of December 2016, there were 74,183 expatriates working in Indonesia. This number has risen significantly from 68,957 expatriate workers in 2015. Most of the expatriate workers are employed as professionals (Depnakertrans, 2016).

In addition, training is still a function that receives little attention. Bennington and Habir (2003, pp. 384–385) argued that “in the civil service, training has failed to achieve its
goal to contribute to greater efficiency. Instead, it is used primarily for the salary supplements and promotions it attracts and for the private benefits it generates through moonlighting”.

Moreover, the more educated employees benefit from formal training as they receive more opportunities to participate compared with less educated employees. It was reported that organisations become more resistant to spending money on training because this implies a stricter budgeting system (Bennington & Habir, 2003). However, as the national economy progresses from the impact of the financial crisis, training has gained more importance within HRM practices in Indonesia (e.g., Krause, Anderson, Rossberger, & Parastuty, 2014).

There are four key issues regarding general conditions of employment in Indonesia, namely, type of employment, the wage system, working hours, and workers’ social security (Lange, 2010). First, based on Indonesian employment laws, there are three types of employment: fixed period employment, where a contract written in Indonesian language is required; permanent (indefinite period) employment, where it is not mandatory to have a written contract; and traditional employment, which mostly exists in the informal sector and is unregulated. It is still common to find discrimination in Indonesia in which gender, race, disability, language, and social status influence hiring decisions. Older workers and persons with disability are faced with fewer opportunities to secure a job. Bennington and Habir (2003) noted that there are no regulations in Indonesia regarding age discrimination in employment, although the Indonesian Labour Law – Act 13 of 2003 provides a guide on children and underage workers.

Second, there are no clear guidelines regulating the wages system in Indonesia. Nevertheless, since 2000, the Indonesian government has agreed to annual adjustments to minimum wages, which vary by province, with the highest minimum wage in 2014 being in Jakarta and the lowest in West Nusa Tenggara (Indonesia-Investments, 2013). Based on the Manpower Act No. 13/2003, legal overtime pay is calculated as an additional 50% for the
first hour of overtime and another 100% starting from the second hour onwards. The Indonesian government requires employers to give their employees 12 days of annual leave.

Third, with regard to suggested working hours, the Manpower Act No 13/2003 Art 77 proscribes that working hours per week is 40 hours, which may consist of 7 hours a day for 6 work days in a week, or 8 hours a day for 5 work days in a week; and the suggested overtime is 3 hours per day or 14 hours per week. Since Indonesia is a Muslim majority country, there is a requirement for prayer times where employers give a 10-minute break for each prayer time each day (Lange, 2010).

In 2015, Indonesia started to implement universal social security for Indonesian workers, *BPJS Ketenagakerjaan*, comprised of a pension scheme, old-age benefits, workplace injury benefits, and death benefits (Maftuchan & Fanggidae, 2015). This is a major development for Indonesian workers, as the government shifted from a social protection system for permanent workers in 1992 that was called *Jamsostek* (*Jaminan Sosial Tenaga Kerja*), which provided coverage for workers suffering from occupational accidents, sickness, death, and old age (Quinn, 2003). Compensation and benefits are crucial for enabling employees’ loyalty and satisfaction levels, and therefore, it requires special care. Low satisfaction levels with current compensation and benefits package are often the reason for high turnover rates in companies in Indonesia. Large companies in Indonesia usually use three variables in determining their employees’ compensation packages (Lange, 2010). These are fixed wages, variable allowances, and deductions. On the other hand, for expatriate workers, their compensation packages are based on tenure with the company, nationality, skills and work experience, and the importance of the position in Indonesia (Lange, 2010).

Performance management is not yet as fully implemented in Indonesia as it is in many Western countries. Absenteeism is a major problem in Indonesia (Lange, 2010). Lange (2010) argued that for many Indonesians, certainty about their place and role within the organisation is very important because they treat work as an extension of their social lives.
Indonesians prefer having immediate feedback to receiving an annual evaluation of their work. Key factors for performance appraisals are integrity, tradition, cooperative spirit, loyalty, and seniority. Further, Blunt et al. (2012) claimed that favouritism to family, friends, and the highest bidders, was apparent in deciding promotions, transfers and placement across public services in Indonesia. On the other hand, Krause et al. (2014) found that the establishment of assessment centres (AC) has been growing in Indonesia, given the increased need for transparent HRM practices. The widespread use of ACs is even evident within government sector industries, where all selection and promotion of civil servants must be conducted through ACs, as well as the enforced use of technology by the end of 2014 to ensure transparency (Road Map Reformasi Birokrasi, 2010).

Industrial relations is a relatively new area of focus in Indonesia, having been developed following the fall of the Suharto regime in 1998 when significant changes in the policy and regulations of labour and trade unions took place. The number of labour unions increased dramatically as they gained more freedom (Lange, 2010).

Given increased globalisation, HRM practices in Indonesia may have been influenced by the transfer of practices from expatriates and MNCs, which can lead to increased significance of expatriation and may involve expatriates contributing unique expertise to their international assignment while simultaneously developing new knowledge, skills, abilities, and international expertise (Ren, Yunlu, Shaffer, & Fodchuk, 2015) from working and living in Indonesia. This implies the emergence of transfer of knowledge, skills, and abilities between the expatriates and the host country (i.e., Indonesia), which may lead to the adjustment of the current HRM practices to meet the needs of organisations. In order to understand the role that may be played by expatriates in Indonesia, it is important to first understand key developments in the expatriation literature.
1.2 Expatriation and expatriates

1.2.1 Expatriates and assignment types

As the world of business becomes increasingly globalised, there is greater mobility of employees internationally. While there is increasing diversity in the types of international employees and assignments (including long-term, short-term, and frequent flyer/commuter work; Collings, Sculion, & Morley, 2007), expatriates remain strongly utilised by organisations that operate across international borders. Expatriates are also important for local companies because they not only fulfil the shortages in a local employment market, but also allow local organisations to access the skills and experiences of MNCs (Armstrong, Francis, & Grow, 2017). Gedro (2010) noted that international assignments boost corporations in multiple ways to achieve their strategic objectives, including through human resource development (HRD).

Expatriates are defined as individuals who are legally working out of a country of citizenship to pursue their career aspiration/s (McNulty & Brewster, 2017). Harrison, Shaffer, and Bhaskar-Shrinivas (2004) identified three central components of this definition, that is, type of relocating employee, the duration or length of time spent overseas, and the purpose of the assignment.

Type of relocating employees. There are three different types of relocating employee, namely, parent country nationals (PCNs), inpatriates, and third country nationals (TCNs) (Andreason, 2003; Harrison et al., 2004). PCNs are employees with the same residency and nationality as that of the country in which the MNC is headquartered. Inpatriates are employees of foreign nationality who live and work for a time in the parent country or headquarters of the MNC. TCNs are employees whose country of residence and country of assignment are outside the parent and host country of the MNC. In addition, Harrison et al. (2004) also acknowledged another type of employee of MNCs that they categorised as host country nationals (HCNs),
also known as local employees, who are defined as “work colleagues and citizens of the country where the expatriate is posted” (p. 204). Traditionally, expatriates were posted by their employing organisation to work for a fixed period of time in a MNC’s overseas operations, which usually ranges from one to five years (Edström & Galbraith, 1977). These expatriates are known as organisationally assigned expatriates (AEs). Further, Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, and Barry (1997) identified another category of expatriates, whom they called self-initiated foreign workers and defined as people who are personally motivated to relocate overseas to live and work. They may resign from their current jobs and self-sponsor their own overseas relocation, which are referred to as a self-initiated expatriate (SIE).

**Duration of assignment.** In terms of the duration or length of international assignment, there are short-term and long-term assignments (Harrison et al., 2004). Short-term assignments are usually completed within six months to a year, whereas long-term assignments usually range from more than one year to five years. There has also been growing importance of frequent flyer/commuter assignments in recent years (Scullion & Collings, 2006). Commuter assignments require an expatriate to commute from his/her home base to a post in a different country, which commonly happens on a weekly or bi-weekly basis (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2005). In addition, McPhail, Fisher, Harvey, and Moeller (2012) suggested a new classification for global staffing types of four different groups, namely: a) “flexpatriate”, who displays a low level of commitment to a global career and have had a small number of international assignments or little time abroad; b) “expatriate”, who shows a high level of commitment to a global career with little time spent overseas on international assignments; c) “propatriate”, who has a low level of commitment to a global career but has spent a great deal of time abroad on international assignments; and d) “glopatriate”, who displays a high level of commitment to a global career and has spent a great amount of time overseas on international assignments.
Fly-in/fly-out (FIFO) is a recent trend in employment and is used in both domestic and international work, and particularly within the resources industry, especially in the mining and off-shore oil sector. First founded in the Gulf of Mexico’s off-shore oil sector during the 1950s (Gramling et al., 1995), this arrangement has been widely adopted by mining and other on-shore resource organisations in order to minimise the cost in staffing remote operations. Storey and Shrimpton (1989, p. 2) conceptualised FIFO as “all employment in which the work is so isolated from the workers’ homes that food and accommodation are provided for them at the work site, and rosters are established whereby employees spend a fixed number of days at the site, followed by a fixed number of days at home”, with rosters varying from days on/days off to weeks on/weeks off (Kaczmarek & Sibbel, 2008). These employees usually travel from a home base that is situated in a large city, coastal community, or large established mining town (Gillies et al., 1997).

Purpose of the assignment. There are four types of international assignments based on their purpose: structure reproduction assignments, trouble-shooting assignments, operational assignments, and strategic or high profile assignments (Hays, 1974). Structure reproduction assignments involve being responsible for building a system in the foreign subsidiary with which the expatriate is familiar or experienced. Trouble-shooting assignments concern analysis and problem solution. Operational assignments involve performing day-to-day functions in the foreign subsidiary. Strategic or high profile assignments include managing the entire foreign operation.

Huynh, Johansson, and Tran (2007) proposed four roles for expatriates, that is, agent of socialisation, network builder, agent of direct control, and boundary spanners. Huynh et al. defined agent of socialisation as the individual who performs the task he or she has knowledge about and is familiar with the values and beliefs of the parent organisation. This individual transfers those values and beliefs through socialisation and communication with
the whole organisation. Network building involves good communication skills and knowledge of the organisation’s value, which in turn improves the expatriate’s credibility to others. Agent of direct control requires the expatriate to exercise bureaucratic control in order to ensure compliance through direct supervision. Boundary spanners involve the conduct of a range of activities by the expatriate in order to bridge the relationship between the headquarters and a subsidiary.

1.2.2 Culture shock
One of the challenges that expatriates may experience is culture shock. While this study does not specifically examine culture shock, it is important to consider factors that may affect expatriate work well-being. Moving overseas can be problematic as it requires individuals to adjust to a new culture that can be significantly different from their own culture, and this may eventually affect an expatriates’ work well-being. Oberg (1960) defined culture shock as distress experienced by the sojourner due to the loss of all the familiar signs and symbols of social interaction. Walton (1990) argued that the adaptation to a foreign environment was initially marked by a period of excitement, followed by disillusionment and then the experience of culture shock. This shock is a response to uncertain or uncontrollable physiological and physical rewards. Also, culture shock brings about psychological strain, a sense of loss, rejection, confusion, surprise, anxiety, and feeling of impotence to the individuals (d’Ardenne & Mahtani, 1989). Culture shock may yield three responses: (1) resistance, which is the rejection of the new culture and a potent defence of the individual’s own culture; (2) assimilation, which is the complete rejection of the individual’s values in order to embrace the values of the new culture; or (3) acculturation, which is learning to live with the new culture while remaining embedded in the traditions of the individual’s own culture (Simons et al., 1993). Culture shock can also be manifested in certain symptoms exhibited by expatriates, ranging from concern with cleanliness of drinking water, food, and surroundings; preoccupation with minor issues; distress over being cheated, robbed, or
injured; reliance on their fellow expatriates; depression; helplessness; resentment towards delay and other minor frustrations; and a hesitance to learn the local language (Harris & Moran, 1991). Sims and Schraeder (2004, p. 74) stated that “culture shock can be described as the wave of emotions an expatriate employee feels immediately upon entering a foreign country – a country with a different culture and perhaps even a different language”, and that it can happen immediately and “be overwhelming, exhausting, and numbing”, or may involve an incremental process where the expatriate experiences several levels of frustration that steadily grow until the unavoidable happens. Sims and Schraeder (2004) identified five key factors that influence expatriates’ culture shock: (1) the training received by the expatriate; (2) the expatriate’s demographic characteristics; (3) the expatriate’s dispositional and personality characteristics; (4) the level of organisational support perceived by the expatriate; (5) the degree of the expatriate’s technical competence.

Where expatriates experience culture shock, expatriate failure may also occur. Expatriate failure may be defined as the premature return of an expatriate to his or her home country (Hill, 2007). Failure to complete international assignments is costly to the organisations in terms of employment expenses, poor management, and poor productivity (Kaye & Taylor, 1997). Expatriate failure may also be defined as a failure that an expatriate faces in “re-establishing himself within the home organization and readjusting to the home culture” (Harzing, 1995, p. 458). Kataria and Sethi (2013) argued that expatriates and their families suffer high rates of poor performance and failure, in which each failure results in expensive direct and indirect costs. Scullion and Collings (2006) found that the ratio of expatriate failure is still high, indicating the figure of 15–50%. Expatriate failure is caused by many factors, with one of the most important factors affecting the performance and adjustment of expatriates being family-related issues, which includes the spouse’s incapability to adjust (Briscoe & Schuler, 2004). Scullion and Brewster (2002) suggest there are significant national differences regarding factors causing expatriate failure. It was found
that the ratio of expatriate failure varies across different region of the world, from between 16% to 40% (Employee Benefit Plan Review, 2001) and financial costs ranging from US$200,000 to US$1.2 million dollars (Harzing & Christensen, 2004; Chiotis-Leskowich, 2009). Research shows that a lack of spouse dissatisfaction and spouse adjustment are the most cited reasons reported by expatriates that result in their failure to complete international assignments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; van Erp, Giebels, van der Zee, & van Duijn, 2011).

1.2.3 Expatriate adjustment

As culture shock may result in expatriate failure and non-adjustment to a new culture, researchers have also examined expatriate adjustment and acculturation. Although the current research does not specifically explore expatriate adjustment and acculturation, it is important to consider issues that have been examined in the expatriation literature and that influence expatriates’ experience of living and working within Indonesia. Relocating overseas means moving to a new place with a different culture, values, beliefs, and way of life. This implies the need for expatriates (and any accompanying family) to understand and to be aware of these differences and adjust to the new environment.

Adjustment is defined as the extent to which the expatriate experiences psychological comfort regarding his or her new environment in both work and non-work domains (e.g., Aycan, 1997). There are two types of adjustment: psychological adjustment and sociocultural adjustment. Psychological adjustment concerns subjective well-being or mood states (e.g., depression, anxiety, tension, and fatigue) while sociocultural adjustment deals with the ability to fit in or to convey interactive aspects of the host culture, which is characterised by the extent to which individuals put effort into managing day-to-day issues in the host culture (Ward & Kennedy, 1996). Adjustment is also argued to be a multidimensional construct comprised of three dimensions, namely, work adjustment, interaction adjustment, and general or cultural adjustment (e.g., Andreason, 2003; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Harrison
et al., 2004, Zhang & Oczkowski, 2016). Work adjustment involves adjusting to the new job requirements (e.g., Andreason, 2003; Jyoti & Kour, 2015; Ramalu, Rose, Uli, & Kumar, 2010); interaction adjustment involves adjusting to the individuals in the host country, that is, socialising with HCNs (e.g., Andreason, 2003; Jyoti & Kour, 2015; Ramalu et al., 2010). General adjustment is about adjusting to the host culture and living conditions in the host country (e.g., Black, 1988; Jyoti & Kour, 2015; Ramalu et al., 2010).

International adjustment is a succession of stages, which Oberg (1960) argued consists of four stages, that is, honeymoon, crisis, recovery, and adjustment. Solomon (1994) stated the honeymoon period happens when the expatriate experiences the excitement associated with being in a new and different country. Torbiörn (1982) drew a four-phase adjustment process, comprising: the tourist phase, a period of euphoria that occurs immediately following the contact with the new culture; the culture shock phase, which is the mental and physiological stress due to over-stimulation and extensive use of the body’s coping mechanism; the conformist phase, which is the advanced recovery from culture shock; and the assimilation phase, which is the completed adjustment process. As Kaye and Taylor (1997) argued, individuals on long-term assignments of several years stated that prior to the beginning of acculturation phase, the culture shock phase lasts for a year or more.

In dealing with culture shock, Selmer (1999) argued that expatriates adopt different kinds of coping mechanism ranging from embracing an extremely hostile and critical attitude towards the locals (i.e., fight) to staying within an expatriate community or even returning home prematurely (i.e., flight), or else rapidly and actively discarding their former identities and extensively trying to duplicate the locals (i.e., “going native”).

Shaffer, Harrison, and Gilley (1999) suggested that there are factors that influence the three dimensions of adjustment, including job factors, organisational factors, positional factors, non-work factors, and individual factors. First, Andreason (2003) defined job factors as a particular set of tasks and duties performed by a certain individual. Job factors pose
either a facilitating or inhibiting effect on individuals. Second, Black et al. (1991) identified organisational culture novelty, social support from co-workers and supervisors, and logistical support as three organisational factors that influence expatriate adjustment. Third, it is argued that expatriates have other factors that contribute to the success of their international adjustment, such as previous international assignment experience, host country language fluency, and an individual’s position within the organisation (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986). For example, Selmer (2002) suggested that prior international experience assists expatriates’ work-related adjustment, although it does not contribute to expatriate general and interaction adjustment. Shaffer et al. (1999) proposed that positional factors include a hierarchical level, functional area, and assignment vector. Fourth, non-work factors involve general factors outside work that may influence expatriates’ adjustment; for example, culture novelty – the perceived distance between host and parent country cultures – may hinder expatriates’ non-work adjustment (Shaffer et al., 1999). Expatriates who experience high levels of culture novelty are prone to feel culture shock, that is, the expatriate’s reaction to a new, constantly changing, and uncertain environment (Black, 1990). Last, individual factors such as expatriates’ traits and characteristics predict expatriates’ success in their international assignment (Andreason, 2003). Necessary personality traits for successful international assignments are empathy, openness, flexibility, tolerance, self-confidence, optimism, independence, good communication skills, initiative, and intelligence (Gertsen, 1992). Examples of the desired characteristics are achievement self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, relational and perceptual skills, previous international assignments, and language fluency (Andreason, 2003). Previous international experience assisted expatriates to figure out what to expect when relocating and adjusting to a new country and culture (Black et al., 1999).

However, there is significant confusion or a lack of clarity about adjustment, adaptation, and acculturation. The terms are used interchangeably in the literature regarding expatriate experiences (e.g., Aycan, 1997; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Adjustment and
adaptation can be considered as critical factors within the process of acculturation, while acculturation is a broad overarching concept that is evident in a range of social and cultural contexts (Harrison et al., 2004).

1.2.4 Selection and cross-cultural training

The ability of expatriates to adjust and work effectively in host country contexts, which may also affect their sense of work well-being, can be influenced by organisational selection and training. High failure rates among expatriates and challenges experienced by expatriates in working in foreign contexts can be attributed to inadequate selection criteria employed by many MNCs (Adler, 1986; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Dumaine, 1995; Fenton, 2015). It has been suggested that the selection criteria of firms should include: the employee’s technical skills, empathy, managerial skills, sense of mission, political awareness, language skills, cultural sensitivity, ability to work with local nationals, good judgement, creativity, responsibility, alertness, initiative, self-confidence, and willingness to change (Baliga & Baker, 1985). Recently Tsai, Zeng, Lan, and Fang (2012) simplified these criteria and applied willingness to work abroad, professional skills, and the adaptability of the spouse and family members as the most important selection criteria. Further, Fenton (2015) highlighted the importance of addressing the inclusion of a trailing spouse or family in the expatriate’s selection process. This can be manifested through the use of interviews, informal discussions with managers as well as discussions with employees and spouses to make an assessment.

Moreover, cross-cultural skills are needed in order to thrive in a new culture. In addition to the importance of carefully selecting employees who have the needed abilities to perform internationally, cross-cultural training aims to introduce staff to the importance of culture and to make them become more sensitive to cultural differences while enabling them to be aware of the inevitable psychological stresses that arise from the effort people make when adapting to living and working in new cultures (Forster, 2000). Therefore, three kinds of skills that are important to expatriates are argued to consist of: adaptation skills that aim to help the individuals, spouses, and families cope with the stress of transition; cross-cultural
communication skills that are needed to build trust and understanding between people from different cultures; and partnership skills that emphasise the professional need to enhance joint-decision making and shared risk-taking (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996).

Morris and Robie (2001) conceptualised cross-cultural training as the educative process specially tailored to facilitate intercultural learning by developing cognitive, affective, and behavioural competencies needed for effective interactions across cultures. Prior studies have found that cross-cultural training may serve as an important means to boost expatriates’ cross-cultural adjustment (Koo Moon, Choi, & Jung, 2012; Littrell & Salas, 2005; Morris & Robie, 2001; Osman-Gani & Rockstuhl, 2009) and cultural intelligence (Moon et al., 2012). It also helps expatriates develop competences and cognitive and interpersonal skills needed to deal with cross-cultural situations (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Littrell, Hess, Paley, & Riedel, 2006), and provides expatriates with relevant cultural information and experience to help them reduce anxiety and uncertainty associated with adjusting to different cultures (Brandl & Anne-Katrin, 2009). Cross-cultural training acts as a means of socialisation (Puck, Kittler, & Wright, 2008) and equips expatriates with a realistic job preview (Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006) that results in increased self-efficacy (Osman-Gani & Rockstuhl, 2009), confidence levels (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007), and effectiveness (Puck et al., 2008).

Cross-cultural training is considered a vehicle to assist effective cross-cultural interactions (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Bochner, 1982; Tung, 1981). Training effectiveness is measured through cross-cultural skills development (self, perceptual, and relational), adjustment, and performance (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Cross-cultural training assists the participants to adjust more rapidly to the new culture and thus lead the individuals to function more effectively in their new environment (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). The effectiveness of training programs across jobs differs in their complexity. Also, the relationship between cross-cultural training and performance is moderated by certain
variables, such as nature of occupation, job characteristics, cultural familiarity, and nature of interactions (Black & Mendenhall, 1990), whereas the relationship between cross-cultural training and adjustment may be affected by the mode of adjustment, various individual (e.g., personality) and organisational factors (e.g., selection criteria), as well as non-work factors (e.g., cultural novelty; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991).

Organisations may be reluctant to provide their employees with cross-cultural training because of a lack of proven effectiveness (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981), time constraints (Gertsen, 1990; Tung, 1982), and cost (Gertsen, 1990). Nevertheless, Brislin and Yoshida (1994, p. 5) suggested that “cross-cultural training programmes should be viewed as one of several contributions designed to assist people about cross-cultural boundaries and not a cure-all that guarantees cultural adjustment”. Moreover, cross-cultural training can generally be categorised into three types (Fiedler, Mitchell & Triandis, 1971): (1) cultural awareness training, which involves teaching the trainee how to identify their own culture’s distinct components and eventually develops their awareness of parallel components in other cultures; (2) attribution training, which is based on a cognitive model of behaviour, to provide trainees with the ability to interpret situations and attribute them as though they were members of that culture; and (3) culture assimilation, which aims to simulate certain cross-cultural situations that require the expatriates to make a decision from four decision alternatives (Morris & Robie, 2001). Forster (2000) argued that the success of all training programs depends on the willingness of the individuals to learn new skills and aptitudes. In investigating the effectiveness of predeparture training, Brewster and Pickard (1994) found that expatriate training facilitated the expatriates’ and their partners’ adjustment in living and working in the foreign country. However, both expatriates’ and spouses’ perceptions of the training programs differed based on the size and cohesiveness of the expatriate community in the host country. Similarly, Forster (2000) also found that most partners required more help in coping with the negative psychological reactions associated with the overseas relocation.
However, cross-cultural training is not the only form of organisational support addressing expatriates’ adjustment. There are other forms of support, such as social support, relocation assistance, and language training (e.g., Aycan, 1997). Further, McNulty (2012) conducted a study examining three types of organisational support (practical, professional, and social support) offered to trailing spouses during expatriation and their significance to expatriates’ successful adjustment. She argued that although improvements are still needed, these three types of support are critical to expatriates and their spouse adjustment. Examples of practical support involve assistance with housing, continuous support after the first three months, and assistance with a relocation program. Professional support is apparent through income subsidies, education assistance, and access to a mentoring or coaching program. Social support is evident via access to technology (e.g., email, internet), providing enough time for family to adjust, funding home-country visits, other expatriates’ assistance with relocation, and a work-related travel schedule (McNulty, 2012).

1.2.5 Expatriates’ spouse and family
The success of expatriates during, and in completing, their international assignments is determined by a range of external factors, including the local context (e.g., business environment, political situation) and their spouses and/or families’ adjustment to the host country. For example, De Cieri, Dowling, and Taylor (1991) and Stone (1991) argued that family status and trailing spouse play a key role in determining expatriate success, while Clegg and Gray (2002) found that expatriate’s personal attributes (young ambitious, experienced executive, entrepreneur, younger operatives, diplomat/aid worker) and characteristics (gender, age, marital status, time overseas) contribute to expatriate experience working and living overseas.

Further, previous studies have found that factors contributing to expatriate culture shock include the expatriate’s family status as well as amount of previous international experience, age, and gender (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Black et al., 1999; Ko, 2014; van Erp...
et al., 2011). The marital status of expatriates is particularly important because international assignments have implications for the expatriate’s family as a whole (Brown, 2008). Marital status also determines the assignment success of SIE since personal and social life in the host country significantly contributes to the extent of expatriate adaptation to that country (Crowley-Henry, 2007). Expatriates over the age of 45 reported less likelihood to leave their international assignments earlier as opposed to their younger counterparts (Birdseye & Hill, 1995). Also, having younger preschool-aged children tended to aid adjustment, while having older children hinders adjustment (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). The family’s adjustment significantly influenced the expatriate adjustment and vice versa (Takeuchi et al., 2002); that is, the family situation served as a moderating variable in the expatriate turnover process (Naumann, 1992) and played a major role in expatriate turnover (Harvey, 1985), while the failure of the expatriate’s family (particularly the spouse) in adjusting to the new environment significantly affected the success of expatriate’s adjustment (Tung, 1982). Similarly, Fenton (2010) acknowledged the role of family in determining expatriate success, and that an expatriate’s spouse and family’s ability to adapt to a new culture is of vital importance in preventing expatriate failure (Jack & Stage, 2005; Sims & Schraeder, 2004).

In adjusting to the host country, a trailing spouse (i.e., non-working spouse) needs to be more engaged with the local culture, while the expatriate manager is buffered from the local environment by the organisation, and the children are engaged with the continuity and routine of school (Tung, 1982). Often the trailing spouse has to perform their tasks without the familiar network of family and friends, with inadequate language skills or cultural training, and without adequate social support programs to assist him or her in developing a proper lifestyle overseas (Adler, 1997; Cherry, 2010). Therefore, the absence of trailing family or spouse may have negative implications for expatriates working and living in the host country. For instance, Quick, Gavin, Cooper, and Quick (2000) found out that health issues may influence AE performance, particularly for short-term AEs, as they may not be
accompanied by their families, and therefore they tend to work excessive hours that causes them to lose their work-life balance and may lead to high levels of stress, burn-out, and poor performance.

The importance of the spouse experience may be even more pronounced among expatriates who are dual-career couples. Dual-career couples are more likely to experience dissatisfaction and failure on an international assignment (Harvey, 1998) because expatriate spouses are reluctant to sacrifice their own career to follow expatriates relocating overseas (Barham & Devine, 1990), with labour force participation of wives influencing the likelihood of family relocation (Arkin, 1993; Bielby & Bielby, 1992; Blair, 1993; Lichter, 1982). More recent research by Mäkelä, Känsälä, & Suutari (2011) proposed that the importance of spousal support was found to be more crucial for dual-career couples during expatriation as these spouses were viewed as expatriates who have multiple roles that are significant for expatriates, such as supporting, flexible, determining, instrumental, restricting, and equal partner roles. Further, a study by Mäkelä et al. (2017) suggested that dual-career couples and single-career couples pose different challenges for wives in that women in dual-career couples reported more work-life conflict than women in single-career couples.

1.2.6 Expatriates in Indonesia
While there has been limited research undertaken specifically about expatriates in Indonesia, the research that has been done provides important insights into how expatriates perceived their experiences. In a study looking at colonial imagination at work within the transnational corporate office in Jakarta (the Indonesian capital), Leggett (2005) stated that nationality was found to be of less significance compared to the collective imperial imagination of Westerners. This suggests the influence of the racialised social hierarchies founded by Dutch colonialism, where subjectivity was represented by the labels of expatriates and nationals. Based on his observation of a Western-owned transnational manufacturing organisation in Jakarta, Leggett (2005) noted that the Indonesian employees (i.e., nationals) tended to be
viewed as migrant labour and were considered as necessary but temporary residents, hence visitors in their own land of birth. This is apparent through the significant difference in pay scales for expatriates and Indonesian nationals. In this context, the term “expatriate” refers to an individual’s identity of his/her national residence and marks his/her class, status, attitude, and skill (Leggett, 2005). The term “expatriate” signifies honour from a Western perspective, while from an Indonesian perspective it has derogatory connotations. Leggett (2005, p. 282) pointed out that the expatriates were considered as “remnants of an imperial past of kings and colonisers in which status and privilege were bestowed not because of education or skill, but because of birthright”.

Oranuch (2010) examined Thai expatriates in the Indonesian-owned part of Borneo and found that strong social bonds established between expatriates and HCNs in the community determined the success of expatriates’ overall adjustment. Dean (2001) suggested that successful expatriates are the individuals who, while interacting with Indonesians, try to keep alert to the possibility of differences between them. Pruetipibultham (2012) acknowledged the significance of the Javanese culture (i.e., Indonesia’s biggest ethic group) in determining expatriates’ successful cultural adaptation and addressed the impact of the underlying concept of social status and Javanese business value in doing business in Indonesia. Javanese society is very patriarchal and hierarchical, where showing proper respect is mandatory, while Javanese business values stress respect, understanding, and trust as key determinants in guiding business operations (Pruetipibultham, 2012).

Suutari, Raharjo, and Riikkilä (2002) studied Finnish expatriates in Indonesia and identified the challenge of cross-cultural leadership interaction between Finnish managers and their Indonesian subordinates. Their study aimed to examine expatriates’ adjustment in leadership style due to cross-cultural differences as well as the perception of local subordinates regarding expatriate managers’ leadership style. It was found that all expatriate managers used an integration mode of leadership where they dynamically adjusted their
leadership style when they lead local subordinates and that the degree of integration varies from one individual to another (Suutari et al., 2002). A high level of integration was evident in active integrators since they made changes in almost all areas of leadership. However, the majority of participants in Suutari et al.’s (2002) study were fairly selective in making changes that they did not consider to be necessary. The difference in communication style, as well as the extent of power distance between Finnish expatriates and Indonesians, was also apparent.

Most prior research highlighting traditional expatriation has generally focused on a heterosexual couple of a male expatriate and female trailing spouse or a dual-career couple and children (e.g., Harvey, Napier, & Moeller, 2009; Haslberger & Brewster, 2008). In the case of Indonesia, accompanying spouses are restricted from working – and the vast majority of trailing spouses in Indonesia are female. In her study looking at expatriate assignment experiences in Jakarta, Fechter (2008) investigated the experience of expatriate wives who accompany their husbands on their posting and he significance of their role in affecting expatriates’ lives. For example, expatriate wives play a major role in establishing the link between an expatriate employee and the expatriate community; hence, they assist expatriate interaction adjustment. However, these wives referred to their lives in Jakarta as “living in the golden cage”, which describes their luxurious lifestyle (e.g., having a pool, servants, and a mansion), yet they feel restricted in terms of social and spatial movements (Fechter, 2008). Specifically, Fechter (2008) argued that European and North American expatriate wives in Jakarta tend to relate to a broader Western expatriate identity beyond their national identity, and share the everyday practices and imaginations that characterise their position as expatriate wives.

Having examined the extant research on expatriation, culture shock, expatriate adjustment, expatriate selection, cross-cultural training and support, expatriate spouses and expatriates in Indonesia, I now turn to a discussion of the significance of the current research.
1.3 Research questions, significance, and research contributions

In undertaking qualitative interviews with expatriates, spouses/partners, and HR managers, this research examines the following overarching research question:

**Overarching research question (RQ): How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?**

The following sub-research questions will be also explored:

RQa: How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQb: How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQc: How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

This research makes theoretical contributions to expatriate/expatriation literature, specifically in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital, as well as to both work well-being and social capital literature. This research also offers insights into the context of Indonesia, specifically in the resources sector, a country and sector that have been under-researched in the business/management/HRM literature. First, the research is important in focusing on expatriates/expatriation issues in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital by specifically examining expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia; not previously well examined in the extant expatriate/expatriation literature. Second, the study extends the existing literature on work well-being by offering a more thorough examination of the components of work well-being through examination of expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia. Third, the current study extends the social capital literature by providing an understanding of the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being,
particularly by examining three dimensions of social capital, namely, structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions.

1.4 Practical implications

This research also offers practical implications for both organisations and individuals. At an organisational level, this research contributes to practice by: (1) suggesting the need for organisations that employ expatriates to conduct effective cross-cultural training about Indonesia; (2) developing a knowledge of bureaucracy in Indonesia in order to understand hiring issues in Indonesia and have an understanding of how to work in Indonesia; and (3) designing specifically tailored expatriate support, including for the expatriate’s spouse and family. At an individual level, this study offers expatriates suggestions about how to build trust through embracing family values, how to socially network and find beneficial networks, and the importance of understanding cultural diversity.

1.5 Overview of the research design

This research seeks to explore, identify, and provide a better understanding of how social capital is perceived as affecting expatriates work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. The current research employs an exploratory qualitative method and utilises semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The unit of analysis for this study is expatriate employees in the resources sector in Indonesia, spouses, and HR managers. The interview data from three groups of participants was triangulated in order to obtain a better understanding of the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being from multiple perspectives.

The 58 qualitative semi-structured interviews are in the form of open-ended questions that are designed to identify issues associated with the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being from the perspective of 43 expatriate employees, 8 spouses, and 7 HR managers. The interview questions consist of three sections: (1) demographic data, (2) understanding of the concept of work well-being, (3) situations related to three dimensions of
social capital and their perceived impact on expatriate work well-being. The interview data were transcribed and analysed using Nvivo 11.

1.6 Key terms utilised in the research

Expatriate. Expatriate refers to “legally working individuals who reside temporarily in a country of which they are not a citizen in order to accomplish a career-related goal, being relocated abroad either by an organization, by self-initiation or directly employed within the host-country” (McNulty & Brewster, 2017, p.46). In particular, Organisation Assigned Employees (AEs) are “professionals or managers who are transferred by their organisation, which arranges and supports the move, to work in a foreign subsidiary to achieve an organisational goal” (Tharenou, 2015, p. 150), who usually repatriate at the end of a set period, which usually ranges from one to five years (Edström & Galbraith, 1977); while Self Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) are typically “professionals or managers who, with no support of an organisation, go abroad on their own initiative to seek work in a host country for an indefinite period, although normally over a year” (Tharenou, 2015, p. 150).

Fly-In-Fly-Out (FIFO). FIFO is conceptualised as “all employment in which the work is so isolated from the workers’ homes, that food and accommodation are provided for them at the work site, and rosters are established whereby employees spend a fixed number of days at the site, followed by a fixed number of days at home” (Storey & Shrimpton, 1989, p. 2; see also Storey, 2001).

Multinational corporation/s (MNC/s). MNC refers to “a business organisation whose activities are located in more than two countries and is the organisational form that defines foreign direct investment” (Lazarus, 2001, p. 150). This form involves the location of the country where the firm is incorporated as well as of the foundation of branches or subsidiaries in foreign countries.
Resources sector. The Oxford Online Reference defines resources as “a country’s collective means of supporting itself or becoming wealthier, as represented by its reserves of minerals, land, and other natural assets” (Stevenson, 2013). The resources sector comprises industries associated with natural resources. In Indonesia, the resources sector, sometimes also called the energy sector, comprises four industries, namely oil and gas, coal, electricity, and renewable energy (BKPM, 2014).

Social capital. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, p. 243) conceptualised social capital as “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit”, which is categorised into three dimensions, namely the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions. Structural dimension refers to the general pattern of connections between actors (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Relational dimension refers to the type of personal relationships individuals have developed with each other through a history of interactions (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Cognitive dimension refers to resources offering shared representation, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Work well-being. From a psychological point of view, work well-being has been defined as being associated with “pleasant judgements (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences (positive feelings, moods, emotions, flow states) at work” (Fisher, 2010, p. 385). Extant literature on organisational management has characterised work well-being as encompassing job satisfaction, organisational commitment behaviour, work engagement, and affect towards and/or at work.

1.7 Overview of the thesis

The thesis includes seven chapters.
Chapter 1 established the general background of the research and the context in which it will be undertaken, reviewed extant literature on HRM in Indonesia, defined and examined key aspects of expatriation, provided justification of the significance of the research, detailed the research questions, and provided an overview of the research design, and defined key terms.

Chapter 2 reviews the existing literature on happiness, subjective well-being, and work well-being. The chapter includes discussion of the concept of work well-being in respect of associated constructs such as job satisfaction, job performance, organisational commitment behaviour, work engagement, as well as emotions at work. The chapter also reviews pre-existing measures related to assessing work well-being. The chapter concludes by considering the concept of work well-being in the resources sector generally and in Indonesia specifically.

Chapter 3 outlines the basis for selecting social theories, different social theories, and their relationship to expatriation. The chapter then examines social capital theory in detail and concludes with an overview of the implications of social capital theory from the field of International Human Resources Management (IHRM), particularly within the context of expatriates’ work well-being in Indonesia.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the research paradigm underpinning the research, highlights the rationale for utilising a qualitative approach, and outlines the research design, data collection and data analysis techniques. The chapter explains how the data will be analysed and presented.

Chapter 5 presents the findings and analysis of the qualitative interviews. This chapter will summarise key issues raised from the data and provide representative quotes derived from the thematic analysis undertaken utilising NVivo 11.
Chapter 6 presents the discussion. The chapter provides an analysis of the results in relation to extant literature on work-wellbeing and identifies key contributions of the research.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions of the research. This chapter discusses the conclusions of the research, theoretical contributions, and organisational implications, limitations of the research and issues for future research.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The concept of work well-being is relatively new in the psychological and human resources management literature and thus warrants further investigation. Prior studies have not specifically examined the impact of social capital on work well-being. Moreover, while social capital has been found to play a central role in assisting successful expatriation (e.g., Fischlmayr & Puchmüller, 2016; McPhail et al., 2016), expatriate work well-being has not been examined. Thus, this research is significant in providing an analysis of expatriates’ social capital and how that social capital may impact on work well-being. Also, since Indonesia remains one of the least researched countries with regard to its business management and HRM practices, this current research is important in exploring work well-being in this context and specifically in the resources sector, which it has already been suggested may have low levels of work well-being. Previous studies have highlighted individual aspects of work well-being in Western contexts but have not examined its applicability when employees work in a non-Western context. Therefore, the current research explores how social capital is perceived as impacting on work well-being of expatriates in Indonesia, a non-Western country, specifically in the resources sector, which entails more challenges, especially given the remoteness of locations, and thus might be expected to provide different perceptions of work well-being than studies conducted on non-expatriate employees in non-remote work locations. However, as previous studies on work well-being mainly used quantitative measures and explored particular aspects of work well-being, the current research is unique because it qualitatively seeks to understand perceptions of expatriates, spouses, and HR managers of the impact of social capital on perceptions of expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. In order to provide a foundation for exploring this research question and understanding of what has already been
researched in relation to work well-being, a review of the relevant literature is examined in this chapter. This includes the happiness construct, the concept of well-being in general, influencing factors, work well-being generally, work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia specifically, and measurements of work well-being. Table 2.1 below provides a summary of these key areas. The chapter then concludes by examining HRM practices in local and multinational organisations in Indonesia and how they may impact on work well-being.
Table 2.1. Happiness, subjective well-being, and work well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key term</th>
<th>Definition and conceptualisation</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>How they interact</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>• Signifies a good life (Diener, 2000)</td>
<td>• Three sources of chronic happiness (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, &amp; Schkade, 2005)</td>
<td>• High SWB levels among happy people (Diener, 2000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective well-being</td>
<td>• SWB involves cognitive and affective evaluations (Diener, Lucas, &amp; Oshi, 2002).</td>
<td>• SWB is comprised of cognitive (i.e., thought) and affective (i.e., feelings) components (Diener, Lucas, &amp; Oshi, 2002).</td>
<td>• Happiness is a subjective experience (Diener, 1994) and evaluation (Diener, Lucas, &amp; Oshi, 2002).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SWB)</td>
<td>• Three aspects of SWB (Diener, 2000)</td>
<td>• SWB is also influenced by several wider external factors, such as economic, social and political environment factors (e.g., Fahey &amp; Smyth, 2004; Hagerty, 2000; Alesina et al., 2004; Di Tella et al., 2001).</td>
<td>• Eudaimonic behaviour leads to hedonic pleasure (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, &amp; King, 2008; see also Waterman, 2008).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Subjective ill-being (SIB) is the opposite of SWB (Selmer &amp; Lauring, 2014).</td>
<td>• SWB is comprised of cognitive (i.e., thought) and affective (i.e., feelings) components (Diener, Lucas, &amp; Oshi, 2002).</td>
<td>• Economic and psychological measures of SWB (see Kahneman &amp; Krueger, 2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Hedonic and eudaimonic views of happiness (Fisher, 2010; Straume &amp; Vittersø, 2012)</td>
<td>• SWB is also influenced by several wider external factors, such as economic, social and political environment factors (e.g., Fahey &amp; Smyth, 2004; Hagerty, 2000; Alesina et al., 2004; Di Tella et al., 2001).</td>
<td>• Economic and psychological measures of SWB (see Kahneman &amp; Krueger, 2006)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Work well-being</td>
<td>• WWB is related to pleasant judgments or pleasant experiences at work (Fisher, 2010).</td>
<td>• Cognitive and affective components of WWB (Fisher, 2014)</td>
<td>• WWB is in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(WWB)</td>
<td>• Research on WWB mostly emphasises organisational and job aspects related to well-being</td>
<td>• Organisational attributes (Fisher, 2010), high performance work practices (Huselid, 1995), and organisational climate (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, &amp; DeShon, 2003) influence WWB.</td>
<td>• One of the most important domains of SWB (see Rath &amp; Harter, 2010).</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Job characteristics (Warr, 2007) and interaction between leaders and employees (see DeGroot, Kiker, &amp; Cross, 2000; Gertsner &amp; Day, 1997; Dirks &amp; Ferrin, 2002; Dutton, 2003) predict WWB.</td>
<td>• Job satisfaction as work well-being (e.g., Herzberg, Mausner, &amp; Snyderman, 1959)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Transient factors and WWB (affective events theory by Weiss &amp; Cropanzano, 1996)</td>
<td>• Happy-productive worker hypothesis.</td>
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<th>Methods</th>
<th>Leading research</th>
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<td>Well-being is significantly related to success at work (Boehm &amp; Lyubomirsky, 2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Longitudinal</td>
<td>High well-being levels are beneficial across lifetimes (Burger &amp; Caldwell, 2000; Staw, Sutton, &amp; Pelled, 1994; Pelled &amp; Xin, 1999; Diener, 2000; Nickerson, Lucas, &amp; Sandvik, 2002; Diener et al., 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>High levels of PA lead to cooperativeness higher self-efficacy and positive self-image, helpfulness and positivity to others, creative and adventurous (Boehm &amp; Lyubomirsky, 2008)</td>
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### Sample measurements of WWB

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<th>Affect at work</th>
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### Factors that influence WWB

#### Nature
- Age positively correlates with SWB (Charles, Reynolds, & Gatz, 2001; Argyle, 1999)
- Research on emotions of fraternal twins reared apart by Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008).
- Gender influences SWB levels (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Hall & Mast, 2008; Alesina, Di Tella, & MacCulloch, 2004), such as women tended to have higher SWB than men (see Oswald & Powdthavee, 2008), and no gender differences were found (e.g., Charles et al. 2001).
- Personality types correlate with SWB, such as extraversion/neuroticism with PA/NA (Charles et al., 2001)

#### Nurture
- Positive correlation between level of education and SWB (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; see also Stutzer, 2004).
- Unemployment negatively correlates with SWB (Di Tella, MacCulloch, & Oswald, 2001; Stutzer, 2004), as well as with life satisfaction and happiness (Lelkes, 2006)
- SWB is related to: a) types of work (Alesina et al., 2004; Meier & Stutzer, 2006); b) choices of activities and community involvement (Clark & Lelkes, 2005; Ferrer-i-Carbonell & Gowdy, 2007); c) close and caring relationship (Helliwell, 2003; Easterlin, 2003).
- Differences between married and single employees at work (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999)

#### Nature v nurture
- The interaction between genes and environment (Lykken, 2000’s “nature via nurture”)
- Effects of genes and social economic statuses on life satisfaction (see Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008).
- Individual strengths interact with genes (see Kashdan, 2001)
- Views on satisfaction is influenced by both subjective and objective factors (see Easterlin, 2006)

### Cross-cultural studies on SWB

- Societal and cultural influences on SWB, such as individualist versus collectivist cultures (e.g., Diener 1996; Diener & Oishi, 2000)
- The high depression rate in individualist cultures (Seligman, 1988)
- Higher levels of SWB among people from rich countries (Bulmahn, 2000; Veenhoven, 1999)
2.2 Happiness, subjective well-being, work well-being

Happiness is a term that most people use to describe a positive state of emotions as well as positive evaluations of their lives. Diener (2000, p. 34) noted that happiness signifies a “good life”, and since happiness may have different meanings (e.g., joy, satisfaction), scholars use a more scientific term called subjective well-being. This refers to an individual’s evaluations of their life, based on cognitive judgement and affective state. Subjective well-being is considered as an umbrella term for various types of evaluations that an individual may use as a standard of evaluation. It may involve self-esteem, joy, feelings of fulfilment, and so on. It is called “subjective” because it refers to first-person experience, in which individuals themselves evaluate their lives rather than an assessment being made by others. However, the terms happiness and subjective well-being are used interchangeably (e.g., Diener, 2000).

Subjective well-being has attracted the attention of many scholars across different disciplines, ranging from psychology to economics. Within this area of interest is the issue of how to accurately measure subjective well-being.

On the other hand, Selmer and Lauring (2014) explored subjective ill-being (SIB) as the opposite term of subjective well-being. In other words, SIB equates unhappiness. Selmer and Lauring (2014) proposed that SIB could be a state or a trait (neuroticism, negative affectivity, nostalgia). Further, one of the most important domains of subjective well-being is work well-being. Work well-being is considered the most important part of an individual’s life since work has been suggested to be essential to individual’s identity (Scott, 2008). In the workplace context, job satisfaction alone has sometimes been defined as work well-being (e.g., Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). However, happiness (or, subjective well-being) and job satisfaction are not necessarily the same concept since subjective well-being refers to life as a whole whereas the latter refers to a particular job (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). This distinction can be explained in at least two ways. First, job satisfaction is specific in nature as it only refers to an individual’s job and excludes other aspects of the
individual’s life outside of a work context (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000), whereas subjective well-being involves judgement of an individual’s life as a whole, and job satisfaction is only an aspect of it. Second, although job satisfaction comprises both cognitive and affective components, it is partly based on what an individual thinks and partly on what an individual feels (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Subjective well-being, on the other hand, is an affective and cognitive evaluation of an individual’s life (Diener, 2000).

2.3 Conceptualisation of subjective well-being
There are two main divisions in examining subjective well-being, namely hedonic and eudaimonic views of happiness (Fisher, 2010). Hedonic views subjective well-being as “favorable judgments” (Fisher, 2010, p. 385), while eudaimonic views subjective well-being as any actions resulting from the thought of what is seen as “virtuous, morally right, true to one’s self, meaningful, and/or growth producing” (Fisher, 2010, p. 385; see also Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008). From a psychology point of view, research on subjective well-being has mostly overshadowed the hedonic views of happiness (see also Diener et al. 1999; Schimmack, 2008).

Hedonic views of subjective well-being regard what is called “a happiness set point” as being where people adapt to a certain level of happiness in that they will always return to that point even following a major joyful event or following a major downturn event (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008). On the other hand, eudaimonic views of subjective well-being emphasise the pursuit of an individual’s goals and self-growth as well as self-actualisation, irrespective of an individual’s feelings at any given time (cf. Seligman 2002; Warr 2007). Straume and Vittersø (2012) argued that subjective well-being is regulated by two different mechanisms, namely hedonic and eudaimonic, in which the former plays a major role in determining subjective well-being at the state level (superficial, overt) while the latter is significant at the trait (more implicit, deeper meaning) level. This assumption posits that feeling good and functioning well are two distinct mechanisms that contribute to subjective
well-being and thus each has its own role in regulating the behaviour of individuals. Feeling good is associated with hedonic mechanism that is experienced when life is pleasant or when achieving a goal. Functioning well, also called inspiration, is associated with the eudaimonic mechanism that is experienced when dealing with challenging tasks in order to achieve certain goals. However, although hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions are found to be conceptually and empirically distinguishable, there is significant evidence that eudaimonic behaviour leads to hedonic pleasure (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008). As Waterman (2008) further suggested, to reach self-actualisation is pleasant and satisfying for individuals.

2.3.1 Definition of subjective well-being

Diener (1994) proposed that happiness is a subjective experience and hence it refers to a subjective evaluation of individuals’ own lives, which meaning varies across individuals (Abbey, 2015). Subjective well-being (SWB) is defined as “a person’s cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life” (Diener, Lucas, & Oshi, 2002, p. 63). Several discrete components were assumed to contribute to subjective well-being, namely contentment that someone feels about his or her life, gratification towards significant areas a person achieved in his or her life, having many positive affects, and facing hardly any negative affects (Diener, 2000). There are three aspects of happiness (or subjective well-being given that the terms are used interchangeably in the literature), that is, people are happy to the extent that they believe themselves to be happy, happiness includes both the relative presence of positive emotions and the relative absence of negative emotions, and happiness is a global judgement considering life as a whole (e.g., Diener, 2000). Therefore, to be happy (or, to be high in subjective well-being) is when a person experiences more positive emotion and less negative emotion as a result of their subjective and global judgement. The experience of mild to moderate emotions is evident among happy people, in contrast to extremes of an abundance of positive or negative emotions (see also Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade. 2005).
2.4 Factors that influence subjective well-being

Subjective well-being is influenced by nature, nurture, and/or nature via nurture. It is also influenced by several wider external factors, such as economic, social and political environment factors. For example, income distributions (see Fahey & Smyth, 2004; Hagerty, 2000), unemployment rates (e.g., Alesina et al., 2004; Di Tella et al., 2001), inflation (Alesina et al., 2004; Graham & Pettinato, 2001), welfare system and public insurance (Veenhoven, 2000; Di Tella, MacCulloch, & Oswald, 2003), degree of democracy (Frey & Stutzer, 2005), climate and natural environment (Welsch, 2002; Rehdanz & Maddison, 2005), safety and deprivation of the area (Ferrer-i-Carbonell & Gowdy, 2007; Hudson, 2006), and urbanisation (Dolan, Peasgood, & White, 2008). In examining influencing factors of subjective well-being, researchers have also looked at cross-cultural studies on subjective well-being (as summarised in Table 2.1).

2.5 Work well-being

The concept of subjective well-being extends to all aspects of life, including the workplace. Subjective well-being in the workplace is called work well-being and it is one of five domains (as illustrated in Figure 2.1) that comprise overall well-being (i.e., career/work well-being, social well-being, financial well-being, physical well-being, and community well-being) (Rath & Harter, 2010). Abbey (2015) conceptualised work well-being as consisting of three domains (self, relationships, and principles) with two dimensions within each domain. She further noted that the self domain emphasises (a) career development and achievement and (b) caring for personal health and work life balance; the relationships domain focuses on (a) friendly work relationships and (b) receiving recognition for contribution; and the principles domain mirrors collective preferences regarding how the organisation treats (a) its employees (internal community) and (b) the local external community and/or society. Similarly, Torrisi (2012) proposed that work well-being results from a combination of
subjective perceptions that are associated with four dimensions, namely physics, organisational, relational, and personal satisfaction.

![Diagram showing five domains of subjective well-being](image)

**Figure 2.1 Subjective well-being and its five domains.**
Note: Sourced from Rath and Harter (2010).

On the other hand, Fisher (2010, p. 385) stated that work well-being (as illustrated in Figure 2.2) is often associated with “pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or pleasant experiences (positive feelings, moods, emotions, flow states) at work”. Research on work well-being mostly emphasises organisational and job aspects related to well-being, such as job satisfaction, job performance, organisational commitment, and emotional exhaustion (commonly characterised by burnout – a chronic state of emotional exhaustion that involves physical and emotional depletion resulting from excessive job demands and continuous hassles (Zohar, 1997). Fisher (2010) suggested that organisational attributes, the job, the supervisor, or other work environment factors largely influence work well-being.

![Diagram showing components of overall well-being at work](image)

**Figure 2.2. Components of overall well-being at work.**
First, at an organisational level, there are a number of operating factors that contribute to work well-being. For instance, in order to improve work outcomes, high performance work practices are characterized by high involvement and high commitment. As noted by Huselid (1995), high performance work practices manifest in behaviour such as being selective in employee recruitment, providing job security, conducting training as well as providing information and power sharing. Fisher (2010) argued that these practices contribute to employees’ well-being through the increased likelihood of realising satisfaction in competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Hence, a sense of achievement has been posited by self-determination theory, which stresses actualising three basic human needs, that is, competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Moreover, how individuals perceive their organisational climate predicts their well-being levels through perceived job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003).

Second, at the job level, job characteristics have been found to be a predictor of work well-being (Warr, 2007). Past research has mainly focused on examining job characteristics that are satisfying to individuals by taking into account internal (motivational), social, and work context factors that were found to significantly account for job satisfaction by more than 50%, and other work context factors that account for organisational commitment by 87% (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Warr (2007) has focused on desirable job characteristics that would increase work well-being (i.e. “vitamin model”).

Moreover, how leaders behave or treat their employees’ impacts on employees’ well-being. This also involves the interaction between leaders and employees. For instance, DeGroot, Kiker, and Cross (2000) found that charismatic leadership is associated with high job satisfaction among subordinates. Subordinates’ level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment are significantly related to leader-member exchange (Gertsner
and Day, 1997) as well as trust in the leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Other than the leader-subordinate relationship, the strength of the relationship between fellow workers also plays a key role in determining work well-being. As illustrated by Dutton (2003), “high quality connections” with others at work brings about energy and boosts individuals’ happiness in the workplace.

Last, in order to examine work well-being, transient factors are also important to take into account. For example, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) postulated “affective events theory”, which highlighted the role of affective events in mediating the impact of other stable features of work setting on individual’s well-being. These transient factors are generally defined and measured as transient states, such as “state positive mood, the experience of flow, and discrete emotions such as joy, pleasure, happiness, and contentment”, and they vary across the within-person level (Fisher, 2010, p. 386).

Although Fisher’s (2014) model of work well-being posits that work well-being is clearly multidimensional, but “many concepts and measures used…straddle these different dimensions of wellbeing, often combining cognitive judgements with affect, hedonic happiness with eudaimonic wellbeing, or eudaimonic with social wellbeing… some aspects are commonly measured, and measured very well, while other important components…largely ignored… suggests considerable scope to broaden the ways we think about and assess wellbeing at work” (Fisher, 2014, p. 15). Therefore, this current research is significant in that it will provide an understanding of how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being. In extending the existing literature by focusing on work well-being in the context of the resources sector in Indonesia, this study will broaden the limited literature on HRM, management and organisational behaviour in this highly populated and strategically significant economy, but also provide understanding of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in this non-Western country. In doing so the research expands our
understanding of what constitutes work well-being. Thus, the overarching research question (RQ) warrants a further exploration:

“How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?”

In order to obtain better understanding of how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, triangulation of data from multiple perspectives is needed to capture different perceptions of the concept of work well-being across expatriates working in the resources sector in Indonesia, spouses, and HR managers. Hence, the following sub-research questions are explored:

RQa: How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQb: How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQc: How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

2.6 Well-being and success in the workplace

Individuals’ work outcomes are influenced by many factors, such as an individual’s internal state; for example, well-being and stress levels. Referring to the hedonic view of well-being that highlights the presence of positive affect and the absence (or lack of) negative affect, it is assumed that pleasant feelings like satisfaction and negative feelings like stress influence levels of well-being. In a workplace context this will, in time, affect work outcomes. Wright and Cropanzano (2000) pointed out that positive affect may serve as predictors of how well a
person performs at work. This is evidenced by positive reviews that happy people receive from their supervisors (Cropanzano & Wright, 1999; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994; Wright & Staw, 1999). Supervisors tend to give positive reviews for their happy subordinates since working with happy subordinates is more pleasurable and being around them is desirable. Lamb and Kwok (2016) further suggested that environmental stressors (thermal comfort, light levels and noise annoyance) decreased employees’ well-being (as characterised by mood, headaches, and feeling off), which in turn negatively influenced employees’ work performance. Thus, it can be argued that work well-being is critical not only for employees but also for organisational outcomes, as will now be discussed in more detail.

Being happy, an indication of high work well-being levels, is beneficial for workers as positive feelings help improve individuals’ performance. Furthermore, happy employees perform better at jobs as they show more success in the workplace compared to less happy employees (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008). As a result, people commonly assume that happiness causes success. This argument is supported by findings from research looking at happiness in the workplace, which found that people with high subjective well-being levels tend to consider their job as a positive experience, and they show higher job satisfaction (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Fisher, 2002; George, 1995; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999).

In contrast, unhappy employees, mirrored by high subjective ill-being level, display poor work outcomes. Selmer and Lauring (2014, p. 589) found that subjective ill-being negatively affected work outcomes where it showed “a strong negative association with work adjustment, work performance, work effectiveness, job satisfaction as well as a strong positive relationship with time to proficiency”. Further, negative feelings like stress bring about a number of negative consequences for work outcomes – as noted in poor job
performance and job satisfaction, high turnover and turnover intentions, and poor organisational commitment. Recently, Kidger et al. (2016) found that distress or dissatisfaction with work resulted in poorer well-being and higher depressive symptoms. Moreover, distress can then be categorised into hindrance stress and burnout. With the presence of hindrance stress – stress that potentially constraining one’s personal development and work related accomplishment (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007) a person’s ability to achieve is being hindered, personal growth or gain is harmed, negative emotions and a passive or emotional style of coping are triggered (LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005).

Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau’s (2000) study pointed out that managers with high level of hindrance-related self-reported stress were found to be low in job satisfaction but high in job search and voluntary turnover. LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine (2005) found that employees high in hindrance stress reported high levels of strain but low motivation and performance.

Higher levels of well-being are also manifested in behaviour that reflects altruism in the workplace. This behaviour, known as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), benefits both personal and organisational levels (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001; Credé, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal, & Bashshur, 2005; Fisher, 2002; George, 1991; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Williams & Shiaw, 1999). There are four aspects of OCB, namely, altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1991) found that supervisory ratings on salespersons’ performance are strongly influenced by salespersons’ altruism and civic virtue more so than by objective productive. Also, Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) argued that both helping behaviour and sportsmanship significantly influenced individuals’ performance quantity, while helping behaviour alone significantly affected performance quality.
2.6.1 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Research on well-being in the workplace is mainly dominated by assessing individual level predictors of well-being, such as job satisfaction and job performance. This is driven by the common belief that “satisfied and happy workers are on average more productive than others” (Taris & Schreurs, 2009, p. 120). Many researchers consider job satisfaction and well-being to be strongly related (Wright & Doherty, 1998). Brief (1998, p. 86) defined job satisfaction as “an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favour or disfavour”. This relationship may be reciprocal; individuals with higher levels of work well-being tend to be more satisfied with their jobs, and satisfied workers are more likely to have higher levels of work well-being. For example, Warr (2007) noted that job satisfaction is one of the indicators of work well-being. Dimotakis, Scott, and Koopman (2011) proposed that job satisfaction represents affective events that are associated with work well-being through the variation in positive and negative affect, providing support for Locke’s (1976) conceptualisation of job satisfaction as an emotional reaction in responding to work situations.

Job satisfaction has been defined as resulting from how well a person perceives their job in providing those things that are considered important (Natarajan & Nagar, 2011). Luthans (1998) proposed three important dimensions of job satisfaction. First, job satisfaction is how one reacts emotionally to a job situation, thus it is not visible and one can only reason about it (Luthans, 1998). Second, often job satisfaction is defined by the realisation of a given standard in terms of how well outcomes meet expectations (Luthans, 1998). Third, job satisfaction highlights the importance of significant features of a job that are mirrored through several job-related attitudes such as responses shown toward work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers (Luthans, 1998).

Cropanzano and Wright (2001) operationalised work well-being through four mechanisms: job satisfaction, the profile of positive and negative affectivity, the lack of
emotional exhaustion (burnout), and as psychological well-being. In addition, Cropanzano and Wright (2001) also posited three causal relationships between job satisfaction and job performance: job satisfaction may cause job performance; job performance may cause job satisfaction; and both performance and satisfaction may be caused by a variety of three other variables, such as pay, job complexity, and self-esteem (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Further, in their review of past qualitative and quantitative research examining the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, Judge et al. (2001) noted that there was inconsistency in the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Some studies found that job satisfaction causes job performance (e.g., Shore and Martin, 1989), while others argued that job performance causes job satisfaction (e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998), and yet others stated that job satisfaction and job performance are not significantly related (e.g., Birnbaum & Somers, 1993). Judge et al. (2001, p. 378) argued that although “job performance did not have a unique effect on job satisfaction, one cannot conclude that no association exists”. Some other studies (e.g., Brown & Peterson, 1994) have also found that job performance and job satisfaction were significantly correlated, but the effect was reduced by the relative influence of other variables or because other constructs mediated the effect.

In addition to individual-level factors examined, there is also a great deal of research examining organisational level factors of well-being in the workplace. At an organisational level, organisations affect their individual members’ values, attitudes, and behaviours through the process of socialisation (Fogarty & Dirsmith, 2001). Organisational socialisation is a process of mutual adjustment of the individual and organisation that aims to minimise task and environmental uncertainty by promoting the practice of common behaviours and shared orientations among members. This process of organisational socialisation leads to internalisation of organisational orientations and goals that eventually promotes individual work outcomes.
Another example of the organisation-related attitude is organisational commitment, which is defined as “an affective response (attitude) resulting from an evaluation of the work situation which links or attaches the individual to the organisation” (Mottaz, 1988, p. 468). Organisational commitment arises from perceived benefits an individual receives from the organisation. Work rewards refer to the benefits that one gains from their jobs, both intrinsically and extrinsically (Herzberg, 1966; Kalleberg, 1977). Mottaz (1988) pointed out this view is called the exchange perspective and emphasised how work rewards and work values largely determine an individual’s organisational commitment. Based on the exchange perspective, work rewards play a key role in determining organisational commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1982).

Organisational commitment is a broad construct that consists of three dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment refers to the degree of emotional attachment that employees perceive between them and their organisation. Normative commitment refers to the degree to which employees feel obliged to stay with the organisation. Continuance commitment refers to the degree to which employees perceive the cost associated with leaving the organisation. Allen and Meyer (1996) found that affective commitment and normative commitment were positively related with positive organisational behaviour, including increased work performance and satisfaction, tenure and attendance. In contrast, continuance commitment was negatively associated or showed no correlation with positive organisational behaviour. Similarly, Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker (1990) argued that affective commitment and normative commitment were significantly associated with commitment behaviour, whereas continuance commitment was weak or unrelated to commitment behaviour. This result yielded more thorough research on possible subdimensions of three major dimensions of organisational commitment, particularly in examining the negative impact of continuance commitment on positive organisational
commitment behaviour. Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly (1990) noted that there are two subdimensions of continuance commitment, namely, personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) attributed bad performance and low promotability at work to the presence of high levels of personal sacrifice and the absence or lack of alternatives.

Shore and Martin (1989) proposed that attitudes toward the job and organisation may result in different work outcomes. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) acknowledged that general attitudes toward the organisation may serve as a better predictor of the decision to remain with the organisation than more specific attitudes toward the job. Organisational commitment is considered as a significant predictor of employee behaviour and intentions (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment with work outcomes such as turnover intentions and job performance, has received attention from many researchers (e.g., Natarajan & Nagar, 2011; Shore & Martin, 1989). Some research also found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are positively correlated (e.g., Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argued that job satisfaction was associated with both affective and continuance commitment; William and Hazer (1986) noted that job satisfaction was an antecedent of organisational commitment; and Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994) proposed that job satisfaction was positively related to affective and normative commitment, while job satisfaction was negatively associated with continuance commitment.

Moser (1997) argued that the absence of job satisfaction causes lethargy and low organisational commitment. Netemeyer, Burton, and Johnston (1995) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions is mediated by affective organisational commitment. Similarly, Clugston (2000) stated that organisational commitment serves as a partial mediator of the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. This model is based on the findings that job satisfaction directly affects
turnover intentions (e.g., Tate, Whately, & Clugston, 1997). However, Clugston (2000) also found that normative commitment did not significantly affect turnover intentions while job satisfaction showed a stronger direct impact on turnover intention compared to organisational commitment.

Furthermore, many studies have pointed out that there are common features that are shared between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Natarajan and Nagar (2011) proposed that job satisfaction and organisational commitment share the same antecedent, that is, permanence of job, in that permanent employees tend to be more committed to their organisation and show higher job satisfaction levels when compared with contract employees. This may be due to the sense of security as to having a secured permanent job as opposed to being in fear of losing the job and being unemployed. Iqbal, Kiyani, Qureshi, Abbas, and Ambreen (2012) conducted a review of 46 pieces of organisational commitment literature from the previous 15 years and noted that there were common fundamental antecedents of organisational commitment that were apparent; namely, knowledge sharing, perceived justice, motivation, and perceived organisational support. Also, there are outcomes of organisational commitment evident across the literature, including job performance, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, turnover intentions, and absenteeism.

2.6.2 Job satisfaction and subjective well-being

Wright, Cropanzano, Denney, and Moline (2002) noted that past research has demonstrated apparent links between job attitudes related to work well-being, which is mirrored by job satisfaction and job performance. However, the findings are still mixed in terms of whether job satisfaction and job performance are significantly correlated (e.g., Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge et al., 1998; Vroom, 1964; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). The mixed findings may result from how the work well-being construct is operationalised (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Work well-being has been operationalised through two approaches, job...
satisfaction and subjective well-being (Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007; Wright et al., 2002; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

It has been stated that “job satisfaction is probably the most common and one of the oldest operationalizations of workplace happiness” (Wright et al., 2007, p. 94). Although subjective well-being and job satisfaction are not necessarily the same concept since subjective well-being refers to life as a whole whereas the latter refers exclusively to job-related aspects (e.g., Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999), these terms have been used interchangeably within the literature on work well-being. This distinction can be explained in at least two ways. First, similarly to Diener et al., (1999), Wright and Cropanzano (2000) argued that job satisfaction is specific in nature as it only refers to a person’s job and excludes other aspects of life outside the work context. Subjective well-being, on the other hand, involves the judgement of an individual’s life as a whole in which job satisfaction is only one aspect of it. Second, job satisfaction is commonly regarded as an attitude and past research tended to generalise the cognitive and affective components (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). While job satisfaction comprises both cognitive and affective components, it is partly based on what a person thinks and partly on what a person feels (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Although most of the past research has explored the relationship between subjective well-being and job satisfaction, Selmer and Lauring (2014) examined the opposite construct of subjective well-being (i.e., subjective ill-being) and found that subjective ill-being contributed negatively to job satisfaction.

Subjective well-being signifies a broad category of quality of life, which was defined as affective and cognitive evaluations that people make about their lives (Diener, 2000). Several discrete components were assumed to contribute to subjective well-being: contentment that an individual feels about his or her life, gratification in respect to significant areas which an individual has achieved in his or her life, and undergoing many positive effects and facing hardly any negative effects (Diener, 2000). Subjective well-being is not an
enduring concept because it differs in regard to situational factors and the time in which it occurs (Diener, 2000). It takes into account situational factors with particular timeframe settings. In other words, it is bound by time and space, which means it is not context free.

Therefore, job satisfaction and subjective well-being cannot be considered as the same construct, as each requires different operationalisation. Job satisfaction is a narrow construct that operationalises mostly in respect to an individual’s cognitive domain, whereas subjective well-being is a broader construct that mostly operationalises in the affective domain (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). However, both constructs do involve individual evaluations about ways to assess both cognitive and affective in nature.

2.6.3 Work engagement and psychological capital

With the increased popularity of positive psychology (e.g., Seligman, 2002), two approaches have emerged termed positive organisational scholarship (POS) and positive organisational behaviour (POB). POS tends to focus more on the macro, organisational level, while POB looks at the micro, more individual level (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). POS may or may not be open to development, deals with constructs such as compassion and virtuousness, and may or may not influence performance (e.g., Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004), while POB is a construct that is state-like in nature, open to development, and associated with performance results (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). POB includes the construct psychological capital (PsyCap). PsyCap is “a higher order positive construct comprised of the four-facet constructs of self-efficacy/confidence, optimism, hope, and resiliency” (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 4).

With the rise of positive psychology and the emergence of PsyCap, it is important to look at the concept of psychological ownership, which refers to the sense of ownership that employees feel towards their work or when a performance target is actually their target (see Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). In order to maximise positive organisational outcomes, organisations need to build this sense of ownership among their employees. Pierce, Kostova,
& Dirks, 2003, p. 86) defined psychological ownership as “the state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership or a piece of that target is theirs”. Parker, Wall, and Jackson (1997) argued that employees feel more obliged to reach the target and demonstrate feelings of concern towards the performance target if they have a sense of psychological ownership. Vanderwalle, Van Dyne, and Kostova (1995) found that psychological ownership was positively associated with extra role/organisational citizenship behaviour. Wagner, Parker, and Christiansen (2003) argued that individuals’ beliefs about their ownership were positively related to the financial performance of the organisation. Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) proposed that psychological ownership for the organisation was positively correlated with employee’s organisational commitment levels, job satisfaction, and organisation-based self-esteem, and also work behaviour and performance.

The construct of PsyCap is rooted in positive psychology, as is the construct of work engagement. There are many similarities that are shared between these two constructs. For example, they both consider the micro, individual level and are positively associated with job performance. Further, the three dimensions of work engagement (vigour, dedication, and absorption) are similar to the four facets of PysCap (efficacy/confidence, optimism, hope, and resilience). Nevertheless, it has been suggested that work engagement is a stable construct and thus it serves as a stable predictor of well-being in the workplace, while PsyCap is a state-like (unstable, varies across circumstances, influenced by transient factors) construct that is open for development, which makes it a rather unstable predictor of work well-being (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008).

2.6.4 Job performance and work engagement

Given the rise of positive psychology, scholars have become increasingly interested in studying work engagement since work stress has become a major focus in many research areas as well as an issue for organisations. Different approaches suggest different definitions of work stress, though all of them examine three common features; namely, the interaction
between the person and some environmental event (stressor), stress as being a process that occurs over time, and that there are physical and psychological reactions to a stressor/s. Therefore, Riggio (2003) proposed that work stress is comprised of the physiological and/or psychological reactions to an event that is seen as threatening or challenging. Despite all its potential negative consequences or negative commutations, stress can have both positive (eustress) and negative (distress) aspects. Eustress is a healthy positive cognitive response to stress, while distress is the sense of stress that is not accompanied by challenge or feelings of fulfilment or achievement (Selye, as cited in Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000). Moreover, distress can then be categorised into burnout and hindrance stress. Burnout is a chronic state of emotional exhaustion that involves physical and emotional depletion, which results from excessive job demands and continuous hassles (Zohar, 1997). Hindrance stress is stress that potentially constrains a person’s personal development and work-related accomplishment/s (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007).

A common form of work-related stress is burnout, which is defined as a prolonged reaction to chronic interpersonal and emotional stressors on the job, and is marked by three dimensions of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Maslach et al. (2001) found that burnout is specific to a work context and is a form of individual expression. They suggested that burnout is caused by job characteristics, occupational characteristics, and organisational characteristics.

Studies of employees in human services and education have been the area of focus in much research on burnout. This might be due to the assumption that those jobs involve higher level of contact with a client or customer or the public (Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007). In their study looking at the negative consequences of emotional exhaustion for employees and employers, which used a sample of subordinates and supervisors working in a large hospital, Cropanzano, Rupp, and Byrne (2003) found that emotional exhaustion, a central component of burnout, significantly related to organisational commitment and turnover.
intentions. In contrast, it was not found to be related to job performance. The trend suggested that as emotional exhaustion increases, organisational commitment decreases, while as emotional exhaustion increases, turnover intentions increase as well. Bakker, Demerouti, and Sanz-Vergel (2014) found that burnout tend to relate more to health outcomes while work engagement is more significantly related to motivational outcomes. However, Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, and Menard (2015) found that work engagement and burnout are two independent, distinct concepts, and that they are not diametrical counterparts. This alternative view suggests that work engagement dimensions are highly linked and have more significant relationships with each other than with their burnout counterpart. Work engagement is considered the opposite of burnout (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Baker, 2002) and hence is an important area of research.

Work engagement is defined as a “positive, fulfilling work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Engaged employees have shown to be more productive, profitable, safer, healthier, and more likely to remain in their current job and that meta-analytic has shown that there was a moderate-sized, but remarkably consistent and reliable direct relationship between employee engagement and customer engagement (Fleming & Asplund, 2007). When employees are engaged, businesses are run more efficiently, and when businesses are run more efficiently, employees become even more engaged. Engaged employees demonstrate a stronger sense of ownership of the organisations’ successes and failures, and thus are willing to contribute more to improve the performance. Past research on burnout suggested that higher levels of burnout were associated with lower job performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Parker & Kulik, 1995).

There are three dimensions of work engagement: vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Vigour refers to high energy level and mental resilience a person exhibits while working, the desire to put in extra effort at work, and persistence when faced
with difficulties. Dedication refers to a sense of importance, eagerness, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Absorption refers to being fully occupied and indulged in one’s work. Work engagement is a stable construct and thus it serves as a stable predictor of well-being in the workplace (Seppälä, Mauno, Feldt, Hakanen, Kinnunen, Tolvanen, & Schaufeli, 2009). Work engagement was found to be positively correlated with in-role job performance (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010), organisational citizenship behaviour (Schaufeli, Taris, & Baker, 2006), customer loyalty and satisfaction (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005), innovation (Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008) and financial turnover (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

It is argued that work engagement might affect performance by improving employees’ motivation to learn new work-related skills (Chugthai & Buckley, 2011). Fleming and Asplund (2007) pointed out that work engagement predicts employee’s job performance in key areas such as customer engagement, employee retention, sales, and profit. Furthermore, Rotundo and Sackett (2002), Demerouti and Cropanzano (2010) proposed that job performance is a multidimensional construct that consists of in-role and extra-role performance. With regard to the importance of feeling engaged at work and taking into account the strong interplay between each dimensions of work engagement (e.g., Ahuja & Modi, 2015), work engagement can be considered as a predictor of work well-being since engaged employees tend to perform better and have higher levels of work well-being.

Having examined the relationship between work engagement and job performance, the relationship between job performance and subjective well-being is now considered.

2.6.5 Job performance and subjective well-being

Researchers have highlighted two factors that are strongly related to job performance, namely, job satisfaction and subjective well-being (Wright et al., 2007). Individuals’ work outcomes have been thought to be determined by subjective well-being, or also termed as dispositional affect, that is, positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA). For example,
Wright et al. (2007) proposed that supervisory ratings on individuals’ job performance are significantly correlated with employees’ dispositional affect. Since subjective well-being primarily operates on emotional components, it manifests on affective or emotional experience and it commonly positions both positive and negative emotions on a single axis. At the high end of the pole, it represents high PA such as joy, whereas at the low end of the pole, it represents high NA such as sadness. Thus, a high subjective well-being level means having high PA and low NA.

Wright and Bonnett (1997) argued that depressed individuals tended to show very low self-esteem, were more pessimistic, less motivated and were slow thinkers. Hobfoll (1989) argued that happy and unhappy people experience things differently regarding their psychological situations, in that unhappy people tend to have a limited source of happiness and thus they need to protect and defend it. Happy people, on the other hand, are more prone to take risks since they have plenty of happiness. This view is called the Resource Maintenance Model (RMM). When applied to a workplace context, the RMM posits that an unhappy individual is more sensitive to threats at work, more defensive and cautious around other people at work, and more pessimistic, and less confident (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). A happy individual, on the other hand, is more sensitive to opportunities at work, more outgoing and helpful to other people at work, less pessimistic and more confident. In sum, the RMM suggests that PA should be positively correlated with job performance while NA should be negatively correlated with job performance.

Wright et al. (2007) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is moderated by subjective well-being. Employees who are satisfied and score high on subjective well-being tend to have the resources needed to aid and promote increased levels of job performance as opposed to their less satisfied and low on subjective well-being-scoring colleagues. However, this effect is more pronounced among employees with high subjective well-being, such as job satisfaction predicted job performance. In contrast, job
satisfaction did not predict job performance of employees with low subjective well-being. To conclude, Wright et al. (2007) argued that even if employees are satisfied with their job, if they experience low levels of subjective well-being, then their high job satisfaction level is not likely to lead to better job performance. In other words, individuals with low levels of subjective well-being perform worse regardless of their satisfaction level. Carvalho and Chambel (2015) found that work-family balance and work well-being served as the serial mediators of the relationship between individuals’ perceived high performance work practices and their subjective well-being. Job performance is related to subjective well-being through the mechanism of burnout in which perceived high performance work system environment fosters high levels of burnout and work-family conflict (the degree of incompatibility of demands between the work and family roles; Chambel, 2015).

2.7 Measuring work well-being

Furthermore, questions have arisen regarding how to best measure work well-being. For example, economists have suggested that individuals’ revealed preferences, that is, examination of individual’s actual choices and decisions, may be the best method to measure one’s well-being (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006). This is commonly mirrored through the use of direct reports of subjective well-being. On the other hand, psychologists have focused more on examining well-being through two mechanisms, namely, hedonic and eudaimonic tone. Hedonic tone focuses on examining affectivity (i.e., PA and NA) in measuring well-being, with the most commonly used scale being called Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Eudaimonic tone emphasises examining a person’s growth and meaningfulness in life. This involves “the experience of one’s purpose or meaning in life” (Fisher, 2014, p. 12). One example of the eudaimonic measurement is The Meaning in Life Questionnaire (Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006). Waterman (2008) argued that in order to measure well-being, both tones are important and should be taken into account. King, Hicks, Krull, and Del Gaiso (2006) proposed that positive affect and
eudaimonic experience of meaning in life were significantly correlated and that PA assumed double roles (i.e., as a cause and an effect) of the short-term experience of meaning. In addition to hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions, Fisher (2014) proposed another dimension of well-being, called social well-being, which involves a person’s social interactions and relationship with others.

Many researchers have investigated aspects of satisfaction and well-being in the workplace. As Fisher (2010) pointed out, there are some concepts that are associated with work well-being, namely, job satisfaction, job involvement, affective organisational commitment, work engagement, positive and negative emotions and moods at work, flow states, intrinsic motivation, thriving, and vigour. In addition to all those positive states mentioned earlier, some researchers also use burnout as measurement, as the absence or low levels of burnout signify a happier state. Job satisfaction is the most common measure used to indicate an individual’s work well-being, with many well-validated measures examining overall job satisfaction and its facets, such as supervisor, pay, and work itself (Fisher, 2014). However, since job satisfaction involves both cognitive evaluations as well as affectivity, critiques have focused on how most job satisfaction measures fail to capture the affective reactions and that its facets are cognitively loaded (Fisher, 2010). Fisher (2014, p. 16) argued “job satisfaction might be considered the workplace analogy of life satisfaction – an important component of subjective well-being, but this is by no means the whole story”.

Organisational commitment is also widely studied in measuring work well-being, which represents the feeling of identification with an organisation’s goals and values (normative commitment), the willingness to stay with the organisation (continuance commitment), and the feeling of being a part of the organisation (affective commitment). Organisational commitment is commonly measured using the Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Second, referring to hedonic and eudaimonic dimensions of well-being, both affect and meanings are used to measure happiness in the workplace. This is manifested
through measuring a person’s affect at work (PA and NA) as well as meaning at work, such as job involvement and work engagement (Fisher, 2014). Last, with regard to the social well-being dimension, a person’s social connection at work is also important in contributing to happiness in the workplace. This is represented through a sense of belonging as well as feeling of appreciation when a person is valued by their supervisor and has a good relationship with their peers (Fisher, 2014).

2.8 Different methods of studying and measurement of work well-being

As Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) studied three different methods used to measure well-being in the workplace context, namely correlational, longitudinal, and experimental; whilst quantitative measures have been widely employed in studying work well-being. Table 2.1 summarises methods and measures of work well-being. However, work well-being has not been qualitatively studied in detail. Therefore, using the Indonesian resources sector for analysis, this current study extends existing research in order to more fully understand work well-being through an examination of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being. Having explored the concepts related to work well-being and how work well-being is measured, studies of work well-being in the resources sector are now specifically discussed.

2.9 Work well-being in the resources sector

The resources sector comprises energy, mining, and oil and gas industries and associated auxiliary services such as construction, infrastructure, and consulting organisations. Working in the resources sector may provide employees with substantial financial rewards while also bringing about significant psychological and emotional strains. As noted by the Australasian Centre for Rural and Remote Mental Health (ACRRMH, 2014), challenges confronted by workers in the resources sector include a fly-in-fly-out (FIFO) roster system, harsh climate, and isolation from family and friends for a period of time. With a high risk of occupational injury and/or death, the resources sector faces labour shortages internationally.
Prior literature has identified poor well-being levels associated with working in the resources sector, such as strong masculinist cultures related to living and working in remote communities, as well as the roster system (Lovell & Critchley, 2010). It is argued that strong masculinist cultures leads to poor mental health and well-being levels. Despite remoteness and the shift work that is demanding, people choose to work for resources organisations due to the financial benefits they offer, such as high wages, increased opportunities, and flexibility to escape the busy city life (Lovell & Critchley, 2010). Further, working in the resources sector (e.g., mining) often involves a special arrangement, called commute mining, more commonly known as FIFO. In their study looking at the impact of FIFO arrangement, Kaczmarek and Sibbel (2008) found that mothers from FIFO families tend to experience difficulties surrounding communication of feelings and emotions compared to families without a FIFO arrangement.

2.10 Work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia

Tambunan (2011) stated that mineral extractions in Indonesia have drawn the attention of foreign direct investors more so than any other industry, with concentrated locations and high import content. These companies are wholly foreign-owned, such as PT Freeport in Papua, a gold mining company from the United States, and Caltex in Sumatra, an oil company from the United States. MNCs have been highly criticised and even protested against by environmental and cultural activists due to their massive exploitation and bad impacts on the environment and local people. Tambunan (2011) claimed that MNCs are poorly integrated with the host country’s economy since they are not linked with local firms, despite the Indonesian government’s efforts in fostering stronger linkages between MNCs and local firms. However, the Indonesian government’s regulations oblige MNCs to allow local firm involvement in their business through subcontracting roles to successfully facilitate capacity building, including in technology, in local firms (Tambunan, 2011).
Based on Indonesian regulations, most oil and gas production in Indonesia is performed by foreign contractors under what is called Production Sharing Contracts (PSC) Arrangements (PWC, 2012). Table 2.2 shows a list of the major crude oil and natural gas producers that act as PSC operators as of January 2016.

Table 2.2: PSC operators in Indonesia (oil and gas producers) in 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>Percentage of involvement in Indonesia (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oil</td>
<td>Chevron Pacific Indonesia</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mobil Cepu Ltd</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pertamina EP</td>
<td>Indonesian state-owned</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total E&amp;P Indonesie</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>China National Offshore Oil Company (CNOOC)</td>
<td>Indonesian state-owned</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Petronas Carigali Ketapang II</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chevron Indonesia Company</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chevron Pacific Indonesia</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas</td>
<td>Total E&amp;P Indonesie</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pertamina EP</td>
<td>Indonesian state-owned</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ConocoPhillips (Gresik) Ltd.</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BP Berau</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Medco E&amp;P Tomori Sulawesi – JOB</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ConocoPhillipsIndonesia</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BP Muturi Holdings</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kangean Energy Indonesia</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Virginia Indonesia Company (VICO)</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


On the other hand, local companies mostly carry out coal production. EIA (2014) noted that PT Adaro is one of the largest local coal producers in Indonesia with a total production of more than 50 million short tons of coal in 2012. Another local Indonesian coal
company called PT Kaltim Prima Coal (KPC), a subsidiary of PT Bumi Resources, owns one of the world’s largest coal mines. Also, there are other big local coal companies such as PT Kideco Jaya Agung, PT Arutmin, and PT Berau Coal. These top six local coal companies are the major coal producers in Indonesia that combined contributed to 75% of total coal production in 2011 (Patersons Indonesian Coal Review, as cited in EIA, 2014).

Multinational resources companies in Indonesia are faced with environmental and socio-cultural issues. An example is PT Freeport Indonesia located in Papua, which is a subsidiary of an American company called Freeport-McMoran Copper and Gold. As of January 1996, The Grasberg Mine in Papua was one of the world’s largest and richest copper, gold, and silver mining sites with an estimated 1.9 billion tons mineral deposits worth US$60 billion. However, deforestation, massive holes on the land, and pollution are among the many damages caused by Freeport’s extensive mining activities. On the other hand, Freeport offers its employees a variety of financial advantages, ranging from high wages to a range of bonuses, and a complete set of well-built and integrated facilities, such as for leisure activities. However, security in Papua and its remoteness pose burdens to Freeport’s employees, although apparently its financial rewards outweigh its shortcomings (Rangan & McCaffrey, 2006). Another example is the bioremediation case of Chevron Pacific Indonesia, where Cochrane (2013) pointed out that the case is concerned with the bioremediation program of Chevron’s drilling facilities in Sumatra, which is still ongoing in Indonesia’s corruption court and has sparked a lot of debate around its reliability and outcome.

The above examples have resulted in negative publicity for the organisations. There is concern with protection of natural resources, which is being neglected by the organisations. Negative publicity is widely known to have negative impacts on consumer behaviour. For example, negative information about a certain organisation causes consumers to rate the organisation negatively, question the organisation’s attitude toward social involvement, and develop negative attitude towards the organisation (Eisingerich, Rubera, Seifert, & Bhardwaj,
2011). As for the negatively publicised organisation, negative publicity entails spillover effects. For example, Dyer and Whetten (2006) found that negative publicity faced by a family firm tends to create a bad reputation for family members. In the case of Freeport, the condition is exacerbated by security issues and life-threatening situations. For example, in April 2011, two Freeport employees were killed after unidentified gunmen shot at the company’s car (Associated Press, 2011). Therefore, negative publicity faced by Freeport and Chevron impacts on employees’ reputation and security, which in turn affects their work well-being.

The earlier quantitative studies suggested that work well-being is influenced by individual or organisational variables, and it might be expected that such factors would also have an impact on expatriate employees in the resources sector. For instance, pay is one important aspect that contributes to job satisfaction, which subsequently may influence overall work well-being. As the resources sector in Indonesia is dominated by male employees, gender may influence an individual’s work well-being. Alesina et al. (2004) found that women were more likely to have higher subjective well-being levels than men, while Oswald and Powdthavee (2008) argued that women did not necessarily have higher subjective well-being levels than men when they faced health problems. Yet, the remoteness of many organisational workplaces in the resources sector and lack of social support female resource sector employees receive (e.g., Lovell & Critchley, 2010), means that working in the resources sector may pose greater challenges for women. Age is an aspect that also may also affect well-being. Prior research found that older people showed higher well-being levels than younger people (e.g., Argyle, 1999) and that negative emotions decline with age (e.g., Charles et al., 2001).

Given earlier quantitative studies suggesting that there may be individual differences in the levels of work well-being due to pay, age, and gender, the current research extends the existing studies to qualitatively explore how social capital is perceived as impacting on
expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Prior studies were conducted in a Western context, but little is known about non-Western contexts, such as Indonesia. Taking into account the shortage of skilled labour in the resources sector, recruitment of expatriate workers is important for resources sector organisations. Yet, since working in a foreign location may result in cultural challenges for expatriates, and this may be exacerbated by the remoteness of the workplace locations, expatriate workers may have lower levels of work well-being levels compared to local employees. Last, it may be expected that head office employees tend to be more content than site office employees as they live in urban areas with better access to entertainment, health facilities, and support mechanisms. Despotovic, Hutchings, and McPhail (2015) found that the urban expatriates benefit more from the presence of expatriate communities/networks, while rural expatriates found those networks may offer contextual misinformation. Taken together, the challenges associated with working in the resources sector may mean that employees, especially expatriate employees, rely more on their social networks, such as their friendships with and support from fellow expatriates, and such social capital may affect their view of their work well-being.

Differences between expatriate employees (such as the ownership type of their employer, gender, age, position, length of stay, prior international experience, nationality, work location) may also affect their use of social capital and their perceptions of how it impacts on their work well-being. Researchers have found that having prior international experience is beneficial for both expatriates and the organisations (Monks, Scullion, & Creaner, 2001). The importance of having prior international experience to expatriates has been studied widely. For example, Reiger and Rees (1993) found that years of work experience significantly contributed to motivation to perform work-related tasks, while previous international experience serves as an important source of information that is important to help reduce uncertainty for the following international assignment (Black,
Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991); and it is important for future cross-cultural competence to adjust to new situations (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010) by allowing expatriates to create strategies to adapt to new situations (Tye & Chen, 2005). Peltokorpi and Froese (2012) argued that prior work experience in the same country positively impacts SIEs’ interaction adjustment. Similarly, Froese (2011) stated that expatriates with prior international experience in the same country (South Korea) were more contented with their degree of social interactions with locals, while Selmer (2002) contended that prior international experience in non-Asian countries accommodates work-related adjustment of Western expatriates in Hong Kong.

Furthermore, length of stay in the host country also influences expatriates’ experience working and living overseas, and this effect might also interact with expatriate prior work experience. For example, Hutchings, Michailova, and Harrison (2013) proposed that female expatriates with prior international experience and longer length of stay in the UAE tend to socialise with other expatriates. Lauring and Selmer (2014) argued that length of stay in the host country positively affected expatriates’ work outcomes, such as work adjustment, work performance, work effectiveness, and job satisfaction. Personal characteristics were also found to be beneficial for working in foreign contexts, such as tolerance for ambiguity and ability to adapt to different norms of behaviour (Tye & Chen, 2005), being culturally adventurous, open to criticism, and flexibility (Spreitzer, McCall, & Mahoney, 1997); while overconfidence (Simon & Houghton, 2003) and hubris (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997) were found to negatively affect a firm’s performance. Chief executive officer (CEO) masculinity, conservatism (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986), and extroversion (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) were shown to have positive implications for organisations. Trait anger is particularly problematic because it can be destructive for the social harmony of the group in international settings (Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006), while Reio and Callahan (2004) argued that trait anger impedes learning, decision making, interpersonal relations, and
performance, especially in stressful environments such as those faced by expatriates. Adding to extant literature, to comprehend the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being, the views of expatriates, spouses, and HR managers will be examined.

In this chapter, prior research into work well-being has been examined, including various related concepts and measures. The limited research that has considered work well-being in the resources sector has also been highlighted. While there is no specific research that has been undertaken to date on work well-being in the resources sector especially, it has been noted that there are environmental concerns in Indonesia that have been raised that may potentially affect work well-being in the sector in this country. In the next chapter, literature on social sciences theories is presented along with the examination of social capital theory.
CHAPTER 3
SOCIAL SCIENCE THEORIES AND APPLICATION TO WORK WELL-BEING

3.1 Introduction
Chapter 2 provided background information about work well-being by highlighting past research on the topic along with related concepts and measurements, and specifics related to this research, namely, expatriation and the resources sector in Indonesia. This chapter will examine social capital theory, which is examined in the research questions, by providing an understanding of how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. The current research develops a new conceptual framework of work well-being that is based on Fisher’s (2014) model of work well-being, while Social Capital Theory (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) is used to explore the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. In this chapter, consideration will first be given to explaining the basis for selecting social theories. Second, different social theories and their relationship to expatriation are highlighted. Third, social capital theory will be examined. Last, an overview of social capital theory in relation to international human resource management (IHRM), and particularly its relevance for expatriates’ work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, will be presented.

3.2 Behaviourist and cognitive schools and social theory
Social sciences have been largely influenced by two different schools of thought, particularly within the field of human resources management (HRM) and organisational behaviour (OB) – the behaviourist and cognitive schools of thought. These two schools use different approaches in understanding phenomena. First, behaviourism is concerned with observing changes in behaviour. Harvey (2015) contended that behaviourists put emphasis on the stimulus-response mechanism (i.e., what responses generate from what stimuli), and argue
that studying observable behaviour is the best method to understand psychological and mental processes. Behaviourism is largely shaped by the work of Pavlov, Watson, and Skinner (Lattal & Chase, 2003).

Pavlov’s work is well known for introducing the notion of classical conditioning, where two stimuli are used in order to condition an anticipated response (Harvey, 2015). In his study, Pavlov conditioned dogs to salivate every time they heard the sound of a bell by creating the association between the bells and feeding time. Watson’s work is famous for posing emotional conditioning on Little Albert, in which Little Albert developed a fear for white furry objects due to the unpleasant loud noise Watson made every time Little Albert reached for the objects. His work was later used for the treatment of phobias. Further, Skinner conducted what is considered as the most important research in the field of behavioural psychology by introducing the notion of operant conditioning, which involves the use of both reinforcement (positive and negative) as well as punishment to alter behaviour. Skinner believed that by providing something that one values when exhibiting a desired behaviour improves the likelihood of the recurrence of that certain behaviour (Harvey, 2015).

Behavioural research has imposed influences on the field of HRM and OB by introducing behaviourist constructs such as impression management constructs (i.e., assertiveness, ingratiating, rationality, coalition formation, upward appeals, and exchange) and rewards (Harvey, 2015). One of the examples that is commonly used within this field includes the application of social learning theory and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Eysenck (1990) stated that cognitive theorists strive to study and detail the processes and structures involved in a complex system of information processing, a process that Stillings et al. (1987) argued included receiving, storing, retrieving, transforming, and transmitting information. Following the development of cognitive theory, a few branches of assumptions arose. Examples are the theory of intelligence (Sternberg & Frensch, 1990),
knowledge-acquisition constraints (Kiel, 1990), and social behaviour (Martin & Clark, 1990). With regard to HRM/OB research, a few relevant concepts arising from cognitive theory include tolerance for ambiguity, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction (Harvey, 2015). An example of a cognitive-based theory within the field of HRM/OB is social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). Next, two particular examples of behavioural theory (i.e., social learning theory and social cognitive theory) and cognitive theory (social comparison theory) are discussed.

### 3.3 Social learning theory and social cognitive theory

Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory offers the theoretical background for the concepts of locus of control and its effects of reinforcement. Social learning theory views that “man is neither driven by inner forces nor buffeted helplessly by environment influences” (Bandura, 1977, p. 2). This view highlights the important roles played by vicarious, symbolic, and self-regulatory processes in learning, and that all learning phenomena arising from direct experiences can take place based vicariously through observation of other people’s behaviour and its consequences for them. Within social learning theory, it is believed that “responses are automatically and unconsciously strengthened by their immediate consequences” (Bandura, 1977, p. 3) and that reinforcement plays a major role in altering an individual’s behaviour. Reinforcement thus mainly functions as informative and an incentive, as well as shows its response-strengthening abilities.

Locus of control can be defined as how an individual attributes the main causes of events in life (Harvey, 2015). If an individual perceives fate, luck, or other external circumstances as a control force, then they show an external locus of control. On the other hand, if an individual believes that his or her personal decisions provide the main guidance for his or her behaviour, then they display an internal locus of control. Moreover, if an individual sees reinforcement as conditional upon personal behaviour, then the emergence of either a positive or negative reinforcement will determine the resulting potential recurrence of
that behaviour under the same or similar situation, in which it may either strengthen or weaken the behaviour. Conversely, the recurrence of an individual’s behaviour is less likely to be strengthened or weakened if they perceive reinforcement as independent of personal control (Harvey, 2015).

When applying social learning theory to the context of expatriation, it is proposed that expatriates will “learn” appropriate behaviours by interacting with and observing host country nationals (HCNs; Johnson, Kristof-Brown, Van Vianen, De Pater, & Klein, 2003). The more interaction an expatriate has with HCNs and the more diverse these contacts are, the wider the array of acceptable actions they will have to draw on. In addition, the development of deep relationships with HCNs might allow the expatriate to be more insightful of cultural or communication norms. The security embedded in deep relationships may alleviate the fear of embarrassment associated with trying new things.

Expanding the notion of social learning theory, Bandura (1986) developed a theory called social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory states that an individual’s behaviour is partly formed and controlled by the impacts of their social network (i.e., social systems) and the individual’s cognition (e.g., expectations, beliefs) (Bandura, 1989). Social cognitive theory defines “human behaviour as a triadic, dynamic, and reciprocal interaction of personal factors, behaviour, and the social network (system)” (Chiu, Hsu, & Wang, 2006, p. 1873). The social cognitive position emphasizes specific theoretical mechanisms, such as self-efficacy, which may contribute to the relation between past and future behaviour.

*Simply asserting that past learning experience begets future behaviour or that a cumulative, non-specific ‘reinforcement history’ is responsible for career outcomes does not provide a sufficient explanation of the means by which prior experience exerts its impact on future behaviour, let alone what factors produced the past behaviour. (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, pp. 86 – 87)*

Bandura (1986) posited a model of interaction coined as “triadic reciprocity” in order to understand the mutual, interacting influences between individuals and their behaviour and environments. In this scheme, (a) personal attributes (e.g., internal cognitive and affective
states and physical attributes), (b) external environmental factors, and (c) overt behaviour (as distinct from internal and physical qualities of the person) all function as intertwining mechanisms that impose bidirectional effects on one and another. Social cognitive theory posits that “people act on their judgments of what they can do, as well as on their beliefs about the likely effects of various actions” (Bandura, 1986, p. 231).

At the core of social cognitive theory, there are two key social components, namely, self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Bandura, 1997); both stem from the concept of locus of control. Self-efficacy refers to “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). These beliefs are argued as comprising the most central and ubiquitous mechanism of personal agency (Bandura, 1989). In the social cognitive view, self-efficacy is seen as a dynamic set of self-beliefs that are exclusive to particular performance domains and implies a complex interaction with another person, behaviour, and contextual factors, as opposed to a passive, static trait. Further, outcome expectations refer to an individual’s beliefs that various positive or negative outcomes will arise as a result of the execution of certain behaviours (Bandura, 1977). Whereas self-efficacy focuses on one’s response capabilities (i.e., “Can I do this?”), outcome expectations deal with the imagined consequences of the execution of particular behaviours (“If I do this, what will happen?”). Bandura (1986) categorised several classes of outcome expectations, such as the anticipation of physical (e.g., monetary), social (e.g., approval), and self-evaluative (e.g., self-satisfaction) outcomes that may importantly affect career behaviour.

Although affirming the dual role of self-efficacy and outcome expectations, Bandura (1986) has argued that these two forms of belief served different roles, with self-efficacy acting as a more influential determinant of behaviour. While outcomes are not strongly linked to the quality of an individual’s performance, outcome expectations may have an independent
contribution to an individual’s motivation and behaviour (Bandura, 1989). Social cognitive theory considers that goals are a significant predictor of the self-regulation of behaviour.

While environmental events and personal history help shape their behaviour, people are seen as more than just mechanical responders to deterministic forces; by setting goals, people help to organize and guide their behaviour, to sustain it over long periods of time even in the absence of external reinforcement, and to increase the likelihood that desired outcomes will be attained. (Bandura, 1989, p. 84)

Thus, humans can transcend the “indefinite but omnific ‘history of reinforcement’” (Bandura, 1986, p. 468) and maintain some control over their own behaviour. A goal may be conceptualised as the willpower to participate in a particular activity or to affect a particular future outcome (Bandura, 1986). “Goals operate principally through people’s capacity to symbolically represent desired future outcomes (i.e., to exercise forethought) and to react self-evaluatively to their own behaviour based on internal standards for performance” (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, p. 85). Goals reach their self-motivating quality by bridging self-satisfaction and goal fulfillment as well as the enactment of behaviour that meets internally set standards. Social cognitive theory proposes the existence of important reciprocal

Social cognitive theory has been employed in a wide array of psychosocial domains (Bandura, 1986). For example, self-efficacy appraisals have received much attention in the career literature. Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994) viewed general social cognitive theory as offering a useful framework to comprehend diverse influences upon career development and, most importantly, to suggest common, central pathways through which these diverse factors influence career behavior. Furthermore, Rehany (1994) argued that by acquiring self-oriented, relational, and perceptual skills facilitated by four components of Bandura’s social cognitive theory (i.e., attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation), can boost expatriates’ adjustment and performance. Frayne and Geringer (1994) found that self-efficacy and outcome expectancy were associated with performance of international joint venture managers, and in turn, self-efficacy is expected to be associated with expatriate performance overseas. The expected outcomes of an overseas assignment play a role in determining a
successful adjustment (Rehany, 1994). If outcome expectations are positive, then the individual will be more likely to apply the knowledge they acquired from the training program and therefore, adjustment may occur more quickly. If an individual believes that the outcomes will largely be positive in nature, then performance should be high. With high positive outcome expectations, an individual is more likely to maximise their efforts to perform.

3.4 Social comparison theory

Social comparison theory argues that individuals tend to make comparisons between themselves and others (with regard to their opinions, abilities, performance, and situation) in the absence of objective criteria. Festinger’s (1954) social comparison theory advocates that individuals look for consensual validation regarding their opinions and behaviours while striving to increase the consistency among various elements of their belief systems. This results in common-attract, which implies that individuals are only attracted to others who share similar values with them (Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004).

There are three motives for social comparison (Harvey, 2015). First, self-evaluation is where we determine our position relative to others. Second, self-enhancement aims to make a downward comparison so that one feels better about oneself, which can be done through: (a) lateral downward comparison – comparing oneself, when he or she is down, to others who are alike; and (b) non-lateral downward comparison – comparing oneself to an individual who is in a worse circumstance. Third, self-improvement aims at mimicking others’ behaviours while learning how they perform well. Moreover, social comparison behaviours are apparent through three actions: social projection, search for information, and utilisation of information (Harvey, 2015). Social projection is evident through the act of estimating how others generally feel, believe, and behave by envisaging comparison targets or assuming how others behave. The act of searching for information is aimed at establishing downward social comparison, which is used to select or seek for information. The act of utilising information
includes seeking a positive example of the area being assessed. Harvey (2015) asserted that when forced to compare with others, an individual may: (a) assume that the information they have as having valid implications, (b) make excuses, or (c) devalue the significance of the area being compared. Individuals make comparisons using two methods that can be either upward or downward looking (Harvey, 2015). Upward (adaptive) looking occurs when one compares his or herself with superior others. Regardless of its challenging effect, upward comparison allows attainment of valuable information from observing superior others. In contrast, downward (hedonic) comparison occurs when one compares his or herself with inferior others (Harvey, 2015). Although this method is regarded as less useful than upward comparison, looking downward offers greater hedonic value by making oneself feel better by comparing his or herself with others who are in a worse situation or condition.

Social comparison theory has been applied to the context of international human resources management. For example, Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, and Ren (2012) investigated the experience of repatriation with regard to repatriates’ identity using social comparison theory. They proposed that “repatriates may experience identity strain because they perceive inequity when comparing their job situation with the job situations of employees without international experience” (p. 411). Further, Ren, Yunlu, Shaffer, and Fodchuk (2015) applied social comparison theory as their theoretical framework in examining expatriates who were thriving. They found that the expatriates’ fulfilment of needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness relative to perceptions of comparison to others play a major role in expatriate thriving. In particular, expatriates with high levels of job deprivation perceptions with regard to competence tend to feel low levels of social worth and are likely to exhibit thriving deprivation in the workplace. Ren et al. (2015, p. 76) continued that many expatriates undertake international assignments because “they can contribute unique expertise to their international assignments, and, in the meantime, they can also develop new knowledge, skills, abilities and international expertise to become more
competent while working overseas”. Therefore, having a sense of competence when compared to their peers is a critical point for expatriates and that it may predict the success of expatriates thriving on their assignments.

Having examined social learning theory, social cognitive theory and social comparison theory, next, social capital theory is examined. Social capital theory best addresses the phenomenon under investigation, that is, work well-being of expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia.

3.5 From social learning theory to social capital theory

Social capital theory (SCT) focuses on the importance of relationships as a resource for social action (Baker, 1990; Bourdieu, 1986; Burt, 1992; Coleman, 1988, 1990; Jacobs, 1965; Loury, 1987). The central argument of SCT is that networks of relationships form a valuable resource for performing social affairs, giving their members “the collectively-owned capital, a credential which entitles them to credit, in the various senses of the word” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249). Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 17) defined social capital as “the goodwill that is engendered by the fabric of social relations and that can be mobilised to facilitate action”. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, p. 243) conceptualised social capital as “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit”.

Within organisational studies, the concept of social capital has received growing attention and is used to explain actors’ relative success across different areas, such as career success (Burt, 1992; Gabbay & Zuckerman, 1998; Podolny & Baron, 1997) and executive compensation (Belliveau, O’Reilly, & Wade, 1996; Burt, 1997), job seeking (Granovetter, 1973, 1995; Lin & Dumin, 1996; Lin, Ensel, & Vaughn, 1981), a richer pool of recruits for firms to recruit from (Fernandez, Castilla, & Moore, 2000), interunit resource exchange and product innovation (Gabbay & Zuckerman, 1998; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998), the creation of intellectual capital (Hargadon & Sutton, 1997; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), cross-functional

Social capital can be found in the relationships and personal networks between and among social actors, and it is formed through exchanges (Bourdieu, 1986; Lin, 2001). Social capital is “a complex and intricate process in which social capital is created and sustained through exchange” (Liu & Shaffer, 2005, p. 237). Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 23) noted that “social capital is the goodwill available to individuals or groups, its source lies in the structure and content of the actor's social relations, its effects flow from the information, influence, and solidarity it makes available to the actor”. Young (2014, p. 38) stated that social capital is a “tripartite phenomena involving cognitive elements (norms and trust), structural elements (associations), and collective action (exchange)” In particular, it can be viewed as the generalised reciprocity embedded in networks marked by trust, which may benefit members of the network when an exchange occurs. Social capital is the combination of networks, norms, and trust. Social capital is not a tangible asset; it is a potential asset resulting from an individual’s involvement in networks or group (Young, 2014).

The core value underlying social capital research is that the goodwill of other people is directed toward us is a valuable resource (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Social capital is inherent in the relations between individuals and among individuals (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), while all social capital forms are characterised by two practices: (a) they represent some aspects of social structure; (b) they assist individuals in taking actions within the structure (Coleman, 1990). Social capital needs maintenance, where social bonds need to be regularly renewed and reconfirmed to maintain its efficacy (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Some forms of
social capital are collective goods as they are not the private property of the individuals who benefit from them (Coleman, 1988). For example, the use of internal, bonding social capital by an individual does not diminish its availability for others, but its use is excludable where others can be excluded from a certain network of relations (Hechter, 1987). There are two main divisions of social capital research: one that points to the source of social capital as being from within the formal structure of the ties that assemble the social network, and the other that emphasises the content of those ties (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Furthermore, Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 17) proposed “the breadth of the social capital concept reflects a primordial feature of social life, namely, that social ties of one kind (e.g., friendship) often can be used for different purposes (e.g., moral and material support, work and nonwork advice)”. Tsai and Ghoshal (1998) viewed social interaction ties as channels for information and resource flows, and that tie strength can be seen as a combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, and intimacy (mutual confiding), and the reciprocal services that represent the tie (Granovetter, 1973).

Coleman (1990) conceptualised social capital as any element of social structure that brings about value and assists the individuals to act within that social structure. Further, Coleman (1990) stated that social capital is formed when the relations among individuals change in ways that assists in the formation of instrumental action, in which this process is similar to the creation of physical capital that involves changes in materials in order to boost production and the creation of human capital that involves changes in an individual’s skills and abilities.

Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001) conceptualised social capital in terms of network structure and social resources. They found that network structure was associated with social resources and that three network benefits (i.e., access to information, access to resources, and career sponsorship) mediated the effects of social resources on career success. The basic data of analysis that social network researchers based their argument on are relationships or ties
(Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). A network refers to the pattern of ties that connects a particular set of individuals or social actors. Each individual can be described in terms of his or her connections with other individuals in the network. Two terms were coined by Knoke and Kuklinski (1982) in order to explain an individual’s position with regard to his or her social network. The first term is called “ego”, which is the focal person who usually acts as the data supplier, while the second term is called “alters”, which refer to the people that the ego is tied to. Next, three approaches to social capital are discussed.

3.5.1 Social capital approaches

There are three different theoretical approaches focused on different network properties that portray social capital: weak tie theory (Granovetter, 1973), structural hole theory (Burt, 1992), and social resources theory (Lin, 1990). The first approach of social capital, weak tie theory (Granovetter, 1973), highlights the strength of the social tie employed by an individual, mainly in the job-seeking process, as well as in a variety of business activities, including providing knowledge and information, and by maintaining, extending and enhancing business and personal reputations (Jack, 2005). Granovetter (1973) stated that ties among members of social cliques tend to be strong (described as emotionally intense, frequent, and involving multiple types of relationships; for example, those with friends, supervisors, and coworkers). Weak ties often act as a bridge between densely interconnected social cliques and thus it serves as a source of unique information and resources (Granovetter, 1973). A central assumption of weak tie theory is that a weak tie is valuable, given its likelihood to serve as a bridge between social cliques more so than a strong tie, therefore helping establish contact for a member with people of different social groups or statuses (Granovetter, 1973, 1982). Thus, an individual who decides to invest their social energy to develop large numbers of weak ties will be more likely to have superior access to social groups other than their own. As Friedkin (1980) suggested, bridging tends to be with weak ties rather than with strong ties.
The second approach of social capital, the structural holes approach (Burt, 1992), focuses on the pattern of relations among the alters in an ego’s social network, as opposed to focusing on the characteristics of an ego’s direct ties. A structural hole is argued to exist between two completely disconnected alters. The structural holes approach posits that it is beneficial for ego to be connected to many alters, who are themselves unconnected to the other alters within the ego’s network. Burt (1992, 1997) argued that networks rich in structural holes offer three primary benefits to an individual; namely, more unique and timely access to information, superior bargaining power and thus control over resources and outcomes, and superior visibility and career opportunities throughout the social system. Thus, Burt (1992, p. 28) criticised the weak tie theory, noting that the structural hole concept addresses the bridging property of ties more directly than the weak tie concept, and thus offers a “stronger foundation for theory and a clearer guide for empirical research”.

A structural hole happens when two alters are not connected to each other (Burt, 1992), and an ego who is connected to two unconnected alters is called a bridge between those alters. Further, Burt (1992) proposed that this structural position offers benefits to ego, in which he or she may be able to perform an exchange of information gathered from one alter to the other. Also, structural hole theory suggests that an alter becomes redundant when they are already connected to other alters within the ego’s network; nor can they deliver benefits to ego as a nonredundant alter can. Seibert et al. (2001, p. 223) noted that, similar to their argument regarding weak ties is “the argument that ego must make the strategic choice either to invest in maintaining a relationship with a redundant alter or to invest in developing a relationship with an alter who is not redundant with other alters in his or her network”. Structural holes tend to be present in the relationships between alters who are members of different social groups, such as those expressed in the functional and hierarchical boundaries within organisations (Burt, 1992; Ibarra, 1993).
The third approach of social capital, social resources theory (e.g., Lin, Ensel, & Vaughn, 1981), highlights the nature of the resources inherent within a network. Lin et al. (1981) proposed that the weakness of a tie alone does not convey an advantage (nor does the bridging property of weak ties). It is in fact likely that such ties tend to extend to an individual with the type of resource needed for ego to fulfill their instrumental objectives, which benefits the individual. An alter can be considered a social resource when he or she owns characteristics or controls resources useful for the achievement of the ego’s goal. For instance, Seibert et al. (2001) stated that alters who offer career development advice and support are the related social resource when an ego is pursuing instrumental career goals. As Seibert et al. (2001, p. 221) put it, Lin et al.'s (1981) research indicated that tie strength was negatively associated with the occupational prestige of the alter contacted (i.e., weak ties extend to alters with higher status) and that the alter’s occupational prestige was positively associated with the prestige of the job made available to the ego (Lin et al., 1981; see also De Graaf & Flap, 1988; Marsden & Hurlbert, 1988). In sum, Seibert et al. (2001, p. 221) concluded that “weak tie theory focuses on the nature of ties; structural holes theory focuses on the pattern of the ties among alters; and social resource theory focuses on the characteristics of the alters contacted”.

According to their conceptual integration, Seibert et al. (2001, p. 221) proposed that “the overarching social capital construct is best thought of as both the different network structures that facilitate (or impede) access to social resources and the nature of the social resources embedded in the network”. In addition, central to all three approaches of social capital is the assumption that social resources inherent in networks offer benefits to actors. Generally speaking, these benefits involve superior and timelier access to information, superior access to financial or material resources, and superior visibility, legitimacy, or sponsorship within a social system.
3.5.2 Forms of social capital

Social capital is a type of capital that emerges from the relationships among individuals (Karner, 2000). Young (2014) stated that the forms and levels of social capital can be affected by individual characteristics (i.e., gender and education level) as well as by macro-level social context. The basic elements of social capital are defined in terms of social resources, contact opportunities, social structure, trust, norms, purposive actions, and networks (i.e., friends, acquaintances, colleagues, and members) (Liu & Shaffer, 2005). All social capital forms are characterised by two practices: (a) they represent some aspects of social structure, and (b) they assist individuals in taking actions within the structure (Coleman, 1990).

Lin (2001) argued that there are four reasons why embedded resources in social networks will promote the outcomes of actions: information, influence, social credentials, and reinforcement. First, these embedded resources aid the information flow (Lin, 2001). For individuals, social ties act as a means to notify an individual regarding available opportunities and choices, and thus inform an organisation and its agent, or a community, about the availability of the individuals. Second, these social ties may pose its influence on the agents (e.g., organisations) who are central in the decision-making process regarding the actor (Lin, 2001). Some social ties carry more valued resources and exercise greater power in influencing the decision-making process regarding an individual. Third, social-tie resources and their known relationships to the individual may be understood by the organisation or its agent as a means to legitimate the individual’s social credentials, “some of which reflect the individual’s accessibility to resources through social networks and relations – his/her social capital” (Lin, 2001, p. 7). Fourth, social relations are assumed to reinforce identity and recognition (Lin, 2001).
3.5.3 Dimensions of social capital

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) described social capital through its three distinct dimensions: structural (the general pattern of connections between actors), relational (the type of personal relationships individuals have developed with each other through a history of interactions), and cognitive (those resources offering shared representation, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties). Nahapiet and Ghosal (1998, p. 244) noted that “structural embeddedness concerns the properties of the social system and of the network of relations as a whole”, which describes the detached pattern of connections between people or units. Further, relational embeddedness refers to the type of personal relationships individuals have established with each other through their account of interactions (Granovetter, 1992). This concept highlights the relations individuals have, such as respect and friendship, which has an impact on their behaviour (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The relational dimension of social capital was defined as those assets created and leveraged through relationships behaviour (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), and which are related to behavioural embeddedness (Lindenberg, 1996) and actor bonds (Hakansson & Snehota, 1995). Key elements in the relational dimension of social capital are: trust and trustworthiness (Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1993), norms and sanctions (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 1995), obligations and expectations (Burt, 1992; Coleman, 1990; Granovetter, 1985), and identity and identification (Hakanson & Snehota, 1995; Merton, 1968). The cognitive dimension refers to the resources that provide shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties (Cicourel, 1973). Factors represented in cognitive social capital are shared language and codes (Arrow, 1974; Cicourel, 1973) and shared narratives (Orr, 1990).

Since social capital is present in relationships, and relationships are formed through exchange (Bourdieu, 1986), Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) stated that exchange is the antecedent of resource combination in social systems; thus, social capital has an indirect effect on combination through the function of exchange. Therefore, Nahapiet and Ghoshal
examined the relationship between exchange, combination, and each dimension of social capital (i.e., structural, relational, and cognitive).

### 3.5.4 The structural dimension

Central to the relationship between exchange, combination, and the structural dimension of social capital is the fact that “the structural dimension of social capital influences the development of intellectual capital primarily (though not exclusively) through the ways in which its various facets affect access to parties for exchanging knowledge and participating in knowing activities” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 251) and that these associations are indirect in nature, through the ways in which structure affects the growth of the relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital.

There are three key points significant to this view: network ties, network configuration, and appropriable organisation. First, network ties is central to the argument that network ties provide access to resources, and that social capital creates a valuable source of informational benefits. Informational benefits take on three forms – access, timing, and referrals (Burt, 1992). Access means getting a valuable piece of information and recognising who can use it, and it highlights the role of networks in providing an efficient information-screening and distribution process for members of those networks. The timing of information flow means the capability of personal contacts to provide information in a timelier manner than when it becomes available to individuals without such contacts. Referrals refer to the processes that provide information on available opportunities to individuals or actors in the network, hence they have an impact on the opportunity to combine and exchange knowledge.

Second, network configuration ties “provide the channels for information transmission, but the overall configuration of these ties constitutes an important facet of social capital that may impact the development of intellectual capital” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 252). For example, three properties of network structure (i.e., density, connectivity, and hierarchy) are all factors related to flexibility and ease of information exchange that function via their
impact on the level of contact or the accessibility offered by them to network members (Ibarra, 1992). Burt (1992) focused on the efficiency of different relationship structures and argued that the sparse network, with few redundant contacts, offers more information benefits since the dense network is less efficient compared to the sparse network considering it offers less diverse information for the same cost as that of the sparse one. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, p. 252) argued that “networks and network structures, thus, represent facets of social capital that influence the range of information that may be accessed and that becomes available for combination”. Last, appropriated organisation that allows social capital to develop in one context, such as ties, norms, and trust, often may be transferred from one social setting to another, thus affecting patterns of social exchange.

3.5.5 The relational dimension

The relationship between exchange, combination, and the relational dimension of social capital focuses on four main aspects, that is, trust, norms, obligations and expectations, and identification. First, Misztal (1996, pp. 9–10) conceptualised trust as the belief that the “results of somebody's intended action will be appropriate from our point of view”. Trust was argued to be multidimensional and that it resembled a willingness to be vulnerable to another party, that is, a willingness arising from confidence in four aspects (Mishira, 1996): (1) belief in the good intent and concern of exchange partners (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale, 1990; Ring & Van de Ven, 1994), (2) belief in their competence and capability (Sako, 1992; Szulanski, 1996), (3) belief in their reliability (Giddens, 1990; Ouchi, 1981), and (4) belief in their perceived openness (Ouchi, 1981). Misztal (1996, p. 10) proposed that "trust, by keeping our mind open to all evidence, secures communication and dialogue", thereby suggesting that trust may serve as an antecedent to both open up access to people for the exchange of intellectual capital and to increase expectancy of value through such exchanges. Also, trust may serve as an indicator of “greater openness to the potential for value creation through exchange and combination”, and that trust and cooperation complement each other in a way
that trust promotes cooperation, while cooperation itself produces trust (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 255). Trust is considered as a set of specific beliefs mainly concerned with the integrity, benevolence, and ability of the other party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Integrity refers to “an individual’s expectation that members in a virtual community will follow a generally accepted set of value, norms, and principles” (Chiu, Hsu, & Wang, 2006, p. 1877). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) argued that with the presence of trust between the parties, they are more likely to participate in cooperative interaction. Second, norms are significant as Coleman (1990) argued a norm exists when the actor does not hold the socially defined right to control an action; hence, it is held by others. The norm of reciprocity is defined as a mutual knowledge exchange that is perceived as fair by the individual (Chiu, Hsu, & Wang, 2006). Reciprocity is conceptualised as “actions that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others and that cease when these expected reactions are not forthcoming” (Blau, 1964, p. 6). Third, obligations and expectations construe that obligations characterise a commitment or duty to conduct some action in the future. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998, p. 256) argued that “exchange brings with it expectations about future obligations”. Last, identification is “the process whereby individuals see themselves as one with another person or group of people” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 256). Bagozzi and Dholakia (2002, p. 11) defined identification as “one’s conception of self in terms of the defining features of self-inclusive social category”. Chiu, Hsu, and Wang (2006) argued that this identification construct is similar to Ellemers, Kortekaas, and Ouwerkerk’s (1999) construct of emotional identification. Emotional identification improves loyalty and citizenship behaviours in the group setting (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000) and thus acts as a resource impacting both the anticipation of value to be achieved through combination and exchange as well as the motivation for combining and exchanging knowledge.
3.5.6 The cognitive dimension

The relationship between exchange, combination, and the cognitive dimension of social capital highlights the argument that intellectual capital resembles a social artefact and that within a social context, knowledge and meaning are always embedded (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The sharing of context is required to facilitate exchange, and there are two main ways for doing so: (1) through the existence of shared language and vocabulary, and (2) through the sharing of collective narratives. Shared language and codes highlight three ways in which a shared language affects the conditions for combination and exchange. First, language poses a direct and significant impact on social relations, as it is the means by which individuals discuss and exchange information, ask questions, and conduct business in society. Second, language affects an individual’s perception (Beger & Luckman, 1966; Pondy, Mitroff, & Pittsburgh, 1979). Shared language may serve as a common conceptual means to evaluate the possible benefits of exchange and combination. Third, a shared language promotes combination capability. Shared language does not only involve the language itself, but it also involves “the acronyms, subtleties, and underlying assumptions that are staples of day-to-day interactions” (Lesser & Storck, 2001, p. 836). Shared codes and language assist in reaching a common understanding of collective goals and the appropriate ways of acting in virtual communities (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). Knowledge advances through the development of new concepts and narrative forms (Nanaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Further, shared narratives suggests that myths, stories, and metaphors may act as powerful means in creating, exchanging, and preserving rich sets of meanings within the communities. Bruner (1990) stated that there are two different modes of cognition: (1) the information or paradigmatic mode and (2) the narrative mode. The former suggests rational analysis and good arguments that underlie a process of knowledge creation, while the latter points out synthetic narratives, such as fairy tales, myths and legends, good stories, and metaphors as the underlying factors. Tsai and Ghoshal (1998, p. 467) stated that a shared vision “embodies the collective goals and
aspirations of the members of an organisation” and that it is considered as “a bonding mechanism that helps different parts of an organisation to integrate or to combine resources”. Cohen and Prusak (2001) suggested that shared values and goals unite the members of human networks and communities together, facilitate the emergence of cooperative action, and eventually benefit the organisations. In addition, another categorisation of social capital also exists. For example, Adler and Kwon (2002) defined different three dimensions of social capital: opportunity, motivation, and ability.

### 3.5.7 Opportunity

An actor’s network of social ties brings about opportunities for social capital transactions to take place (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Despite its significance as a source of social capital, the conceptualisation of networks differs greatly depending on the focus. For those who focus on internal ties (e.g., Brehm & Rahn, 1997; Evans, 1996; Ostrom, 1994; Putnam, 1993), networks refers to “informal, face to face interaction or membership in civic associations or social clubs”, while network theorists posit that in order to understand social capital, a fine-grained analysis of the specific quality and configuration of network ties is necessary (Adler & Kwon, 2002, p. 24). Further, Coleman (1988) argues that closure of the network structure (i.e., the degree that actors' contacts are themselves connected) assists in the creation of effective norms and sustains the trustworthiness of others, thereby reinforcing social capital. Burt (1992) proposed that greater social benefits often emerge as a result of a sparse network with few redundant ties. Extending Burt’s (1992) proposition, Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 24) further argued that:

> if the opportunity to broker the flow of information between groups constitutes a central benefit of social capital, and if, in general, information circulates more within than between groups, then a key source of social capital is a network of ties characterized by many structure holes-linkages (i.e., exist between two completely disconnected alter) to groups not otherwise connected.
Opportunity is also evident in terms of access to resources and information, and according to social capital theory, such access plays a major role in explaining the effect of social capital (Seibert et al., 2001).

3.5.8 Motivation

Motivation is defined as the actor’s intention or incentive to access and activate the social resources present in social structures while the actor is exploiting the available social resources (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Lin, 2001a, 2001b). The idea that motivations do not merely represent a contingency factor but also constitute a direct source of social capital is the base of Putnam’s (1993) assumption that the sources of social capital do not lie only in networks but also rest in norms and trust. Similarly, Leana and Van Buren (1999, p. 542) posited that the sources of organisational social capital reside in trust and associability, which they defined as “the willingness and ability of individuals to define collective goals that are then enacted collectively”.

Moreover, Adler and Kwon (2002) highlighted two different views that argue against this stream of motivation focus. The first view is called the standard rational actor model that assumes that self-interest serves as the common motivation behind all actors. Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 25) noted that “on that assumption, there would be no reason to explicitly consider motivation, and the empirically observed heterogeneity of actors’ motivations would be simply ignored”. The second view, referred to as a strong version of formalistic sociology, assumes that motivation is the effect of network structure (e.g., Burt, 1992), and based on that assumption, explicit attention to motivations are not necessary. However, Adler and Kwon (2002) only used an explicit inclusion of motivation in their model of social capital.

Further, Portes (1998) distinguished the motivation of donors in relations mediated by social capital into two broad classes. The first class is called consummatory, in which motivations are based on deeply internalised norms created through the socialisation process that occurred in childhood, or through experience later in life. The second class is referred to
as instrumental, where motivations are based on norms too, but norms that allow for greater room for rational calculation. Instrumental motivation can be based on obligations arising as a result of dyadic social exchange process (Blau, 1964), or what Portes (1998) termed as enforced trust, where the broader community enforces obligations on both parties. Instrumental motivations are commonly assumed as the drive behind individual and collective actors’ acts, and thus actors are viewed as enriching and utilising social capital to help promote their careers (De Graaf & Flap, 1988; Lin, Ensel, & Vaughn, 1981; Marsden & Hurlbert, 1988) and to survive in the face of competition (Burt, 1992; Pennings et al., 1998), as well as to ease transaction costs (Baker, 1990). However, sometimes social capital can be motivated by normative commitments of a less directly instrumental nature; for example, norms of generalised reciprocity (e.g., Portes, 1998; Putnam, 1993; Uzzi, 1997). This form “transforms individuals from self-seeking and egocentric agents with little sense of obligation to others into members of a community with shared interests, a common identity, and a commitment to the common good” (Adler & Kwon, 2002, p. 25). Further, despite its significance as a source of social capital, confusion remains regarding how norms function in the creation of social capital. Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 26) contended “it is the specific content of the shared norms that determines whether they function as a source of social capital”.

### 3.5.9 Ability

The importance of ability, defined as the competencies and resources possessed by others in the social network, is much debated in the current state of social capital theory (Adler & Kwon, 2002). For instance, Burt (1997a, p. 339) excluded ability as a source, noting that "human capital refers to individual ability, social capital refers to opportunity". Other scholars have argued that abilities are a source of social capital, along with motivation and opportunity. Leana and Van Buren (1999) stated associability as a source of social capital comprised of both the motivation and the ability of a collective to express and perform its
goals. Adopting Putnam’s (1993) work, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) added shared beliefs (i.e., a form of ability) along with norms and trust as sources of social capital. Lin (1999) and Gabbay and Leenders (1999) stated that if social capital is the resource gained from an actor’s network of ties, its significance is dependent on the resources made available to the actor at the other points of this network. Taking into account the importance of ability in the theory of social capital, theorists have tended to divide into two streams. The first stream, called the narrow camp, represented by Portes (1998), states that the abilities at the networks nodes are complementary to social capital. The second stream, called the broad camp, represented by Gabbay and Leenders (1999) as well as Lin (1999), states that the definition of social capital needs to be more extensive and to include ability. Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 26) noted that the narrow camp offers less confusion, while the broad camp posits that:

*if social capital theory were to distinguish as sharply as Portes recommends between the network and the resources at its nodes, social capital would risk becoming a concept with little purchase on reality a kind of “pixie dust” with only virtual, rather than real, causal powers.*

In sum, based on their study on three dimensions of social capital, Theingi, Purchase, and Phungphol (2008) argued that the social structures resulting from social capital are dependent in nature and represent large overlaps, while all three dimensions (i.e., opportunity, motivation, and ability) are related to trust. Also, trust impacts on social capital through boosting possible benefits, mitigating risks, linking opportunity, motivation and ability. A planned strategy to develop an individual’s network structure is represented through building trust. Therefore, trust and trusting behaviours can be considered as vital elements of social capital (Theingi et al., 2008).

Moreover, hierarchy (a ranking system) plays a significant role in social capital. Adler and Kwon (2002) pointed out that hierarchy, as an important dimension of social structure, has an indirect effect on social capital through the formation of the structure of social relations. For instance, “hierarchy also can influence motivations-through its effects on incentives and norms-and abilities-through its effects on authority, resources, skills, and
beliefs” (Adler & Kwon, 2002, p. 27). In the workplace, hierarchy determines employees’ status, which may motivate employees to perform well at work to achieve a higher status.

3.5.10 Benefits of social capital

Social capital can act as an alternative to other resources as well as serve as a complementary to other resources (Adler & Kwon, 2002). For example, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) highlighted the role of other forms of capital in facilitating the development of social capital and found that intellectual capital may itself assist in the development of social capital. Intellectual capital is “the knowledge and the knowing capability of a social collectivity, such as an organisation, intellectual community, or professional practice” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 245). Furthermore, intellectual capital signifies a valuable resource and the ability of action based on knowledge and knowing (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Moran and Ghoshal (1996) posited that all new resources, including knowledge, are developed through two generic processes, namely, combination and exchange. Schumpeter (1934, p. 65) conceptualised combination as the process that lays the foundation for economic development “to produce means to combine materials and forces within our reach”. There are two types of knowledge creation: (1) “new knowledge can be created through incremental change and development from existing knowledge” (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998, p. 248); and (2) new knowledge can be created through a more radical change, what Schumpeter (1934) termed as innovation. Exchange is a prerequisite for resource combination when different parties hold resources, and intellectual capital is both created and dependent upon exchange between the process of combining the knowledge and experience of different parties (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). In sum, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) concluded that new intellectual capital is created as a result of the combination and exchange of existing intellectual resources, which may take the form of explicit and tacit knowledge and knowing capability. Also, there are four conditions that influence the utilisation of intellectual resources and engagement in knowing activity involving combination and exchange. The
combination and exchange of knowledge are complex social processes, and the social context is attired with a significant amount of valuable knowledge (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Lee and Van Vorst (2010) stated that for an individual’s social network to be able to facilitate the creation of capital, the people who are in the network must possess the knowledge and abilities to be of aid. For instance, if an individual requires assistance related to work, the people in his or her social network who are not knowledgeable of his or her work will fail to offer capital. Further, Lin (2001) argued that social capital returns happen in two forms: returns on instrumental action and returns on expressive action. Instrumental return means the acquisition of added resources, or resources that individuals do not possess, such as wealth, power, reputation, or even performance. Expressive return means the conservation of the resources owned by the individuals, such as physical health, mental health, and life satisfaction, and for the purpose of their study, Liu and Shaffer (2005, p. 237) defined expressive return as “expatriate adjustment, which is often defined in terms of psychological well-being”. Providing support for Adler and Kwon’s (2002) proposition, Liu and Shaffer (2005) argued that instrumental and expressive outcomes depend on three general determinants, namely, opportunity, motivation, and ability.

3.5.11 Social capital theory and multinational corporations
SCT was also extended to explain the dynamic of MNCs. For example, Kostova and Roth (2003) argued that the required levels and forms of social capital vary across different models of MNCs, that is, multinational, international, global, and transnational (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Further, Kostova and Roth (2003, p. 297) examined two streams of social capital (i.e., as private or public good) in relation to the function of MNCs, and concluded that MNCs need to build social capital as a private and a public good, “since both can serve as informal mechanisms facilitating the coordination of cross-border activities”, and that, under certain conditions, the public form of social capital may serve more significant functions. As a private good, social capital mainly benefits the individual who owns it (e.g., Burt, 1992),
whereas as a public good, social capital is a feature of successful communities that is
mirrored in trust, reciprocity, and strong social norms that assist in integration and
cooperation and offer effective regulation of social behaviour (Putnam, 1993); social capital
as a public good benefits the whole community and its individual members and it is
accessible to all members of the community.

Incorporating these two streams of social capital, Kostova and Roth (2003, p. 301)
defined social capital as “the potential value arising from certain psychological states,
perceptions, and behavioural expectations that social actors form as a result of both their
being part of social structures and the nature of their relationships in these structures”. High
levels of social capital are represented through a motivation for social actors to maintain
those relationships, a perceived duty to reciprocate past favours of other social actors, a belief
that other social actors will also reciprocate, and an ease of feeling to ask others for resources
and to use those resources once obtained, as well as a confidence in having to provide,
receive, and ask for help from the other social actors. However, when the relationships are
poor, these attitudes and expectations may not suddenly terminate but may create negative
values and promote active resistance to, or even disruption of, cooperative behaviours.

While the importance of social capital to individual job performance has been noted
in the literature (e.g., Boxman, De Graaf, & Flap, 1991; Granovetter, 1974; Kim, 2002), in
looking at the relationship between social capital and business organisations, Yli-Renko,
Autio, and Sapienza (2001, p. 590) asserted that:

the amount of external knowledge a young firm will obtain from the key customer depends on
three aspects of social capital in the relationship: the level of social interaction between the
firms, the quality of the relationship in terms of goodwill trust and reciprocity, and the level
of network ties created through the relationship.

Social interaction refers to the degree of existing social relationships between the focal firm
and the customer (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Larson, 1992; Ring & Van de Ven, 1994).
Relationship quality refers to the degree to which this interaction is characterised by the
development of goodwill trust and expectations of reciprocity (Dyer & Singh, 1998; Larson,
1992; Ring & Van de Ven, 1994). Customer network ties mean the degree of access or introductions to a broader set of customers that are provided by the key customer to the focal firm (McEvily & Zaheer, 1999; Uzzi, 1997).

3.6 Social capital: From its early development within the international human resources management literature to its application to expatriates

The utilisation of a certain formal theory has been lacking in extant literature. In particular, Hutchings and Michailova (2017) argued that the limited use of a formal theory is found in the female expatriation literature. Past research that used a specific theory includes: Janssens, Cappellen, and Zanoni’s (2006) study that utilised agency theory; the utilisation of social role theory in Dupuis, Haines, and Saba’s (2008) study; global dynamic capability theory applied in Harvey, McIntyre, Thompson Heames, and Moeller’s (2009) study; and Hutchings, Michailova, and Harrison’s (2013) study using stereotype theory.

Further, Fischlmayr and Puchmüller (2016) specifically argued that there has been limited research applying SCT in IHRM or career research. The pioneer research started in 2005 with Liu and Shaffer’s (2005) study on social networks, and continued with Taylor’s (2007) study examining the importance of social capital for MNCs, Mäkelä and Suutari’s (2009) study highlighting global careers – which was defined by Bonache, Brewster, and Suutari (2001) as the careers of the people who are assigned to longer-term international careers comprising various international jobs – and Reiche’s (2012) study on inpatriates. As they build and maintain relationships with insiders and outsiders, expatriates can enter the social capital embedded in those networks (Au & Fukuda, 2002). Capital itself can take many different forms, such as economic, human, or cultural capital, and thus, similar to other forms of capital, social capital is a “long lived asset into which other resources can be invested with the expectation of a future flow of benefits” (Adler & Kwon, 2002, p. 21).

Adopting Adler and Kwon’s (2002) theory of social capital, Liu and Shaffer (2005) examined expatriate effectiveness by applying the opportunity, motivation, and ability
dimensions of social capital against three dimensions of expatriate performance, namely, relational, job, and knowledge transfer (Caligiuri, 1997; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). The social capital model posits that social networks and access to information and resources (opportunities), trust and norm of reciprocity (motivation), and host country nationals’ (HCNs) intercultural competencies and reliable task performance (abilities) directly influence expatriate adjustment and performance (Liu & Shaffer, 2005). Although the social capital variables strongly predicted expatriate performance, they were relatively weak in predicting adjustment (Liu & Shaffer, 2005). Lee and Von Vorst (2010) found that motivation moderated the relationship between expatriate co-worker support and general adjustment; motivation also moderated the relationship between HCN’s support and interaction adjustment; while opportunity showed a moderating effect of the relationship between HCN’s support and interaction adjustment.

Adopting Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) dimensions of social capital, McPhail, McNulty, and Hutchings (2016) and McPhail and Fisher (2015) examined coping strategies utilised by lesbian and gay (LG) expatriates in managing challenges they encounter in global mobility. It was argued that lesbian and gay expatriates employ structural social capital, relational capital, and cognitive social capital to cope with the opportunities, challenges and barriers that expatriation brings. Following Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) theory on the dimensions of social capital, McPhail and McNulty (2015) argued that structural dimension of social capital is evident in the utilisation of lesbian gay bisexual transgender (LGBT) networks by LG expatriates in order to determine host country appropriateness both socially and legally. With regard to relational dimension of social capital, McPhail and McNulty (2015) stated that LG expatriates use their perceived levels of acceptance and company support in basing their decision to be visible (in or out of closet). In relation to the cognitive dimension of social capital, McPhail et al. (2016) noted that cognitive social capital is
demonstrated via the shared codes, language, and narratives that assist individuals, couples, and families in the decision-making process associated with expatriation issues.

Similar to the work of McPhail et al. (2016), Fischlmayr and Puchmüller (2016) conducted a study examining a non-traditional form of expatriation. They specifically addressed dual-career families where female breadwinners undertake international business travel. Given their high mobility, women with a more global career are more prone to face a variety of different relationships within and outside their organisation, and as such, improve their social capital as well as their access to networks, which leads them to “rely on their social capital and integrate their spouse, family or friends to support them with childcare, household chores and similar tasks while traveling” (Fischlmayr & Puchmüller, 2016, p. 6). In the same vein, Caligiuri, Joshi, and Lazarova (1999) argued that spousal support plays a major role in female expatriates’ adjustment to international assignment. As Häuberer (2011) put it, these networks serve as a source of mutual understanding, safety and respect while simultaneously act as a coping mechanism to deal with the stress associated with international travelling (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2014). Similarly, Caligiuri and Lazarova (2002) argued that social interaction (i.e., with family, work colleagues, nationals and other expatriates) and social support (emotional, informational, instrumental) are also key determinants of relocation success. Of similar importance is the capacity of spouses to adapt (Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002) because spouses offer expatriates social support that makes spouses a form of expatriates’ social capital.

Further, SCT offers a broad perspective in relation to the IHRM literature. For example, Mäkelä, Suutari, Brewster, Dickmann, and Tornikski (2016) investigated expatriates’ perceived marketability in taking international assignments using the ‘career capital’ framework, which stems from SCT. They argued that the development of three forms of career capital (i.e., knowing how, knowing whom, and knowing why) impact on expatriates’ perceived marketability, as a result of work experience gained abroad (Jokinen,
Knowing how signifies explicit or tacit career-relevant skills, knowledge, and abilities that benefit the employees throughout their career (Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Knowing whom includes intra- and extra-organisational networks, individual reputations, mutual obligations, and information sources owned by the employees (Parker, Khapova, & Arthur, 2009). It comprises the beneficial quantity and quality of social relationships that may boost one’s work and career. Knowing why denotes the motivation behind an individual in pursuing his or her career. Knowing why is associated with the employee’s identity (Cappellen & Janssens, 2008; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994) and personality (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003) and is argued to be tightly linked to the values and interests of individuals and how much investment an individual dedicates to his or her career (Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Parker et al., 2009). Working with unfamiliar and demanding jobs is seen as challenging and resulting in the occurrence of significant learning (Jokinen, 2010; McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott, & Morrow, 1994).

3.7 Social capital theory and the impact of social capital on expatriates’ work well-being in Indonesia

The application of social capital theory to a variety of contexts within the IHRM field has varied through the operationalisation of its key concepts (e.g., Adler & Kwon, 2002; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Although the more recent operationalisation of social capital’s dimensions, as defined by Adler and Kwon (2002), seems to have gained more popularity than Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) social capital dimensions, using the latter dimensions to examine social capital was deemed as better suited to the current research. The rationale for this is that Adler and Kwon’s (2002) dimensions of social capital seem to be more applicable to quantitative studies while Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) dimensions are better suited to a qualitative study. This research employs a qualitative methodology, and given the scope of this research is to examine the individual and social units, Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998)
framework of social capital theory, which focuses on the resources embedded in the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit, will be employed. Like recent studies conducted by McPhail et al. (2016) and McPhail and Fisher (2015), this current research will also employ the use of three dimensions of social capital: structural social capital (networks), relational capital (trust and reciprocity), and cognitive social capital (sense of belonging) (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Particularly in non-Western countries like Asia, relations, social capital, and strategic partnerships determine business success. Consequently, there is a need to learn and understand how social capital can aid economic capital in order to yield the desired outcomes, especially for Western individuals and business organisations (Sorensen, 2015). Thus, SCT is considered more applicable to study the perceptions of expatriates’ well-being in a non-Western country like Indonesia, which is highly collectivist in nature and where social capital is of focal importance. Sorensen (2015) noted that the benefits of social capital are particularly pronounced in Asian contexts, where social and exchange relationships serve as the basis for most business dealings, and where the performance of businesses has been found to relate to their ability to build and maintain durable networks. For example, relationships and social networks are highly valued by Chinese people, where such relationships can improve an individual’s social position, and thus they dedicate significant amounts of time to developing their relationships (David & Derek, 2000). This is also similar in Indonesia; it has been suggested that cultural norms significantly influence managerial practice in Asia (Rhodes, Walsh, & Lok, 2008) as well as diversity in geographical, historical, ethnic, religious, economic, political, and administrative systems (Thorat, 2013). Therefore, it is assumed that business conduct in Asian countries, particularly in Indonesia, is relationship driven. This means that the breadth of one’s relationship determines the success of the business. For example, to secure a business contract, it is important to build a rapport with the client and establish a social relationship that extends outside of the business relationship. However,
prior studies have not examined how social networks (i.e., social capital) also affect work well-being. Thus, the current research extends these earlier studies by examining the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being.

Thus, the overarching research question (RQ) explores:

How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

The structural dimension comprises of network ties, network configuration, and appropriate organisation (Nahapit & Ghoshal, 1998). Network ties allow the individual to gain access to resources and information benefits, as Nahapit and Ghoshal (1998) argue, who one knows influences what one knows. McPhail et al. (2016) argued that network configuration refers to the structures networks form, while appropriate organisation denotes the ability to transfer the social capital comprising norms, trust, and ties from one circumstance to the other. The structural dimension also represents network centrality (Kang, Kim, & Bock, 2010), number of social interactions (Wu, Hsu, & Yeh, 2007), frequent, face-to-face interactions, open and direct communication (Higginson, 2010), number of relations that an individual maintains (McFayden & Cannela, 2004), and direct channels for interaction (Wiklesmann, Wilkesmann, & Virgillito, 2009). Horak and Yang (2016) examined the influence of social networks on expatriate effectiveness in South Korea and found that the expatriates’ inability to become a part of social networks, called Yongo (a distinctive social tie which membership is greatly determined by individual’s birth), contributes to their ineffectiveness, particularly represented in poor performance and adjustment failure. In the context of expatriates in Indonesia, the structural dimension of social capital may be represented through the expatriate community networks and forums as well as the frequency and number of social interactions that an expatriate has with other expatriates and with local people. The social experience is a vital element of living and working in Asia, which has
allowed Australians to expand their global networks as well as brought about opportunities for the advanced practice of public diplomacy (Freeman & Rizvi, 2014).

For expatriates in Indonesia, being a member of an organisation and/or a professional body provides them with a “safe haven” that gives them a sense of security and a feeling of being at home by connecting with other expatriates who are similar to them. This is because community groups or expatriate networks (Despotovic, Hutchings & McPhail, 2015) as well as social interaction (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002) and social ties (Johnson, Kristof-brown, & Klein, 2003) serve as a source of social support for expatriates. An example of structural capital is the use of online forums that connect all expatriates who live in Indonesia in gathering relevant information pertaining to living in Indonesia (http://www.expat.or.id/) and who are a member of a professional business association that connects Australian and Indonesian professionals (Indonesia-Australia Business Council). Also, expatriates may use communication technology to stay connected with Australia, including with family and friends in Australia, through instant messaging and accessing online news sources and news outlets, for which the benefits of these connections are apparent both when Australians are overseas and when they return home (Freeman & Rizvi, 2014).

Other examples involve frequent, face-to-face interaction between an expatriate with HCNs in the workplace as well as open and direct communication between an expatriate and their HCN work colleague. This contact also involves contact between headquarters and a subsidiary (including expatriate employees) that aims to make sure head office-subsidiary consistency with regard to strategy, managerial practices and operational policies (Shay & Baack, as cited in Massingham, 2010). Building networks and having a good number of social networks are vital for expatriates to be eligible to sit in high level positions, such as a CEO (Selmer, Lauring, Zhang, & Jonasson, 2016).

Hsu (2012) argued that relational dimension has been widely researched among the three dimensions of social capital. The relational dimension is comprised of trust, norms,
obligations, and identification (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Mishira (1996) defined trust as the preparedness to be sensitive to others, stemming from confidence of the good intent. Norms form the rules that are agreed upon among individuals and groups, while obligations refer to the expectations from relationships, and identification signifies the way in which an individual understands his or her position with regard to groups or networks (McPhail et al., 2016). Further, of focal importance to this dimension are strong ties (Levin & Cross, 2004) along with close relationship (Taskin & Bridoux, 2010), family ties (Trevinyo-Rodriguez & Bontis, 2010), expressive ties (Zhou, Siu, & Wang, 2010), instrumental ties (Zhou et al., 2010), the strength of relationship an individual maintains (McFayden & Cannella, 2004), and effective mentoring relationships (McNichols, 2010). It may be expected that expatriates will use relational capital in the form of support from their spouse and organisation. Relational capital can also be a close relationship that an expatriate maintains with other expatriates or local people, which is characterised by high levels of trust, group norms, and self-identification.

In the context of expatriates in Indonesia, trust plays a major role in determining a successful business project, and in turn, in determining work well-being of expatriates. Since business dealings are relationship-driven, trust is vital in building good relationships, which also involves business relationship. For example, trust is crucial in securing a business contract, where in Indonesia, a written contract can be replaced by a firm handshake between the two parties. The roles of HR managers in Indonesia are similar to Western developed countries, such as United States, United Kingdom, Denmark and Finland, where HR managers play strategic roles in the organisations (Mamman & Somantri, 2014). The strategic roles include designing some forms of mentoring for their employees, especially expatriates; for example, mentoring from another expatriate, mentoring from headquarters, or mentoring from a local mentor. Establishing a good relationship with host country nationals (HCNs) is vital for an expatriate since HCNs offer social support for expatriates. Van Bakel,
Oudenhoven, and Gerritsen (2017) found that HCNs provided four types of social support for expatriates: social companionship, informational support, emotional support, and instrumental support. This social support offered by HCNs also serves as expatriates’ social capital. Relational capital can also appear in a strong bond that is characterised by a high level of trust between an expatriate and their spouse.

The cognitive dimension consists of shared language and codes and shared narrative, as well as posing the impact on a sense of belonging (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The cognitive dimension also comprises shared visions and systems (Hsu, 2012), shared mental schemes (Taskin & Bridoux, 2010), and organisational value (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006). Codes manage information and serve as the basis of the way the groups function, with problem-solving and decision-making processes to determine their present and future, and to recall their past (McPhail et al., 2016); as well as generate civic virtue and community involvement (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2012). Nisbet (1969) conceptualised narratives as the stories that may serve as a means to share experiences, where meaning is made and on which future decisions are based. In this study, cognitive capital might be utilised by expatriates, for example, through the use of the same technical language in a group of people within the same profession who also speak the same native language (e.g., Bali’s Australian FIFO workers). Another example is a professional body called the Australasian Institute of Mining and Metallurgy (AusIMM), which offers a range of services to professionals working in the global minerals sector, with members from all sections of the industry (http://www.ausimm.com.au/). The AusIMM is internationally well networked and it provides support to their members through a network of branches and societies in Australasia and globally. Cognitive capital also appears in an organisation that shares a common vision; for example, Australia New Zealand Association (ANZA), which is a community organisation that provides support and networking for Australian and New Zealander expatriates, as well as supports the local community social activities (www.anza.org.sg).
In sum, social capital may be expected to play a major role in contributing to expatriate work well-being, as such perceptions of how social capital impacts on expatriate work well-being, specifically in the resources sector in Indonesia, requires further investigation. In order to examine the question from multiple perspectives, the following sub-research questions are examined:

RQa. How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQb. How do spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriates’ work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQc. How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriates’ work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

The next chapter outlines the paradigmatic underpinnings of this study as well as the research design and process by which data were collected and analysed.
CHAPTER 4
METHODS

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the paradigmatic underpinnings for this study as well as to present the research design and process by which data were collected and analysed. This chapter also addresses how this study contributes to existing methods in the area of work well-being by using a qualitative approach that explores the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

The paradigm underlying this study draws on the interpretive assumption that focuses on meaningful social action, socially constructed meaning, and value relativism (Neuman, 2006). This approach implies the use of a subjective experience in creating meaning in everyday life. The research design employed in this study used a qualitative approach in which in-depth interviews were conducted with three different groups of participants (resources sector expatriates in Indonesia, their spouses, and HR managers), and data were triangulated in order to obtain an understanding of the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being from multiple perspectives. The overarching research question (RQ) explored in the current research is: How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia? In order to answer the research question, a qualitative approach was used for the purpose of exploration and understanding of perceptions.

This chapter consists of three sections. The first section outlines research paradigms and concludes with a discussion of the chosen paradigm of the current research, namely, the interpretive research paradigm and qualitative approach to studying social phenomena. The second section outlines the research strategy adopted in this study. It first describes a range of approaches used in studying social phenomena and then concludes with a discussion of the chosen approach used as the data collection technique for this study, that is, semi-structured,
in-depth interviews. The final section provides an overview of the research design and the rationale for organisational selection, data sources, analysis, data collection methods, and analysis. Table 4.1 summarises the research approaches and paradigms discussed in this chapter and those that are specifically utilised in this research.

**Table 4.1: Research approaches and paradigms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Semi-structured in-depth interviews</td>
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<td>Mixed methods</td>
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<td>Paradigm</td>
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<td>Positivism</td>
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<td>Data analysis</td>
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<td>Thematic analysis</td>
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4.2 Epistemology and ontology

King and Horrocks (2010, p. 8) defined epistemology as “the philosophical theory of knowledge”, where the issue of what counts as knowledge overshadows social scientists in formulating criteria to evaluate knowledge statements, or what it is that we assert to know. Epistemology (i.e., how we know what we know) plays a major role in any methodological approach as it acts as a means of determining what counts as knowledge. Further, Marshall and Rossman (2006) termed epistemological integrity to describe the connections between the nature of the research, overall strategy, research questions, design and methods. However, to develop such integrity is effortful and requires a high level of cognitive skills.
It is widely understood that epistemological and ontological issues often arise together, which results in a fairly confusing representation (King & Horrocks, 2010). Therefore, it is important that ontology is being examined when discussing epistemology. Blaikie (1993, p. 6) conceptualised ontology as “the claims or assumptions that a particular approach to social enquiry makes about the nature of social reality”. On the other hand, there are some other scholars who suggest that ontology is better interpreted as the study of being where the focus is on the theory of existence (e.g., Crotty, 2006). Integrating the two views of ontology, King and Horrocks (2010, p. 8) contended that “without a perspective on the nature of social reality – how people might exist in the world – it would be impossible to consider what might count as relevant knowledge in the research process”. For example, the two contesting ontological approaches widely known are (1) an approach that is related to social practices and people as social actors, and (2) an approach that relates to biology, which highlights one’s being in the world as being driven by inherited factors that are located within the individual.

There are two main ontological positions ascribed to researchers, namely, realist and relativist (King & Horrocks, 2010). A realist ontology takes the stand of viewing the real world as being out there and that it exists independently from us. Cause and effect relationships attached to objects and structures are the compositions that make up the world. Thus, natural sciences (e.g., chemistry, physics, biology) are basing their theories on realist ontology, whereas within the social research, quantitative experimental methods are instances that subscribe to a realist view, in which they believe that by using appropriate data collection and analysis, real elements of one’s existence can be revealed (King & Horrocks, 2010). On the contrary, relativist ontology challenges the direct notion of realist ontology, and contends that the world represents a more unstructured and diverse elements. Scholars subscribing to relativist ontology argue that our understandings and experiences are relative to our particular culture and social values, thus it becomes a subject of open interpretations (King & Horrocks,
Relativist ontology views that there are “multiple realities because reality is constructed subjectively in the mind of each person depending on context” (Khalil, 2014, p. 42). Relativism sees society as the product of people interacting with one another, therefore it emphasises social practices and interactive explanations of how people exist and live in their world (King & Horrocks, 2010). Social science mainly employs relativist ontology, which is evident in the qualitative methods.

However, there is also a variation that tries to incorporate realist and relativist approach by combining the strengths of both positions to overcome their drawbacks. This variation is called critical realism, which refers to “a perspective that retains a core element of ontological realism, whereby behaviour and experience are seen to be generated by underlying structures such as biological, economic or social structure” (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 9).

Furthermore, there are two approaches that a researcher can choose in looking at a phenomenon under investigation. These two approaches are called inductive and deductive approaches. Elo and Kyngäs (2008) argued that the inductive approach is used when there is a lack of past studies addressing the phenomenon or when it is fragmented, while deductive approach is better suited to a study aiming to test a previous theory in a different context, or a study that aims to compare categories at different time periods. These differences are later manifested through the great two divisions of social science research, which are illustrated through qualitative versus quantitative debate. Next, this debate is discussed further.

4.3 Research approach and theoretical groundwork

Social science researchers have been divided in respect to whether to utilise qualitative or quantitative methods in research design (O’Leary, 2007). This division signifies the two paradigms that represent two distinct views of the world (King & Horrocks, 2010). Qualitative research is concerned with data associated with words while quantitative research methods are concerned with data related to numbers. In other words, qualitative researchers
do not rely on numbers as the unit of analysis to the extent that quantitative researchers do (King & Horrocks, 2010). O’Leary (2007) suggested that qualitative denotes descriptive findings, whereas quantitative stands for numerical measurements and is least concerned about descriptive characteristics. In addition, there has been a growing use among social science researchers of a mixed method approach. Palinkas, Aarons, Horwitz, Chamberlain, Hurlburt, and Landsverk (2011) argued that mixed method designs are used as a scientific base to provide a better understanding and assistance with implementation. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) pointed out that qualitative methods are used to explore and gain in-depth understanding of why there is success or failure of a particular intervention, as well as to identify strategies in a particular intervention, while quantitative methods are used to test and confirm hypotheses from an existing conceptual model and attain understanding of factors contributing to successful intervention.

Cameron (2009) stated that there are four major mixed methods research design types that are categorised using classifications related to variants, timing, weighting, and mix. The four designs are called triangulation, embedded, explanatory, and exploratory. These designs are explained using the work of Cameron (2009) as follows. Triangulation design is when both quantitative and qualitative phases are conducted concurrently, in which the data are merged during interpretation or analysis. Embedded design is when quantitative and qualitative phases are conducted both concurrently and sequentially, where one type of data within a larger design is embedded using the other type of data. Explanatory design is when quantitative phase is conducted before the follow-up qualitative phase, and in which the findings between the two phases are connected during the interpretation phase. Exploratory design is when the initial qualitative phase is conducted before the follow-up quantitative phase, where the findings between the two phases are integrated during the interpretation phase of the study (Cameron, 2009).
Within the social science field, positivism has been used widely by quantitative researchers as their theoretical approach in studying a certain phenomenon, while qualitative researchers tend to draw from interpretivism (e.g., King & Horrocks, 2005). The positivist position is rooted from epistemological tradition of objectivism, where meaning embedded in objects exists independently from any subjective consciousness of them (King & Horrocks, 2010). Positivists propose that knowledge is value-free and it can be achieved through employing a rigid plan to gather information (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). This implies that quantitative researchers develop general laws or principles in examining particular phenomena that aim to provide objective knowledge that is neutral and free from bias produced by the researcher or research process (King & Horrocks, 2010). Positivists further argue that “a commitment to quantitative precision and an accumulation of facts is the way in which to build a close approximation to a reality that exists independently of human perception” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 23). Positivism suggests that truth can and should be measured by the means of statistics, thus it reduces complex information to numbers and overlooks what is difficult to quantify. This results in an absolute attempt to seek general rules that ignores subtleties or unusual cases (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). For a quantitative study, which operates under positivism, objects and events under investigation exist independently of individuals’ perceptions and thus there can only be one true version. Unlike qualitative study, which believes in the existence of various constructions of events as perceived by the participants, and that each of which is true to some extent, quantitative study rejects this notion.

Holliday (2002) argued that the qualitative approach has been generally, although not always, built upon theoretical perspectives derived from interpretivism. King and Horrocks (2010) proposed that interpretative research is usually idiographic, in which it describes aspects of the social world by providing a detailed explanation of particular social settings, processes, or relationships. Interpretative research tends to focus on revealing how
individuals feel about the world and to make sense of their lives based on their point of
views; therefore, “qualitative interviewing fits; actually conversing with people enables them
to share their experiences and understandings” (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 11).

Rubin and Rubin (2005) noted that the interpretivist perspective has been widely used
in guiding observational and in-depth interviewing projects, and is argued as being a more
appropriate paradigm for many research problems. Interpretivist researchers put emphasis on
the way individuals view an object or event and how they attribute meaning to that object or
event (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Thus, it is expected that individuals see things differently,
examine those things differently, and thus make different conclusions. Interpretive
researchers investigate the specific and detailed views that individuals have toward an object
or an event and seek to build an understanding based on those specific views (Berger &
Luckmann 1967; Charmaz & Mitchell 2001; Gergen 1999; Gubrium & Holstein 1997;
Hammersley 2001).

The interpretivist perspective is considered better suited the nature of this current
research as it does not seek to test hypotheses about cause and effect (Bryman, 2004; Grant &
Giddings, 2002; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006) like a positivist perspective; rather, it attempts
to establish meaning of individuals’ experiences (Mason, 2010; Ryan, 2011). As pointed out
by Neuman (2011), interpretivism allows the researcher to reflect and acknowledge their
feelings while conducting the research, whereas positivism posits that the researcher’s
feelings and insights are irrelevant. Neuman (2011) continued that reflection on the way the
information is collected and presented allows the researcher to enlighten and value the
diversity of experiences the participants display in their day-to-day activities. Also, King and
Horrocks (2010) proposed that interpretivist perspective sees multiple versions of reality
while positivist perspective only considers one version of reality. The current study seeks to
explore, identify, and provide a better understanding of how social capital is perceived as
impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, by taking into
account individuals’ unique perceptions using multiple sources (i.e., expatriates, expatriate spouses, and HR managers). The interpretivist acknowledges individual difference and that trying to impose a standard definition of a certain concept across different individuals is misleading or confusing (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). This view aligns with the nature and purpose of the current study, which triangulates different perceptions of the concept of work well-being across expatriates working in the resources sector in Indonesia, spouses, and HR managers.

4.3.1 Quantitative methods

Neuman (2006) pointed out that in a quantitative approach, the concern is mainly with measuring objective facts, with an emphasis on variables involved in the research, and that reliability of measurement is vital. The research is value free, theory and data are distinguishable, independent of context, employing many cases and subjects, and using statistical analysis in analysing the data. Also, the researcher is detached from the research (Neuman, 2006). Quantitative data provides numbers and statistics for analysing the data (O’Leary, 2007). Creswell (2014) argued that in the quantitative approach, researchers mainly use post-positivist assumptions to develop knowledge, administer experiments and surveys as preferred inquiry strategies, and collect data using predetermined tools that result in statistical data. Neuman (2006) argued that in quantitative research, theory is mainly causal and follows deductive reasoning and that the research questions could be exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory in nature to examine causal theory and hypotheses.

4.3.2 Qualitative methods

Qualitative research is mainly concerned with exploration of particular issues, understanding phenomena, and providing answers to questions under investigation. It is able to be explored in apparent day-to-day activities and daily life, such as simple interactions between people. As Glaser (1992) put it, qualitative methods can be used to unveil the nature of people’s actions and experiences and perspectives that are little known about. For example, Jolly’s
(2011) study explores why human resource development practices in organisations are based on heteronormativity that mostly favours heterosexual employees.

Qualitative research “looks at social life from multiple points of view and explains how people construct identities” (Neuman, 2006, p. 157). For example, Alvesson and Kärreman’s (2007) study sought to understand the HRM system and practices with regard to identity constructions, ceremony, and control. Neuman (2006) argued that qualitative researchers put parts of social life into a larger whole and that theory can be causal or non-causal and follow inductive reasoning. Thus, qualitative research analyses “soft data” (Neuman, 2006), that is, structured and semi-structured information. This can include interview transcripts and recordings, emails, notes, feedback forms, photos, videos, documentary analysis (involving reading amounts of written materials ranging from public records to visual documents), focus groups (in which a group of people are asked about their perceptions, ideas, opinions, beliefs, and thoughts regarding a particular phenomenon), and participant observations (in which the observer participates in the current activities as well as records observations) (Neuman, 2006).

Qualitative research does not depend heavily on numbers and statistics (Neuman, 2006). For instance, to provide in-depth insights in exploring employee perceptions of HRM and well-being, Baluch (2016) used thematic analysis that disseminates words (generated from interview data) and established themes. Neuman (2006) noted that the qualitative approach deals with: (a) social reality and cultural meaning where the research puts emphasis on interactive processes and events; (b) a focus that is placed on authenticity, while values are existent and apparent, and theory and data are diffused; (c) how the research itself is situationally constrained, only involving cases and subjects, using thematic analysis in analysing data, and where the researcher is involved in the research itself. The researcher takes part in the subjects’ lives as they try to experience the subjects’ lives first-hand (Neuman, 2006). Data obtained from this approach are usually open-ended types of responses.
that allow for developing themes from the data (Creswell, 2014). Glaser (1992) argued that in qualitative research, categories may emerge through constant comparisons of incidents and concepts to aptly name the incidents so others will be able to feel the related experience.

### 4.3.3 Limitations of quantitative and qualitative methods

Neither quantitative nor qualitative approaches are free of flaws. Neuman (2006) highlights that quantitative studies use a linear path and focus on objectivity, while qualitative studies, in contrast, are guided by a non-linear path and focus on embedded details of a natural setting or a particular cultural-historical context. Further, quantitative researchers develop knowledge based primarily on post-positivist perspectives characterised by cause-and-effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, employing measurement and observation, and testing of theories (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative researchers employ deductive reasoning with fixed steps leading to data collection. Also, quantitative researchers are likely to work in a backward-forward cycle while the general process follows a single, linear direction. Also, quantitative researchers endeavour to anticipate logical errors when developing hypotheses and in explaining causal relationships. Therefore, the work of quantitative researchers is based on proposed hypotheses and as such is not flexible with respect to new findings, as well as being highly dependent on numbers and as such tends to “turn humanity into cold numbers” (Neuman, 2006, p. 177).

On the other hand, qualitative researchers use less standardised measures or explicit steps and are likely to create a context-specific measurement whereas quantitative researchers use explicit, standardised procedures and causal explanations. Qualitative researchers often make assumptions based primarily on constructivist perspectives with a focus on the multiple meanings of individual experiences, socially and historically constructed meanings, and the intention to develop a theory or pattern (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative researchers do not always follow fixed steps in their data collection process and thus, the study design is developed during the early data collection phase (Neuman, 2006). As pointed out by Neuman
(2006, p. 152), qualitative research works in a nonlinear research path that “makes successive passes through steps, sometimes moving backward and sideways before moving on”.

Moreover, Neuman (2006) argued that in reality, qualitative researchers tend to work at a slower pace because their inductive reasoning requires a slow, flexible evolution towards a specifically targeted phenomenon. Qualitative research is time consuming and less scientific as it depends solely on subjective reflections without the use of research variables and tested hypotheses (e.g., Neuman, 2006).

4.3.4 Mixed methods approach

Taking into account the flaws of both quantitative and qualitative approach, it has been argued that the mixed method approach offers an accurate and thorough examination of certain phenomenon as well as an effective analysis of study results. However, a mixed method approach is complex to operate as it requires the researcher to possess both quantitative and qualitative skills and knowledge. Also, conducting a mixed method research may be time consuming and costly as it involves administering both quantitative and qualitative studies. Therefore, a mixed method approach may be better suited to very large-scale projects. Further, Creswell (2014) acknowledged that a challenge with this approach is how to correctly integrate the data gained from the first phase with the data from the second phase, during the interpretation phase. Having discussed the three different research methods (quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods). Table 4.2 below summarises the advantages of using each method.
Table 4.2: Advantages of using qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages of qualitative approach</th>
<th>Advantages of quantitative approach</th>
<th>Advantages of mixed methods approach</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Exploring particular issues</td>
<td>a) Measuring objective facts</td>
<td>a) Combines both qualitative and quantitative methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Understanding phenomena</td>
<td>b) Value free</td>
<td>b) Accurate and thorough examination of phenomena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Providing answers to questions under investigation</td>
<td>c) Theory and data are distinguishable</td>
<td>c) Effective analysis of study results</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Day-to-day context</td>
<td>d) Independent of context</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) Unveil the nature of people’s actions, experiences and perspectives which are little knows about</td>
<td>e) Employ many cases and subjects</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) “Soft data” analysis</td>
<td>f) Statistical analysis</td>
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4.3.5 Choice of qualitative approach

Despite its shortcomings, the qualitative method is considered as most appropriate for this current research. Specifically, this research seeks to more thoroughly understand the perceptions of expatriates, spouses, HR managers of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Given the nature of this research, which explores how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being, the current research employed an exploratory qualitative method, which was mainly concerned with discovery (Jupp, 2006) as well as to increase understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. The study utilised semi-structured, in-depth interviews with three groups of participants: expatriate employees in the resources sector in Indonesia, expatriates’ spouses; and HR managers.

In this study, the interview data from the three groups of participants were triangulated in order to obtain understanding of how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being from multiple perspectives. Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, and Marteau (1997) argued that triangulation is a strategy that can be used to address the issue of reliability and validity of a qualitative research. Triangulation can be manifested in
four different forms, as suggested by Denzin (1978), where it can involve a variety of data sources, various theoretical perspectives to interpret a single set of data, several methodologies to examine a single phenomenon, and different researchers or evaluators. Nevertheless, King and Horrocks (2010) noted that the claim that triangulation improves the validity of a qualitative research still remains debatable. Some scholars consider triangulation as the best way to prevent the intrinsic shortcomings of individual methods (e.g., Patton, 1990), whereas others remain dubious about the extent to which perspectives obtained from multiple methods or sources within a single study can be incorporated (e.g., Mays & Pope, 2000). In this study, the three groups of participants are expected to offer three differing perspectives: (1) expatriates offer their own perspective of the impact of social capital on their own work well-being; (2) expatriate spouses provide independent, personal views of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being; (3) HR managers offer their organisational-level views of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being.

Another way to address the validity and reliability of a qualitative research is by the means of inter-rater reliability. Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, and Marteau (1997, p. 597) suggested that “assessing inter-rater reliability, whereby data are independently coded and the codings compared for agreement, is a recognised process in quantitative research. However, its applicability to qualitative research is less clear”. Responding to this, Lombard, Snyder-Duch, and Bracken (2002) proposed the importance of assessing the validity and reliability in a qualitative research by specifically using “intercoder reliability”, as opposed to the quantitative term of “inter-rater reliability”, as a qualitative reliability measurement. Intercoder reliability refers to the degree to which more than one coder independently categorises material similarly to peer researchers (Vaismodi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013). In this study, intercoder reliability was used in the data analysis to improve the reliability of the study approach (see Cavanaugh, 1997).
4.3.6 Semi-structured interviews

There are generally three categories of qualitative interviews: unstructured, semi-structured, and structured interviews (e.g., Crabtree & Miller, 1992). Most unstructured interviews originate from the ethnographic tradition of anthropology (e.g., Gilchrist & Williams, 1992) and are used together with observational data (Adams, McIlvain, & Lacy, 2002). On the other hand, structured interviews follow a predetermined set of interview questions. As the name implies, semi-structured interview sit in between these two categories (i.e., unstructured and structured interviews). Semi-structured interviews usually serve as the sole data source for qualitative research (Adams et al., 2002): “… scheduled in advance at a designated time and location, organised around a set of predetermined open-ended questions, with other questions emerging from the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee/s” (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

Semi-structured, in-depth qualitative interviewing is the most popular interviewing format among qualitative researchers (Krogh & Lindsay, 1999), and the interview can take place with an individual within groups of interviewees (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Semi-structured interviews involve in-depth conversations between interviewer and interviewee, with the overall purpose being stimulated by the research aims, with steps mainly guided by the interviewee’s perceptions, opinions, and experiences (Carrington & Graham, 2001). This format allows the interviewer to delve deeply into social and personal matters when conducting an interview with an individual, while when conducting group interviews it offers the interviewer a wider range of experiences of participants (Chirban, 1996; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Semi-structured interviews are selected as a means of data collection for two main reasons (Barriball & While, 1994). First, a semi-structured interview suits research aimed to explore the perceptions and opinions of participants regarding complex and sometimes sensitive issues and lets the researchers probe for more information and clarification of answers. Second, “the varied professional, educational and personal
histories of the sample group precluded the use of a standardised interview schedule” (Barriball & While, 1994, p. 330). In addition, semi-structured interviews offer the researcher flexibility to focus on issues that are meaningful to participants (Barbour, 2000), allows for diversity of perceptions to take place in the interview as opposed to being restricted by standardized or expected response categories (Mascha & Boucher, 2006; Petalas, Hastings, Nash, Dowey, & Reilly, 2009), and minimises the control that the researcher has over participants’ expression of their experiences (Brewin, Renwick, & Fudge Schormans, 2008).

However, questions remain about the validity and reliability of semi-structured interviews (Brink, 1989). Barribal and While (1994) conducted research to address the issues of validity and reliability of a semi-structured interview and concluded that semi-structured interviews are the best method for the purpose of exploring perceptions and needs among a diverse group of participants. This may be attributed to the superiority of semi-structured interviews compared to other methods. Unlike a questionnaire survey, a semi-structured interview is likely to yield better response rates (Austin, 1981), is a best fit to explore attitudes, values, beliefs, and motives (Smith, 1975), and offers the researchers a chance to evaluate the validity of the respondent’s answers through the observation of non-verbal indicators, especially when dealing with sensitive issues (Gordon, 1975). Also, it assists with comparability by making sure that the respondents answer all the questions (Bailey, 1987), and it does not let the respondent obtain assistance from others while formulating a response (Bailey, 1987).

Due to the nature of this study, which is to explore individuals’ perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, semi-structured, in-depth interviews were well suited this research. The rationale for choosing this method was due to the following: (1) a semi-structured interview suits the aim of this research, which is to explore the perceptions of participants regarding the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia; and (2) it
offers the researcher flexibility to focus on issues that are perceived as meaningful by the participants (Barbour, 2000) and allows the emergence of a diversity of perceptions (e.g., Mascha & Boucher, 2006) by reinforcing that participants express more of their own experiences (Brewin et al., 2008).

4.3.7 Development of interview questions

The interview questions were divided into three sections. The first section required interviewees to provide some personal demographic information. The second section included questions relating to the understanding of the concept of work well-being, while the third section dealt with in-depth, open-ended questions regarding social capital, its use, and how it is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being. The questions used in the interviews for expatriates, expatriate spouses and HR managers are included in Appendices A, B, and C.

For the purpose of this study, demographic information about expatriates that was collected and examined included: position, age, gender, country of origin, native language, relationship status, work location, length of service, prior work experience, prior international experience, years of expatriation, length of stay in Indonesia, and education. For spouses, the demographic information collected was as follows: gender, age, country of origin, marital status; number of children, and native language. The demographic information collected from HR managers included: length of service with their current organisation, position, number of employees in Indonesia, number of expatriate employees in Indonesia, number of remote sites in Indonesia, headquarter location, age, gender, and education. Some of the demographic variables were developed based on questions used in prior quantitative studies that suggested that there may be individual differences in the levels of work well-being due to: (1) pay, which is argued as having a significant impact on job satisfaction (Luthans, 1998).
that subsequently impacts on work well-being; (2) age (Argyle, 1999; Charles et al., 2001); and gender (Alesina et al., 2004; Oswald & Powdthavee, 2008).

4.3.8 Pilot interviews

In order to test the reliability of the interview questions, a pilot study was conducted. Oppenheim (1996) pointed out that a pilot study aims to test the reliability of the language used for each item in a questionnaire in respect to whether it is understandable or not. This pilot study was conducted with two participants. The access to these participants was gained through two different means: participant 1 was accessed through a personal contact while participant 2 was contacted through a website for the worldwide expatriate community called InterNations (www.internations.org).

This pilot study consisted of two interviews with participants, detailed as follows: (1) an Australian repatriate who used to work in the mining industry in Indonesia, and (2) a Malaysian expatriate who is currently working in the health service industry in Indonesia. The selection of these two participants was based on the criteria that they were either: (a) have been/ currently working in Indonesia, or (b) had been or were currently working in the resources sector in Indonesia. Although they did not meet the exact criteria of targeted population set by the researcher, for the purpose of the pilot study, they were deemed quite representative with responses that complemented each other.

Participant 1 provided realistic views of the hardship and challenges associated with working in the resources sector since he used to work in remote sites in Indonesia. Unfortunately, he communicated a retrospective account since he has now repatriated back to Australia and he left Indonesia around 20 years ago. Therefore, participant 1’s account may not represent the current situation in Indonesia. On the other hand, participant 2, who is currently working in Indonesia, offered a more up-to-date insight and discussed current issues of working as an expatriate in Indonesia. Although participant 2 was not currently working in
the resources sector, he provided valuable knowledge about the challenges and work well-being of expatriates in Indonesia.

The results of these two pilot interviews confirmed the validity and reliability of the language used in the pilot questions. There was no issue associated with the language of the interview questions, in that both participant 1 and participant 2 could interpret the questions correctly. Therefore, no corrections or revisions were made to this set of interview questions.

4.4 Research design and collection

This section outlines the research design for the current research, including: country and the unit of analysis, target sample, procedure and access, qualitative interviews, sample, and ethical issues.

4.4.1 The unit of analysis

The unit of analysis for this study was expatriate employees in the resources sector in Indonesia, spouses, and HR Managers. Each group (expatriates, spouses, HR managers) offered unique insights to this study, which were based on their own perspectives, by providing differing responses as to how they perceived social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being. As the main focus of this study, the first group (i.e., expatriates) was central to understanding of the key issues in this study. The expatriates provided their own account of their work well-being in Indonesia and how they perceived social capital as impacting on their work well-being. The spouses offered their own account of what they understand the expatriates and their spouses’ work well-being in Indonesia to be, and the spouses’ understanding of what the expatriates’ social capital is as well as its use and impact on the expatriates’ work well-being. The HR managers, on the other hand, imparted a different point of view where they spoke for the organisational level. As representatives of their organisation, the HR managers discussed their view of the work well-being of their expatriate employees, the extent to which expatriates use their social capital in the workplace,
and their perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate employees’ work well-being.

4.4.2 Target sample

The population is expatriate employees and HR managers who work in the Indonesian resources sector for either an MNC or a local organisation, as well as the expatriates’ spouses. For the purpose of this study, only oil/gas and mining organisations as well as auxiliary industries were studied. Given the nature of the resources sector, each organisation has both a head office and site offices. The head offices are mostly located in Jakarta while site offices are located in more remote areas, such as Borneo, Sumatera, or Papua. The sample included male and female, middle-senior level employees, working either at head office or a site office who consented to participate in the study. The sample selection was based on the qualification of standards set by the researcher, such as the nature of the industry, organisational ownership, and position, which in this study is operationalised by oil/gas and mining organisations as well as auxiliary industries, MNC, or local ownership, and middle-senior level employees. Since the targeted sample would be analysed as multiple groups, it was expected to have a minimum of 50 interview participants (see Saunders & Townsend, 2016).

4.4.3 Procedure and access

In order to find appropriate organisations in Indonesia, contact was made with the Director/CEO of one of Indonesia’s biggest recruitment companies, Potentia HR Consulting. Potentia HR has a number of clients in the resources sector, in both MNCs and local organisations. Given their long and comprehensive list of clients across the industry, ranging from manufacturing, consumer goods, media/entertainment, construction, mining, and oil and gas, it was expected that Potentia HR would be able to assist the researcher in providing access to the resources sector organisations in Indonesia.
A purposeful sample was employed using data gained from Potentia HR. The researcher used professional network contacts to gain access to Potentia, and the Director of Potentia HR also utilised professional networks to provide research access to organisations including both MNCs and local organisations in the resources sector, as well as auxiliary industries, in Indonesia. Once these contact details were provided by Potentia HR, the researcher approached the HR managers of the organisations directly and asked them to participate in the study. Arrangements for when to conduct the interview were then made. Upon completion of the interview, the HR managers of the selected organisations were then asked to provide access to the middle-senior level expatriate employees. The researcher then contacted the expatriate employees directly to invite them to participate in the study and arrangements were subsequently made about how and when to conduct the interviews at the participants’ convenience. The expatriates then had the option to provide the researcher with access to their spouses. That is, some of the expatriates who agreed to participate in this study also recommended their spouses to take part. Since organisations in the resources sector commonly have at least two different locations (a head office and a site office), the interviews were conducted via means of face-to-face (for head office employees) and Skype video call (for site office employees as well as for some head office employees who were unavailable to meet in person).

Given the limited number sample gained from Potentia HR, the researcher’s own personal and professional networks as well as snowball sampling (i.e., asking the existing study participants to suggest future participants from among their acquaintances) were used. The researcher received assistance in recruiting participants from an Australian government representative in Indonesia, Trade Investment Queensland (TIQ). TIQ is an official government body that helps connect investors, exporters, and buyers from Queensland. Utilising the researcher’s own personal network, a recommendation to contact the TIQ Jakarta office was given by an acquaintance who used to work for TIQ. He then forwarded
TIQ Jakarta Commissioner’s contact details. The researcher directly contacted the TIQ Commissioner and sent him an email pertaining to information about the nature and purpose of the research. As a follow-up, a Skype video call was conducted to discuss more about the research and ways in which TIQ could provide assistance in providing access to the potential participants, which in this case were predominantly Australians.

Due to the downturn of the resources sector, gaining enough numbers of participants for this study was found to be challenging. The researcher also had to use other means of personal and professional networks to recruit participants. The range of approaches used to gain participants were as follows: (1) using social media platforms and discussion forums such as LinkedIn and InterNations to advertise the invitation to participate in the research project, and to send direct messages to the target population; (2) joining professional expatriate/expatriate spouse groups, such as the Australia New Zealand Association (ANZA); (3) participating in events organised by the Indonesia-Australia Business Council (IABC) and Australia-Indonesia Business Council (AIBC); (4) attending events held by a worldwide community for expatriates and global minds, called InterNations, to establish contacts with expatriates and their spouses, and in turn to recruit them to participate in the research project; (5) using assistance from a professional business association, such as TIQ, as well as from “gatekeepers”; and (6) using the snowball sampling technique. Table 4.3 below summarises the types of access used to recruit individual participants.
Table 4.3: List of participants and their access points

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Access</th>
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</table>
Table 4.3 shows that the participants in the research were mostly Australians. This could be attributed to the geographical proximity between Indonesia and Australia, which contributes to the high mobility between the two countries. Australia is also a major player within the mining industry in Indonesia with many established offices across Indonesia. In addition, the researcher received tremendous assistance in recruiting participants for this study from TIQ’s commissioner, who acted as a “gatekeeper”, and provided access to Australian resources sector expatriates in Indonesia. Saunders (2006, p. 49) defined gatekeepers as “individuals who have the power or influence to grant or refuse access to a field or research setting”. Nevertheless, efforts to recruit more participants from a more diverse background was also made using the snowball technique as well as utilising personal contacts. Several attempts were made for this purpose: (a) first attempt was made to directly contact the individuals via phone call and/or email; (b) second contact – a courtesy reminder by phone and/or email was then made to those individuals who did not respond to the initial contact; (c) final contact by phone and/or email was made to those who had not responded to the second contact. These three attempts were not very successful as they yielded a low response rate.

Another point to note (shown in Table 4.3) is that all the HR managers were Indonesians. This is due to the regulations set by the Indonesian Minister of Manpower and Transmigration (Kepmen 40/2012) which states that a range of positions related to career, personnel, and industrial relations within the human resource department (officer, supervisor, advisor, manager, and director) can only be filled by Indonesian nationals (Depnaker, 2012). Consequently, this prohibits expatriates from working within the human resources departments.
4.4.4 Interviews

The interviews were expected to take about an hour for each participant from all three groups (expatriate employees, expatriate spouses, and HR managers), although some completed the interview in 30 minutes while others were of 2 hours in duration. The interviews were all conducted in English, with the exception of the HR manager group, where some Indonesian language was also used in the interviews. For the interviews conducted in Indonesian language, these were translated to English and back translated to Indonesian language (see Brislin, 1970).

Following the completion of each interview, the interview data were transcribed. Transcription is the process of transforming recorded material into text and, as such, usually marks the start of the analysis of interview data (King & Horrocks, 2010). Cridland et al. (2015, p. 81) emphasised the importance of transcribing, which is “an integral component to the data analysis process, reflecting on what participants discuss as well as issues they do not discuss in interviews, and having multiple researchers involved in the analysis and interpretation of data”.

The data transcription was done by four different transcribers, which included the researcher herself, four independent transcribers, and a professional transcription service. Both the independent transcribers and professional transcription service offered a confidential and accurate service with good credibility, as shown by their clients’ recommendations. The independent transcribers were contacted through two different websites that offer a variety of services provided by individuals (www.fiverr.com) and (www.freelancer.com), while the professional transcription service was contacted directly through their official website (www.mastertranskrip.com).
4.4.5 Sample

The total numbers of interviews in this study were 58, with participants consisting of 43 expatriates, 7 HR managers, and 8 expatriate spouses. Table 4.4 summarises the sample of this study and their demographic information.

4.4.6 Ethical issues

The research was conducted in accordance with ethics requirements of the participating university. Ethical approval was sought from the university’s Ethics Committee (EHR/17/14/HREC) following the confirmation of candidature seminar (Appendix G).

Participants provided with an information sheet and required to complete a consent form. Also, the participants were advised that their participation was voluntary, that they could withdraw from participation at any time, and that they were assured of anonymity as pseudonyms for companies and individuals are used in the thesis and any publications arising out of the thesis.
Table 4.4: List of participants and their demographic information

<p>| No | Industry | Group | National | Position                      | Gender | Age group | Rship status | Native language | Highest education | Years current org | Years resourc es | Years Indone sia | Years expat |
|----|----------|-------|----------|-------------------------------|--------|-----------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | General operation manager    | M      | ≥ 56      | Single       | Eng             | High school      | 12               | 43              | 26             | 33            |
| 2  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Director                      | M      | 46–55     | Married      | Eng             | Master’s degree  | 2                | 26.5            | 11.5           | 14.5          |
| 3  | Mining   | Expat | Eng      | President director            | M      | 46–55     | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 7                | 24              | 24             | 24            |
| 4  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Consultant director          | M      | 36–45     | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 1                | 3               | 4              | 6             |
| 5  | Mining   | Expat | German   | Associate director CEO/ director| M | 26–35 | Married | Eng | Bachelor’s degree | 7 | 7 | 0.4 | 5 |
| 6  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Project manager               | M      | 46–55     | Married      | Eng             | Master’s degree  | 2.5              | 20              | 2.5            | 9             |
| 7  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | President director            | M      | ≥ 56      | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 0.5              | 16              | 30             | 40            |
| 8  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | President director            | M      | ≥ 56      | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 12               | 15              | 6              | 10            |
| 9  | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Director                     | M      | 36–45     | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 2                | 30              | 11             | 15            |
| 10 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Principal mining engineer     | M      | 46–55     | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 12               | 15              | 6              | 10            |
| 11 | Mining   | Expat | Indian   | CFO                           | M      | 36–45     | Married      | Hindi           | Master’s degree  | 4                | 10              | 15             | 15            |
| 12 | Mining   | Expat | Eng      | Director                      | M      | 46–55     | Single       | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 4.5              | 16              | 4.5            | 4.5          |
| 13 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Director                      | M      | ≥ 56      | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 3                | 40              | 26             | 30            |
| 14 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Tech service manager          | M      | 26–35     | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 4                | 10              | 4              | 6             |
| 15 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Director/ CDO                 | M      | 36–45     | Married      | Eng             | Master’s degree  | 13               | 25              | 18             | 18            |
| 16 | Mining   | Expat | Eng      | Director/ CFO                 | M      | 46–55     | Married      | Eng             | Master’s degree  | 12               | 12              | 19             | 19            |
| 17 | Mining   | Expat | US       | COO                           | M      | 36–45     | Single       | Eng             | Bachelor’s degree| 3                | 15              | 18             | 21            |
| 18 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Commissioner                 | M      | 36–45     | Married      | Eng             | Master’s degree  | 2.5              | 16              | 12             | 12            |
| 19 | Mining   | Expat | Indian   | President director            | M      | 46–55     | Married      | Tamil           | Bachelor’s degree| 8                | 8               | 25             | 25            |
| 20 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Project manager               | M      | ≥ 56      | Married      | Eng             | Master’s degree  | 1.5              | 35              | 26             | 29            |
| 21 | Mining   | Expat | Aus      | Director                      | M      | ≥ 56      | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor (hons.)  | 4.5              | 34              | 26             | 32            |
| 22 | Mining   | Expat | Eng      | Director                      | M      | ≥ 56      | Married      | Eng             | Bachelor (hons.)  | 4.5              | 34              | 26             | 32            |</p>
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Note: # refers to number in order of expatriate participants’ interviews.
4.5 Data analysis

In qualitative research, the processes of data analysis and interpretation are often overlapping, yet they are conceptually distinct processes (Cridland, Jones, Caputi, & Magee, 2015). Particularly, Van den Hoonaard (2002) stated that qualitative analysis involves the breaking down of data while qualitative interpretation offers a new way to understand the data without manipulating or changing the original data. For the purpose of this research, thematic analysis was employed due to lack of previous studies dealing with the phenomenon (i.e., the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being), and therefore the coded categories are directly determined by the text data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Thematic analysis is commonly described as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 79) and it is generally seen as an independent qualitative descriptive approach (Vaismoradi, Turunen, & Bondas, 2013). Thematic analysis aims to analytically examine narrative materials of life stories by breaking the text into small units of content and applying descriptive treatment on them (Sparker, 2005).

King and Horrocks (2010) outlined three stages of conducting a thematic analysis, namely: (1) descriptive coding, (2) interpretive coding, and (3) defining overarching themes. First, the descriptive coding stage aims to identify the parts of data transcripts that may be significant to address the research question. The focus of this stage is to attempt to describe participants’ interests, rather than attempting to interpret their meaning. King and Horrocks (2010) argued that there are three steps needed to be taken in this descriptive coding stage: (a) read through the transcript to familiarise with its entirety without trying to code it; (b) highlight anything that may aid your understanding of the participant’s views, experiences, and perceptions with regard to the research topic, and write a brief comment about the highlighted text and what is of its interest; (c) use preliminary comments in defining descriptive codes to stay close to the data and to avoid speculating or interpreting anything related to psychological theory. Second, interpretive coding focuses on the interpretation of
codes by trying to define codes that are beyond relevant features of participants’ accounts (King & Horrocks, 2010). This is done by grouping together descriptive codes that are considered to share some common meaning, and by creating an interpretative code that amasses it. Last, defining overarching themes aims to identify several overarching themes that describe key concepts in the analysis that are built upon “the interpretative themes, but are at a higher level of abstraction than them” (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 156). At this stage, theoretical ideas can be drawn directly from any theoretical ideas or applied concerns that are thought to underpin the research and which are supported by the analysis so far. It is important to limit the number of overarching themes based on the data capacity.

4.5.1 NVivo analysis

For the qualitative data analysis, NVivo version 11 was utilised, NVivo 11 offers powerful search, query and visualisation tools for assessing detail. Qualitative data analysis requires the search for meaning in text, audio or visual files, and software analysis helps researchers to discover patterns, identify themes, glean insight, and eventually deliver educated and vigorous findings. NVivo is used by researchers across different fields of study, such as humanities, education, evaluation and sociology, marketing, customer care, and tourism. NVivo is also considered user-friendly software that does not require extensive formal training prior to use (QSR International, 2014).

Purwohedi (2012) outlined nine steps in NVivo data analysis that were used in this specific study, as detailed in Table 4.5 below.
Table 4.5: Steps in NVivo data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Conducting the interviews</td>
<td>Selected expatriates working in the resources sector in Indonesia along with spouses as well as HR managers of the respected organisations are interviewed, and the interviews are recorded using a digital audio recorder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Writing or transcribing interviews</td>
<td>The interviews are transcribed in a word-processor file for further analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Editing interview transcripts</td>
<td>Involves making some corrections if needed, such as irrelevant materials being deleted (jokes, laugh, repetitive answers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Coding</td>
<td>Includes attaching keywords or tags to interview transcripts and documents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Categorising and connecting data</td>
<td>Categorisation and connection of relevant data are made using comparative analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Memo writing</td>
<td>Using data from coding sections as well as the categorising and connecting data phase, reflective comments are used for the purpose of further and more in-depth analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Content analysis</td>
<td>Involves counting coding frequencies of each relevant issue associated with work well-being, from categorical subject level (expat and local HR managers, MNC and local organisations).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Theory building</td>
<td>A theory is built based on the conceptual framework and data analysis. The findings are developed as knowledge bases for assumptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Graphic mapping</td>
<td>Graphic maps are drawn to illustrate the relationship between each concept to explain findings. The trends from all the interviews conducted are summarised and then the researcher develops factors and concepts associated with work well-being.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In conclusion, this chapter has presented paradigmatic underpinnings for this study as well as the research design and process by which data were collected and analysed have been highlighted. In the next chapter, the findings and analysis of the qualitative interviews will be discussed.
CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This study explores how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. In doing so, this study examines the overarching research question (RQ): “How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in Indonesia?” The data analysis process in this study involved identifying patterns and recurring issues within the data and examining, relating, and grouping them into themes. This also included examining perspectives of the three groups of participants, namely, expatriates, spouses, and HR managers. This chapter presents the findings from the study, which involved interviews with 43 expatriates, 8 expatriate spouses, and 7 HR managers.

First, this chapter examines the background context of working in Indonesia and experience in Indonesia from the perspective of resource sector expatriates. This section also explores the spouses’ experiences and challenges they face in Indonesia, as well as HR managers’ opinions about their expatriate employees’ perceptions of working in Indonesia. Second, the participants’ understandings of the concept of work well-being in general, and work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia in particular, are presented across 10 major themes: job attitudes, affect, benefits, social aspect, work atmosphere, security, eudaimonic or intangible rewards, work aspects, work-life balance, and organisational factors. Third, this chapter outlines the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia by examining four major themes associated with social capital: structural dimension, relational dimension, cognitive dimension, and types of support. Each of these four major themes is comprised of three subthemes. The structural dimension consists of social network, contact with headquarters,
and value in increasing networks subthemes; the relational dimension comprises of good relationship, trust, and collegiality subthemes; the cognitive dimension consists of shared vision, clear goal, and common challenges subthemes; and types of support include formal, informal, and self-sufficient subthemes.

Frequency tables are used to describe the major findings that show the number of participants who mentioned particular issues, from the most frequent to the least frequent. In order to provide more understanding of the issue, individual comments, representative of the views of the majority, are also presented in the following discussion. In addition, conflicting views, where applicable, are also included. To ensure anonymity, each participant was assigned his or her own unique individual code (as detailed in Table 4.4 in the Methods chapter). For instance, Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01 refers to Oil and Gas Expatriate number 1 interviewed in the group, while HR-Mining-01 means HR Manager Mining number 1 interviewed in the group, and Spouse-Auxiliary-01 means Spouse Auxiliary number 1 interviewed in the group, and so forth.

5.2 Background motivation
This section discusses the factors that motivate expatriates to undertake an international assignment in Indonesia, to work for their current organisation, and to choose to work in the resources sector. To gain a better understanding from an organisational point of view, HR managers were also asked these questions. However, expatriate spouses were not asked these questions as they may be less related to spouses’ experiences. The key motivating factors reported by the participants included the opportunities, personal reasons, meaningful challenges, background education, social connections, benefits, intangible rewards (eudaimonic aspect), passion, and organisational factors. A summary of the motivating factors for working as a resource sector expatriate in Indonesia, as explained by the expatriate group, is provided in Table 5.1 below.
Table 5.1: Motivating factors to work as an expatriate in the resources sector in Indonesia: Views of expatriates and HR managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expatriates’ motivating factors to:</th>
<th>Key issues</th>
<th>Total (N = 50)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Expat (n = 43)</td>
<td>HR manager (n = 7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Join current organisation</strong></td>
<td>Opportunity</td>
<td>14 (32.6%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational factors</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
<td>4 (57.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fondness of the work and its challenges</td>
<td>9 (21%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social connections (including job offer)</td>
<td>8 (18.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Benefits, including intangible rewards (eudaimonic)</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal reason and background</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indonesia factors (attractiveness)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expatriate to Indonesia</strong></td>
<td>Company transfer</td>
<td>17 (39.5%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Opportunity</td>
<td>12 (27.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social connections</td>
<td>11 (25.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal reason</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indonesia factors</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work in the resources sector</strong></td>
<td>Opportunity</td>
<td>21 (48.8%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal reason</td>
<td>8 (18.6%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>7 (16.3%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Background education</td>
<td>5 (11.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>2 (4.7%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Where figures do not add up to the total number of participants it is because some participants mentioned multiple issues.
The main motivating factor that was frequently mentioned across expatriate and HR manager groups is the opportunity that arises from their current job in the resources sector in Indonesia. When speaking about what motivated expatriates to join their current organisation, opportunity was the most cited reason given by expatriates \( (n = 14) \), while most HR managers \( (n = 4) \) mentioned organisational factors, such as good reputation and good organisational system, as being the main motivating factor for expatriates to join their current organisation. Opportunity ranged from tangible reward, such as the presence of monetary rewards, to the availability of the job. For example, Expatriate-Auxiliary-08 explained:

... the obvious one is money to come away and higher salary than when you were back home and when I graduated there was not a lot of work in Australia.

This finding is in line with a HR manager’s account, HR-Auxiliary-01, that acknowledges more appealing opportunities as the main reason why expatriates work for their current resources organisation. He noted that “all (expatriate) employees want to look for another challenge, experience, and opportunity”.

The second most frequently mentioned motivating factor \( (N = 10, \text{ including } 6 \text{ expatriates and } 4 \text{ HR managers}) \) was organisational factors. This involved organisation reputation as well as the existence of well-integrated organisational system that ensures fairness and provides support to their employees. For example, Expatriate-Mining-15 said:

... when I moved here ... and first time in Indonesia ... obviously the reputable Australian company was very important... I did have feedback that it was a good company from peers.

While confirming his employee Expatriate-Mining-15’s account, HR-Mining-01 also added several other factors that may attract expatriates to join his organisation. This ranged from a highly comprehensive internal system to better packages and also organisation reputation:
It is a company with a system that is really comprehensive ... everything is also system-based ... package is also good, even until now we are really strong in terms of system of remuneration benefit ... good environment for people to work (in) ... then the reputation is also another thing and the brand.

The third most frequently cited reason by expatriates \((n = 9)\) was fondness for the work and its challenges, such as the passion that expatriates have toward their work and excitement that the work brings about. As Expatriate-Auxiliary-03 mentioned:

*I liked the type of work that they did, I enjoyed engineering, I enjoyed the challenges ...they do very interesting work ... very interesting clients.*

A number of expatriates \((n = 8)\) also mentioned social connections as being the reason for joining their current organisation. Social connections included the relationship or interactions expatriates have with the people from their current organisation. For instance, Expatriate-Auxiliary-07 said:

*In 2015 my position was redundant so I was looking for another position ... this organisation had done some drilling for my previous company ... they approached me to see whether I would like to take on the role.*

Another motivating factor mentioned by a small number of expatriates \((n = 3)\) and half of HR managers \((n = 3)\) was the benefits gained from working for the current organisation. Interestingly, all three expatriates mentioned the intangible rewards (or what this research termed eudaimonic aspect) they gained from their work, such as helping other people grow, while all three HR managers emphasised financial benefits that expatriates received, such as higher salary, better package, and more chances for promotion. For example, Expatriate-Mining-04 talked about internal satisfaction: “... the ability to help transform companies ... to become quicker, faster, more flexible ... to help the people within the company to be happier”; while HR managers talked about financial benefits, such as “... the opportunity to have a better package ... the leadership [development], they (expatriates) become managers here. (HR-Mining-02).
Further, a few expatriates (n = 3) mentioned personal reason and background. This includes family ties and personal background, such as Expatriate-Mining-30’s account of his family happiness: “… my wife desired to return to Indonesia … so if I can live in a place where my wife and children are happy”.

Last, some HR managers (n = 3) mentioned Indonesian factors as being one of the main motivating factors for expatriates to join their organisation. This issue was only raised by HR managers, while none of the expatriates cited this issue. These Indonesian factors range from the beautiful Indonesian scenery to friendly Indonesian people. For instance,

... a lot of expats, especially Australians, they love so much working in Indonesia ... we have expats who have worked and stayed here for 10 to 15 years because they really like to work and stay in Indonesia.

Although company transfer was reported by expatriates and HR managers as the most frequently mentioned motivating factor to expatriating to Indonesia (N = 20, including 17 expats and 3 HR managers), the finding overall indicated that the majority of expatriates were self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (n = 26) on the grounds of opportunity arising (n = 12), the existence of social connections (n = 11), and personal reason/s (n = 3); while a lesser number of expatriates (n = 17) were initially assigned expatriates (AEs). These 17 AEs later decided to stay in Indonesia and proactively looked for a job, hence, they became SIEs. Expatriates were sent to work and look after the business unit in Indonesia. For instance, Expatriate-Mining-17 explained:

... so (my employer) said ‘Have you heard of Indonesia?’ and I said ‘No’ and they said, ‘Well, you’re going to go and work there now.’

Half of HR managers (n = 3) also confirmed company placement: “[it is an internal recruitment] because from Indonesia we never advertise a position for external” (HR-Mining-05).
Further, opportunity \((n = 12)\) was also cited by expatriates as one of the main reasons to expatriate to Indonesia. This includes the availability of jobs and job offer. For example, Expatriate-Mining-19 said: “I saw then this job in the newspaper … I got the job … just by chance.” A number of expatriates \((n = 11)\) also mentioned social connections \((n = 11)\) as one of the motivating factors to work in Indonesia. Social connections may create job opportunity as it leads to job offers, such as: “When we worked in PNG … and my previous boss (said that) he’d like us all to join in a new joint venture in Indonesia” (Expatriate-Mining-01). A small number of expatriates \((n = 3)\) also mentioned personal reasons, such as family ties and connections with Indonesia. For example, Expatriate-Mining-03 stated: “predominantly was because of my father … coming from a mining family … the culture of Indonesia that attracted me to become more involved”.

Moreover, about motivating factors for expatriates to work in Indonesia, some HR managers \((n = 3)\) also talked about Indonesian factors, and a small number of HR managers \((n = 2)\) discussed expatriate benefits. Indonesia factors included physical elements of Indonesia, such as tropical weather, economic growth, as well as more specific aspects related to work (i.e., work atmosphere). For instance, HR manager HR-Mining-03 explained: “[economic] growth is happening in this part of the world, if you compare with Europe, there is nothing there, in America basically they are stabilising”. The benefit that expatriates get from working in Indonesia ranges from better packages and higher salaries to other privileges such as VIP treatment and a better lifestyle. For instance, HR manager HR-Mining-04 commented:

*Salary, better package. Low living cost, compared to their home country, and sometimes in our culture when we hire expats, we respect expats more than we do to local staff, so that also attracts them.*
As for motivating factors to work in the resources sector, the availability of opportunity \((N = 23, \text{ including 21 expats and 2 HR managers})\) to work within the sector was the most cited issue. The availability of jobs in the resources sector, and the limited number of jobs available in other industries, along with the past mining boom, have made working in the resources appealing to expatriates. For example, Expatriate-Auxiliary-01 commented:

\[I \text{ actually wanted to be a pilot ... but a lot of airlines were shut down ... because I had an engineering degree ... [I] try my luck into (resources sector) ... the money was good, the work was good.}\]

HR Manager HR-Mining-04 also added about the past glory of the mining industry, “… in 2001 until 2010 mining was booming … they have better package than other industry”.

Some expatriates \((n = 8)\) and one HR manager \((n = 1)\) also mentioned personal reasons that motivated expatriates to work in the resources sector. This included family ties, personal upbringing, and family value. For instance, Expatriate-Mining-02 mentioned his engineer brothers, “I have three older brothers, two of them did engineering … the other did mining”, while HR manager HR-Oil and Gas-01 spoke about her expatriate employees’ family background:

\[... \text{ they grew up in the oil industry, mining industry. Based on their CV, it is clear that they grew up in a resource-rich town, such as San Ramon, an oil town.}\]

A number of expatriates \((n = 7)\) and one HR manager \((n = 1)\) said that expatriates are passionate about and have always wanted to work in the resources sector. Expatriates genuinely enjoy their work and challenges of their job. As Expatriate-Mining-29 stated: “I thoroughly enjoyed geology and I wanted to be a geologist … that has always been my pleasure and my ambition and my professional goal is to work in exploration geology”; while HR manager HR-Mining-02 emphasised an expatriates’ passion in sharing their knowledge with host country
nationals: “Expatriates want to share their experience in mining to Indonesia … they want to develop … and help our country (Indonesia).”

A smaller number of expatriates ($n = 5$) referred to their background education as the key reason to work in the resources sector, such as having an engineering degree, “… qualifications in mining and foundation engineering opened up the opportunity to work here … I had specific qualification” (Expatriate-Mining-21); and only two expatriates ($n = 2$) and almost half of HR managers ($n = 3$) emphasised the benefits expatriates gain from working in the resources sector. It is known that the resources sector offers better package (i.e., salary, entitlements, facilities, and insurance) compared to other industries, while the opportunity to work in a FIFO system offers a better work-life balance. For instance, Expatriate-Mining-22 said, “the reality is … getting paid in a decent job is overwhelming particularly for a man because you’re going to … be a breadwinner … it is always practical to get paid” (M-22). From a HR manager perspective, the FIFO roster system is also a main attraction to work in the resources sector:

... FIFO roster system. Expatriates have work-life balance... for example 5:2 roster, 5 weeks on site and 2 weeks back to family...that is a good timeframe to be with their family...it is a life balance for them...to refresh their minds, refresh their souls and returning fresh to work. (HR-Mining-01)

5.2.1 Experiences and challenges faced in Indonesia

Both expatriate and spouse groups expressed that there are challenges living in Indonesia that were predominantly related to difficulties in adapting to Indonesian culture, as well as the negative impact of Jakarta’s traffic on individuals’ well-being, including expatriate work well-being. However, the expatriate and spouse participants generally noted that their experience in Indonesia was a positive one for expatriate work well-being despite the challenges of the context. All expatriates managed to
overcome most of the challenges they faced in Indonesia and thus all expatriates enjoyed their work in Indonesia. This is also in line with HR managers’ accounts, which suggested that none of the expatriate employees had ever expressed concerns about significant challenges that they faced in Indonesia. For instance, participant HR-Mining-05 explained that his expatriate employees never expressed to him any significant issues working in Indonesia and that it seemed to him “they are coping well and enjoying themselves” in Indonesia. Table 5.2 provides a summary of key issues associated with expatriates’ and spouses’ experiences in Indonesia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiences in Indonesia</th>
<th>Total (N = 51)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expat (n = 43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Challenges</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging culture</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor physical facilities</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsupportive government regulation and bureaucracy</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different lifestyle</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive aspects</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture/people</td>
<td>21 (48.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits (financial and non-financial)</td>
<td>13 (30.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>9 (20.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 Experiences in Indonesia

Note: Where figures do not add to the total number of participants it is because not all participants commented on the issue.

The spouses (N = 8) and expatriates (N = 43) expressed challenges such as finding the culture challenging to adapt to, poor physical facilities, unsupportive government regulations and bureaucracy, and exposure to a different lifestyle. First, the spouses (n = 5) and expatriates (n = 4) talked about the challenging Indonesian culture, such as highly religious people who appeared resistant to interacting with foreigners, the Indonesian work ethic, the sense of injustice and corruption, and a
resigned attitude (acceptance value). For example, the language barrier was found to be challenging for expatriates, including verbal and non-verbal language, such as gestures displayed “in body language, yes means yes, yes means no sometimes” (Expatriate-Mining-01) by local Indonesians. Also, Indonesians are highly religious and tend to devote significant amount of time to prayer, which may interfere with their work. This was mentioned by participant Spouse-Mining-07, who also made a remark about sexism in the culture:

*The biggest challenge is Indonesian work ethic is not the same as Australian work ethic ... I can be a little bit intolerant of things like Ramadan because I think they get paid double that month and they work a quarter of ... these are things that I find more annoying than challenging ... having to tell Indonesians more than once how to do things. Normally in Australia you tell people once this is what I expect you to do and here sometimes it can be 20 times and they still don’t understand and these are people who do speak English so it is not a language (barrier) thing, it is more of a cultural thing.*

Moreover, many of the spouses (n = 5) and a small number of the expatriates (n = 4) also mentioned poor physical facilities in Indonesia, such as the lack of outdoor facilities and the infamous Jakarta traffic. Given its overpopulation issue, Jakarta, in particular, is lacking outdoor facilities, such as free parks or outdoor sport venues, and this is exacerbated by the traffic, which makes going to places challenging considering the time it takes to travel from one place to another. As Expatriate-Mining-18 noted:

*If the traffic in Jakarta doesn’t make you crazy, there is something wrong. It just never really affected me, I used to get frustrated and [feel like] beating people up and go mad hit their car, smash their head but then you realise there is nothing you can do, you just go with the punches.*

Further, the spouses (n = 4) and expatriates (n = 4) reported that the unsupportive government regulation and bureaucracy involves issuing permits, such as a work permit, as well as the complex bureaucratic process particularly for the spouses, who are not allowed to undertake any paid employment in Indonesia due to
restrictions. For example, as mentioned by an expatriate spouse, “it is just the red tape on the bureaucracy in Indonesia just makes me cry” (Spouse-Mining-02). This has been found to be challenging for spouses, while for expatriates the Indonesian government has posed challenges and difficulties for them to carry out their job or to meet their objectives. As noted by an expatriate, “[if] the government would get out of my way I could help a lot more” (Expatriate-Mining-30).

Last, a spouse (n = 1) and some expatriates (n = 3) discussed the exposure to a totally different lifestyle from what they were accustomed to, such as Indonesian tradition and poverty, which creates a huge gap between the rich and the poor. For example, as cited by an expatriate spouse, “I often get frustrated with the gap in the society” (Spouse-Mining-06). Indonesia is a very social place and requires people to socialise with other people, in person, and to rely on their social circle. For instance, expatriates tended to ask for an advice from their older expatriate friends in order to gather information, as noted by an expatriate: “Indonesia is a bit old school … everything here kind of relies on word-of-mouth” (Expatriate-Mining-05). This information relates to tips or suggestions on how to perform expatriates’ day-to-day activities as well as to deal with work-related issues. The lifestyle, collectivism, and the scarcity of information influences expatriates living and working in Indonesia, which in turn also affects expatriate work well-being.

In spite of the challenges discussed above, relocating to Indonesia was found to be beneficial to expatriates and spouses, in particular to expatriate work well-being. It offered both expatriates and spouses (n = 22, including 21 expats and 1 spouse) a chance to experience a different culture and meet new people, and provided expatriates and spouses (n = 18, including 13 expats and 5 spouses) with financial and non-financial benefits, and for the expatriates (n = 9) to be in a country that is rich in
natural resources. First, as reported by the expatriates and spouses, Indonesian people were said to be friendly, patient, and willing to learn, while the relationships formed in Indonesia were said to be more genuine than they had found in other parts of the world. In turn, this allowed expatriates to be successful at work, and hence have higher work well-being. Also, the Indonesian culture and people are respectful of the elderly, which is seen as an attraction of Indonesia; for example, as mentioned by an expatriate spouse, “it is a part of the beauty of Indonesia, they respect elderly … the beauty of Indonesia, people and tradition” (Spouse-Mining-06). This is especially true for older expatriates, who felt respected and appreciated by Indonesian employees, more so than if they were in their home country. For instance, an older expatriate emphasised, “Indonesians respect their elders … I am 73, I have got engineers work for me” (Expatriate-Mining-14).

Second, relocating to Indonesia also offered benefits for the expatriates and spouses, which includes both financial and non-financial benefits, such as allowing expatriates a chance for a career step-up along with a better package. For example, as noted by an expatriate spouse, “he [my spouse] has been promoted in his job quite frequently” (Spouse-Mining-15). Relocating to Indonesia also provided the expatriates with international exposure to working in a foreign country with a different culture, as noted by a spouse: “We get more experience living in a different culture” (Spouse-Mining-15). As for the spouses, it provided them with a better lifestyle, as the cost of living in Indonesia is pretty low with a low income tax rate, which allows them to have helpers. For instance, as mentioned by Spouse-Mining-15’s partner, “… there is tax benefits … cheaper living costs … the ability to have help, to find help for your wife or for other things” (Expatriate-Mining-15). This lifestyle was found to be beneficial for the spouses as they have more personal and
couple time, since the household chores are taken care of by the helpers, which contributes positively to expatriate well-being, and in turn impacts on expatriate work well-being.

Finally, when speaking about Indonesia’s potential as a country with abundance of natural resources, only expatriate participants mentioned this issue as one of the benefits of relocating to Indonesia, while spouses did not talk about this particular point. Indonesia is rich in natural resources, especially in coal and oil and gas, which creates employment in this sector and has created more opportunities for business within the resources sector. This, in turn, has contributed to expatriate work well-being as it supports the survival and sustainability of their business, and thus expatriates feel secure, which is crucial for their work well-being. As Expatriate-Mining-03 explained:

*You’re in the market which has gone through an incredible growth spurt ... So Indonesia has become one of the largest exporters of coal in the world ... a lot of investments ... huge employment opportunities.*

In this section, expatriates’ background motivation and experiences in Indonesia have been discussed. The main motivating factor that expatriates mentioned to undertake their current employment was the opportunity to work for their current organisation as well as the lack of opportunities to work in different industries. Also, company transfer has been mentioned as the main motivating factor to work in Indonesia. When talking about their experiences in Indonesia, most expatriate and spouse participants indicated challenges they faced in adjusting to Indonesian culture, particularly in dealing with language barriers, which in turn hindered expatriates in undertaking their work. In contrast, Indonesian culture has also been reported as the most positive aspect of relocating to Indonesia. Indonesian culture, which pays respect to the elderly, along with its friendly people, was said to be satisfying, which
aids expatriate work well-being. Next, participants’ understanding of expatriate work well-being in Indonesia is presented.

5.3 Expatriate work well-being

The concept of work well-being is generally perceived by the participants of this research as consisting of what this research categorised as job attitudes, affect, benefits, social aspect, work atmosphere, security, eudaimonic or intangible rewards, work aspects, work-life balance, and organisational factors. There is, however, an insignificant difference between the perceptions of what constitutes expatriate work well-being in general and specifically in the context of Indonesia. The aspects of work well-being in general is more of the ideal conceptions of work well-being as perceived by the participants, whereas expatriates’ work well-being in Indonesia is the reflection of the actual experience of expatriates work well-being, specifically in the context of the resources sector in Indonesia. Table 5.3 summarises aspects of work well-being as mentioned by the participants in frequency of occurrence of each key issue in descending order.
Table 5.3. Aspects of work well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work well-being aspects</th>
<th>Expat (n = 43)</th>
<th>Total (N=58)</th>
<th>HR manager (n = 7)</th>
<th>Spouse (n = 8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job attitudes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>22 (51.2%)</td>
<td>4 (14.3%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion, engagement, and commitment</td>
<td>15 (34.9%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job performance</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affect (positive and negative)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>18 (41.9%)</td>
<td>4 (57.14%)</td>
<td>4 (50%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>17 (39.5%)</td>
<td>4 (57.14%)</td>
<td>4 (50%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-financial</td>
<td>5 (11.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social aspect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>20 (46.5%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social aspect (including language)</td>
<td>17 (39.5%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work atmosphere</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work atmosphere</td>
<td>18 (41.9%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work environment</td>
<td>17 (39.5%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work condition</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical elements of the office</td>
<td>2 (4.7%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
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<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and psychological</td>
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<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of control, state of mind</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eudaimonic aspects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth</td>
<td>13 (30.2%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible rewards and contribution to others</td>
<td>9 (20.9%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help other people grow</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work aspects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges of the job</td>
<td>13 (30.2%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job role</td>
<td>11 (25.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work-life balance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>8 (18.6%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational factors</td>
<td>8 (18.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good system and organisational stance</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Each participant may have mentioned multiple themes and sub-themes, hence it yielded on more than 100% total for each major theme.
5.3.1 Job attitudes

There were three key issues related to job attitudes that emerged from the interviews that were mentioned by many of the participants ($N = 28$, including 22 expats, 2 spouses and 4 HR managers). These issues were job satisfaction, job performance, and passion, engagement, and commitment. Most participants talked about job satisfaction ($N = 19$, including 15 expats, 2 spouses, and 2 HR managers) when asked about their understanding of the concept of work well-being.

Job satisfaction was widely identified as one of the most important aspects of expatriate work well-being, which includes not just the physical demands of the job, but also internal satisfaction gained from completion of work tasks. For example, an expatriate talked about what his job contributes to him and his family, “what the job gives me, my sense of self, value, contribution but my family is benefitting from it” (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01). Another expatriate also cited being internally satisfied with the job: “It was satisfaction in the sense that I knew of that I get the job done, and not be burdened by catchy rules” (Expatriate-Mining-23). Similarly, HR manager HR-Mining-01 also recognised the importance of job satisfaction to expatriate work well-being as he said it is “related to package type of thing … as well as being valued, … recognition and rewards” (HR-Mining-01).

However, this HR manager’s view differed from his expatriate employees’ views (Expatriate-Mining-10 and Expatriate-Mining-15), which focused on security or safety elements as the major determinant of work well-being, given the nature of mining industry, which involves high physical risk: “… definitely safety … I’m in a support function … I’m not as physically involved” (Expatriate-Mining-15).
Other forms of job attitude that were mentioned by a number of participants were passion, engagement, and commitment to their work \((n = 9, \text{ including } 6 \text{ expats and } 3 \text{ HR managers})\). Being passionate about the job makes expatriates feel happy and enjoy the work. For example, an expatriate said:

... if you get out of bed in the morning to go to work, then you have work well being... wake up and god, I don’t want to, when is my working... when do I finish, two more day... if you’re always counting down the day, you don’t have work well-being.... Sometimes I would work 7 week, 8 week, 9 week, no problem... even 7 days a week, with no problem... I’m happy to stay there and had no ties back in Australia. (Expatriate-Mining-31)

A number of participants, eight expatriates \((n = 8)\), also considered job performance as a key factor in perceiving their work well-being. Job performance involves successfully meeting target and being productive and contributing well to the organisation. For instance, as mentioned by an expatriate:

Work well-being for me is when target is met ... I need to know how organisation is set up ... this work is my work-related target and whether good or bad, let me not speculate on that ... I will not see it as a problem ... I take any problem as an opportunity first then I consider it as a problem...within few minutes I switch it back to opportunity. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-02)

This expatriate’s view is also in line with his HR manager, HR-Auxiliary-01, who suggested that “if an employee is satisfied then he gives maximum contribution”.

5.3.2 Affect

Another key theme that emerged from the interviews about the participants’ understanding of the concept of work well-being was affect \((n = 27, \text{ including } 22 \text{ expats and } 5 \text{ spouses})\). Affect includes both positive and negative emotions and/or moods at work or resulting from work. As explained by an expatriate, for example:

... and of course you have bad days at work ... if I had a bad thought in my head I need to replace it with a good thought ... then when I am calm down I deal with the bad thought, so I never dealt with anger. (Expatriate-Mining-23)

Expatriates’ emotions and/or moods at work also has a spillover effect to expatriate home life, as when expatriates are happy at work, they will also be happy at
home. For instance, an expatriate spouse stated: “So you can see when he is not happy at work, he is also not happy at home and he is like grumpy … and when he is happy at work then you can see that his action at home is reflecting his well-being at the office” (Spouse-Mining-11).

5.3.3 Benefits

Benefit was one of the key themes that was frequently reported by many of the participants as being vital to expatriate work well-being ($N = 26$, including 18 expats, 4 spouses, and 4 HR managers). Financial benefit has been seen as more important than non-financial benefit in addressing work well-being, as more participants ($N = 25$, including 17 expatriates, 4 spouses, and 4 HR managers) stressed financial benefit, while a smaller number of expatriate participants ($n = 5$) discussed non-financial benefit.

Financial benefit includes the package received as well as other compensation elements, facilities, and other privileges. This benefit also served as a motivation to perform well. For example, as suggested by an expatriate: “… package is fine but incentives yes … we get some bonus so it makes more motivated” (Expatriate-Mining-12).

Non-financial benefit includes recognition, feeling valued, and being appreciated by the organisation. It is also important to note that this relationship between employee and employer is reciprocal, as the behaviour of one party reflects the behaviour of the other party. For instance, an expatriate noted that:

... when you are compensated well for your work, you get time for yourself, and your inputs are appreciated in that company ... the company looks after your needs, at the same time you are contributing something important to the company. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-01).
Nevertheless, both financial and non-financial benefits become more crucial in the context of expatriation since relocating to a foreign country and being away from home are not an easy task. For example, a spouse explained:

*Since you need to be rewarded for success. And supported to any sort of change management problems... And that the salary and conditions have to make it worth being here.* (Spouse-Mining-02)

### 5.3.4 Social aspects

Many participants indicated that work well-being is by and large determined by the social sphere \((N = 25\), including 20 expats, 3 spouses, and 2 HR managers). This includes the people that they work with and the culture as well as language of the place they work in. Most participants discussed about the significance of the people they work with \((N = 22\), including 17 expats, 3 spouses, and 2 HR managers) in defining work well-being. People to work with are crucial, as was indicated by a quote from an expatriate who suggested that, “… because one of the most important criteria is the people in the groups and the culture you are working in” (Expatriate-Mining-24). Moreover people whom expatriates work with are significant to determine expatriate achievement and happiness at work as noted by an expatriate participant: “You have to be able to work with them and achieve what you want to do, bring the good and be able to be part of the team” (Expatriate-Mining-24).

The culture individuals work in also contributes to expatriates work well-being as a small number of expatriates mentioned this issue \((n = 3\), while spouses and HR managers did not cite this. This difference may be attributed to the differing experiences between expatriates and HR managers as well as spouses. All HR managers were Indonesians and so they were all accustomed to the Indonesian culture, while spouses’ experiences were different to expatriates’, as the spouses did not have any complicated work-related interactions with Indonesians, except for day-
to-day activities. Expatriates need to feel they belong and are accepted in a team where everyone is supportive of each other's work and there is opportunity to grow and learn from mistakes. For instance an expatriate said that “… in a culture where we feel that we belong and that we can contribute having the team … be allowed to make mistakes and to mend from those mistakes” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-05).

5.3.5 Work atmosphere

A number of participants also found work atmosphere to be important in determining expatriate work well-being ($N = 22$, including 18 expats, 1 spouse, and 3 HR managers). The participants indicated work environment ($n = 20$, including 17 expats, 1 spouse, and 2 HR managers), work condition ($n = 4$, including 3 expats and 1 HR managers), and physical elements of the office ($n = 2$, expats only) as influential to expatriate work well-being.

The most frequently mentioned issue by the participant was the work environment, which included non-physical aspects of work, such as person-organisation fit, work culture, and work ethics. For instance, an expatriate suggested the importance of having a less pressurred environment “where you fit within the organisation … do you feel comfortable where you work ... the more relaxing environment” (Expatriate-Mining-32).

Working conditions were also said to be critical to expatriate work well-being since working conditions determine how the job is being conducted. This includes working time (working hours and work schedules) as well as the physical conditions of the job locations and mental demands associated with the job. For example, an expatriate stressed on this issue: “The working conditions are more important than the project … if you’re not working under good conditions the project can be strenuous” (Expatriate-Mining-21).
A smaller number of expatriates talked about the importance of physical elements of the office in determining work well-being. This included work location and other facilities, such as furniture and the office building itself. Physical elements of the office become more crucial for resources sector employees due to the nature of the resources sector work itself. As discussed earlier, working in the resources sector entails working in a mining site with high exposure to both physical and psychological threats. This creates a big difference for employees who work at the head office or on the site. For example, an expatriate said, “…where are you actually working, is it Jakarta or is it site based, are you working in a nice office or does the AC work?” (Expatriate-Mining-17).

**5.3.6 Security**

Security or safety \( (N = 19, \text{ including } 16 \text{ expats and } 3 \text{ HR managers}) \) is one of the major themes that was frequently mentioned by expatriate and HR manager participants. Security involves physical and psychological safety \( (N = 15, \text{ including } 12 \text{ expats and } 3 \text{ HR managers}) \) as well as a sense of control or state of mind \( (n = 4, \text{ expats only}) \). The concern with physical and psychological safety, as the most frequently reported issue in this key theme, relates to exposure to physical (e.g., toxic materials, dust, explosion, heavy equipment) and even psychological (e.g., isolation, alienation, work stress) threats associated with working in the resources sector. For example, an expatriate explained:

... I am relatively safe ... I am in control of my own destiny ... to be in control of my own destiny ... here is always in this type of profession an element of risk ... when you are in the field, etc., you are isolated, etc. and if anything happens, you’ve got to get out ... so there is that physical element, particularly say in Sumatra, when you are out in the field and there might be tigers in the area, or elephants, so you’ve gotta be a bit careful ... mentally fit as well. I have been at camps, remote camps where one or two of the other people could not...they went chopper, they went a little bit crazy, running around with a knife, etc. (Expatriate-Mining-29)
Also, given the downturn in the industry, expatriates expressed the importance of being psychologically secure, as expatriates are a long way from home with a limited support network. For instance, as highlighted by an expatriate “… security that you know you're going to get paid and you know you got a reliable job” (Expatriate-Mining-19).

In addition to having physical and psychological security, feeling secure also entails having a positive state of mind and being in control of one’s own destiny. Given that working in the resources sector – for example, in the mining industry – entails exposure to physically dangerous activities, having peace of mind is important for both expatriates and the family. For example, an expatriate stated:

... know that this is in the best interest of the families because given that this [work] is quite dangerous and this mine has multiple fatalities, if [employees] haven’t got the peace of mind that this is the right thing for this situation then people start to wonder off and disengage with their work. (Expatriate-Mining-33)

5.3.7 Eudaimonic aspects

Many participants mentioned issues related to the theme categorised in this research as eudaimonic ($N = 17$, including 13 expats, 2 spouses, and 2 HR managers). Some participants discussed personal growth ($n = 11$, including 9 expats and 2 HR managers), help with other people’s growth ($n = 4$, expats only), and intangible rewards and their contribution to others ($n = 9$, including 6 expats, 2 spouses, and 1 HR manager).

Personal growth was emphasised by expatriates and HR managers as being critical to expatriate work well-being. Personal growth involves the opportunity for self-development and learning, as emphasised by an expatriate:

... benefitting you professionally, providing you with good opportunities personally for your own interest or development and kind of self preservation as well as making a difference, learning. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01)
The opportunity for self-development was so crucial to expatriates that it may overlook financial benefits. For instance, an expatriate cited his decrease in salary “…I’ve come here for half the salary that I was … to actually just sink my teeth into some projects” (Expatriate-Mining-19).

A number of participants also discussed the internal satisfaction they gained from receiving intangible rewards and contributing to others to be a focal point in defining expatriate work well-being. This involves feeling internally satisfied to have done the right thing, although it does not involve financial rewards, as well as feeling internally satisfied by contributing to other people and the community. For example, Expatriate-Mining-23 and Expatriate-Mining-30 talked about internal satisfaction: “Satisfaction is internal … not monetary driven … not recognition.... If I have done the right thing, I am happy” (Expatriate-Mining-23); while Expatriate-Mining-30 said: “I came back with the attitude perhaps I can give something back to the country.”

The opportunity to help other people grow was also seen as satisfying and hence contributing to expatriate work well-being. This was especially true for expatriates, given their main role is to transfer their knowledge to the nationals. For example, an expatriate mentioned:

... in my role ... my well-being there is to see (my employees) grow and being competent in their role and support them along the way so my work well-being, for me, comes from them being succeeded and grow and become good at their job. ...It is just to see things put into place by others. (Expatriate-Mining-01)

5.3.8 Work aspects

Another theme that was frequently mentioned by a number of participants was work aspects (N = 17, including 13 expats, 2 spouses, and 2 HR managers). As indicated by some participants, this theme involves challenges of the job (n = 13, including 11
expats and 2 spouses); their job role \((n = 2, \text{ including 1 expat and 1 HR managers})\); and technical aspects of the job \((n = 2, \text{ including 1 expat and 1 HR manager})\). The most recurrent issue that was noted by the participants were the challenges of the job, which included having a challenging and stimulating job. For example, as cited by an expatriate:

\[
I \text{ enjoy what I do as an engineer ... we’re presented with problems and we create solutions. That process is immensely rewarding and fulfilling. It’s an intellectual challenge.} (\text{Expatriate-Mining-27})
\]

The nature of the job, or job role, is important since it determines job functions and how the work is carried out. This eventually dictates how the work is conducted. For instance one expatriate participant suggested that, “… in consulting work it’s very much dictated by the demands … tight time constraints … whereas here, you have more time … we don’t push as hard” (Expatriate-Mining-32). Further, a small number of participants indicated the technicality of their job, such as technical know-how and technique, as important; for example, an expatriate pointed out: “It is based on fundamental concepts … so on a technical basis, they don't change” (Expatriate-Mining-30).

5.3.9 Work-life balance

Many participants also reported work-life balance \((N = 12, \text{ including 8 expats, 1 spouse, and 3 HR managers})\) as being crucial to expatriate work well-being. Work-life balance reflects the balance between life at work and life outside work; for example, as noted by an expatriate participant as “having a balance between actual work hours and you’re spending more time with your family and they’re getting the attention that they need” (Expatriate-Mining-05). Similarly, HR manager HR-Mining-03 also acknowledged work-life balance as central to work well-being:
... work well-being means ... the balance between the work life and your private life, personal life ... that means you can give balance attention.

HR-Mining-03’s account was supported by his expatriate employee who asserted that work-life balance becomes more critical for expatriates since they live in a foreign country, away from their family and support base, as he noted:

... have a balance between work and family ... it is good to know people, you never know when they can be useful ... for the life and work balance, it gives you balance ... especially when you live in a foreign country. You don’t have family here, you don’t have other relatives, so it is good to have friends and contacts who can help you. (Expatriate-Mining-20)

5.3.10 Organisational factors

A number of expatriate participants considered organisational factors (n = 8) as being influential to expatriate work well-being. The most common organisational factor that was reported by the expatriates was organisational care and fairness (n = 6), while a good system and organisational public stance (n = 2) were less frequently mentioned by the expatriates.

Organisation care and fairness includes care that the organisation shows to their employees as well as fair treatment that the organisation gives to all of their employees. This issue was highlighted by a participant who suggested that “you have to be paid fairly, safe environment, treated fairly by the management and by others in the office” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08). Also, it is important to note that this relationship between employee and employer is reciprocal, as how an employee feels about the organisation reflects how the organisation feels about the employee. For instance, as explained by an expatriate:

Work wellbeing is having good employer who you’re happy to go and work for, you are really happy to represent the company ... if you don’t love the company you are not gonna be successful to market it ... and if you are passionate about the company, the company is passionate about you. (Expatriate-Mining-14)
Having a good system not only implies that the organisation employs a good working system that completely supports all of their employees but also is supportive of the local community and benefits them. For instance, an expatriate said, “… very important that the company has a harmonious relationship or develop a harmonious relationship with the community and the area where the project is being developed” (Expatriate-Mining-21).

In this section, participants’ understanding of the concept of work well-being in general has been discussed. There were 10 major themes associated with work well-being explained by expatriates, spouses, and HR managers that this research has categorised as (in descending order): job attitudes, affect, benefits, social aspect, work atmosphere, security, eudaimonic or intangible rewards, work aspects, work-life balance, and organisational factors. Job attitudes were the most frequently cited element of work well-being, while organisational factors were seen as less significant. Job satisfaction was widely identified by many participants across three groups (i.e., expatriates, HR managers, and spouses), which indicates that many participants understood job satisfaction as work well-being and that satisfaction with the job may equate to work well-being. Only a small number of participants, who consisted of expatriate participants, discussed the significance of organisational care, system, and fairness to expatriate work well-being. This may mean that most of the organisations that expatriates work for have already established good and fair systems that care for the employees and even the larger community, and only a small number of organisations lack this fair system. Having examined the concept of work well-being in general, next, expatriate work well-being, specifically in the context of the Indonesian resources sector, is explored.
5.4 Expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia

The participants considered expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia as being influenced by what this research categorised as the social aspect, such as Indonesian culture and people. This was apparent across all three groups of participants (expatriates, spouses, and HR managers). Table 5.4 summarises the main themes (and frequencies of occurrence) that the participants identified when asked about resources sector expatriate work well-being in Indonesia. Each participant identified multiple themes and subthemes associated with their understanding of the concept of expatriate work well-being, particularly in the resources sector in Indonesia. While the previous section provided a general understanding of the concept of work well-being, which is applicable to any given context, this section specifically addresses expatriates’, spouses’, and HR managers’ understanding of what is meant specifically by expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Nevertheless, there are some overlapping themes and key issues raised in these two sections. This may be attributable to: (1) for some expatriates, Indonesia is the only place they have spent their professional years, hence their understanding of the concept of work well-being will be limited to their Indonesia experiences; (2) for some expatriates, Indonesia is their first international placement, hence they do not have any prior experience working in other country with which to make comparisons; and (3) a number of expatriates worked in a much more junior position prior to their Indonesian posting, while in Indonesia they have a much more senior position with more responsibilities. This may affect their analysis, with emphasis being placed more on their current role in Indonesia and overlooking their previous role/s prior to coming to Indonesia.
Table 5.4: Aspects of work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesia work well-being aspects</th>
<th>Expat (n = 43)</th>
<th>HR manager (n = 7)</th>
<th>Spouse (n = 8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social aspect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture (including language)</td>
<td>32 (74.4%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>21 (48.8%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Security</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and psychological (including financial)</td>
<td>9 (20.9%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The country and its economy</td>
<td>7 (16.3%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical elements</td>
<td>5 (11.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Benefits and the downside</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and non-financial</td>
<td>16 (37.2%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
<td>2 (4.7%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work aspects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges of the job</td>
<td>18 (41.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job role</td>
<td>7 (16.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work atmosphere and work culture</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job attitudes and other attitudes</strong></td>
<td>10 (23.3%)</td>
<td>3 (42.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other attitudes toward and perceptions about Indonesia</td>
<td>7 (16.3%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion, engagement, and commitment</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Endaaimonic aspects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help other people grow</td>
<td>13 (30.2%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth</td>
<td>6 (14%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible rewards and contribution to others</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Affect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>1 (14.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational factors</strong></td>
<td>3 (7%)</td>
<td>2 (28.6%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Where the results yielded on more than 100% total for each theme, each participant may have cited multiple themes and sub-themes.
5.4.1 Social aspect

Indonesian culture \((n = 23, \text{ including } 21 \text{ expats, } 1 \text{ spouse, and } 1 \text{ HR manager})\) and people \((n = 20, \text{ including } 17 \text{ expats, } 1 \text{ spouse, and } 2 \text{ HR managers})\) were two key issues discussed under the social theme \((N = 37, \text{ including } 32 \text{ expats, } 2 \text{ spouses, and } 3 \text{ HR managers})\). The Indonesian culture places importance on family and communal values, which significantly influences expatriate work well-being in Indonesia. It was suggested that “a lot of more sense of family and community and development and people that could create that culture in their team are more successful than others” (Expatriate-Mining-10). Expatriate-Mining-10’s HR manager, H-M-01, also described Indonesians as “helpful, welcoming to expats, and also friendly … [they] are user-friendly, like a computer, just plug and play”. This specific quality of Indonesian employees in turn contributes to expatriate work well-being as it helps expatriates carry out their jobs and successfully complete their work tasks.

However, the impact of Indonesian culture on expatriates’ work well-being may be less important for expatriates who work for a multinational company with strong global organisational culture. For example, Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01 admitted that he found Indonesian culture different, although he did not find this difference to be a hindrance to working in Indonesia since he works for one organisation:

* Cultures are different, there may be different issues at work but personally I don't feel a dramatic difference because I work for one company. My family might feel more of the difference … (it is) the benefit of working for a global company. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01)

Most participants reported a positive experience working with Indonesians, while others noted challenges working with Indonesians. The most frequently mentioned positive quality of Indonesian people was their friendliness and strong emphasis on family values. For example, an expatriate talked about Indonesians’
positive qualities: “The people here are really friendly, and motivated, and highly intelligent, and highly adaptable. I think it’s very easy place to work in Indonesia” (Expatriate-Mining-04); while another expatriate explained about Indonesians’ social nature:

*People are more like family, more of like a unit ... people seem to work better together ... people have relationships. They are going together as a group... they have that sort of underlying common theme ... even though it may take a little bit of more effort to get to the end result in here, but the way you get there is more pleasant.* (Expatriate-Mining-05)

However, there is also a flip side of the Indonesian positive quality. For instance, Indonesians can be overly accepting culture and resistant in taking responsibility, as suggested by an expatriate participant: “The culture of just obeying expat is really dangerous and leaves people with lower quality of work … people refuse to take responsibility for actions or decisions” (Expatriate-Mining-06). A number of expatriates also struggled with language issues, as to learn the Indonesian language, for example, a spouse participant explained her partner’s struggle at work as “the only thing he struggles with is the language but besides that everything is very positive” (Spouse-Mining-07).

To be successful working in Indonesia, it is very important for expatriates to collaborate with host country nationals. This involves successfully managing Indonesians (i.e., maximising their positive qualities and dealing with their negative qualities). Given Indonesians’ resigned attitude, they tend to obey all instructions given by the superiors, thus expatriates need to start teaching Indonesians to be more critical and to take more responsibility for their own work.

### 5.4.2 Security

Working in Indonesia brought concerns about security and safety aspects, as mentioned by many participants ($N = 23$, including 20 expats, 2 spouses, and 1 HR
manager). This security theme was mentioned by a number of participants, with the most frequently mentioned issue being physical, psychological, and financial security 

\((n = 10, \text{including 9 expats and 1 HR manager})\). Financial security is a major issue faced by resources sector expatriates in Indonesia due to the downturn in the industry. This can create financial issues for the organisation, such as financial debts and lower revenue. For example, an expatriate said, “... so that has left our organisation with a number of legacy issues including financial debts, of many millions of dollars” (Expatriate-Mining-09). Financial insecurity, in turn, also creates psychological insecurity among resources sector expatriates in Indonesia, especially since expatriates are residing in a foreign country without support from their own government. For instance, this was mentioned by an expatriate:

*Job security is not great ... you’re always worried about survival as a company ... if I was in the UK ... If something happens, you can always claim social security,... When you work overseas, if you lose your job and you get nothing ... it has much greater impact.* (Expatriate-Mining-13)

Physical security is also an issue when working in the resources sector in Indonesia, especially given the attitude of Indonesians toward safety where safety is not seen as a top priority when conducting work, including the high-risk jobs. For example, an expatriate commented:

... *just in Indonesia it is still a little bit like the old days, in terms of safety is not so good ... in Australia, you find that everything takes so much longer because you have to do every step job step analysis in the systems and so on ... where in Indonesia it is a little bit less casual ... and we have a street here and children riding motor bikes and no helmets so the attitude to safety is not so strict so it is a little bit more exciting. That could be quite boring to work in the mine.* (Expatriate-Mining-31)

The other key issue that was discussed by some participants was about Indonesia as a country, as well as its economy \((n = 9, \text{including 7 expats and 2 HR managers})\). As a country that is rich in natural resources, Indonesia is considered as a
good posting for resources sector expatriates. For example, as noted by an expatriate participant:

... if you want to be close to the action and coal industry on coal field that was growing, a lot of opportunities and growth of business, Indonesia is probably one of the best places to be and has been that way for the last twenty years. (Expatriate-Mining-28)

However, as the biggest archipelagic country, Indonesia’s geographical and physical infrastructure can pose challenges for expatriates in terms of logistics, distribution, and even socially. This has been found challenging, as suggested by an expatriate:

... the logistics are moving around this country ... the psychology, the size of Indonesia and the number of people ... that’s very hard to get a grip on ... and the fact that we are broken into all these regencies, the tiers of society ... that’s very difficult to deal with. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-02)

The other key issue noted by the participants was the physical elements and health issues in working in Indonesia (>6, including 5 expats and 1 spouse). Indonesia is a tropical country with a warm temperature that lies in the equator line. For example, an expatriate participant made a comparison with the cold climate in his home country:

Because first it is about climate. Actually it is nice for me because if you are (in my home country) it is more of a problem. Also you can’t work all years ... like three or four months working. (Expatriate-Mining-25)

Unfortunately, Indonesia’s tropical islands are contaminated with pollution that creates health issues for the people and raises health concerns for expatriates. For example, an expatriate participant highlighted health issues, particularly in Jakarta, compared with other places in Indonesia:

... the pollution is unhealthy ... I work for five days of the week, it’s very difficult to even see daylight or sun. But, Jakarta definitely I see it as an unhealthy lifestyle, an unhealthy environment. Balikpapan is a much more healthy feel. (Expatriate-Mining-15)
Health issues also impacted negatively on expatriate family well-being, which eventually influenced expatriate work well-being. For instance, with the contraction of dangerous tropical disease, as stated by a spouse participant:

*I think he has a lot of troubles actually ... when he came here he was optimistic, a lot of foreigners here and we thought we would be okay but since we got a few sickness, and dengue (fever) was really scary, and our neighbour was even worse ... he is really having a hard time.* (Spouse-Mining-06)

5.4.3 Benefits and the downside

An attraction to moving away from the home country is the benefits that expatriates get from undertaking their international assignment, as suggested by many participants ($N = 19$, including 16 expats and 3 HR managers). The most frequently mentioned benefit that was suggested by a number of participants was about financial benefit and non-financial benefit ($n = 17$, including 14 expats and 3 HR managers), to some extent. Financial benefit involves getting a better package and being entitled to other privileges, such as special treatment and luxury facilities. For example, an expatriate participant stated:

*... we are rather treated better than everyone else. We have privilege. We have benefit of better packages... you get cars and driver, housing allowances for where you live, you get school fees paid for your children.* (Expatriate-Mining-22)

Financial benefit plays a major role in determining expatriates’ decision to undertake international assignments. For example, this was suggested by a HR manager participant:

*... if they can’t find a job in the next (placement) country and they can’t go back to the US, that is when benefit becomes really crucial for them because they want to get as much as possible during their international assignments.* (HR-Oil and Gas-01)

In addition to financial benefits that includes better packages and privileges, an Indonesia posting also offers non-financial benefits to resources sector expatriates. These range from international exposure and an opportunity to learn a new culture;
for instance, as noted by an expatriate: “The international experience, the exposure to the Indonesian culture … and the different challenges of working internationally and not being fluent in the local language” (Expatriate-Mining-09).

However, there is also the flipside to the benefit that expatriates get from their Indonesia posting, as mentioned by expatriate participants (n = 2), such as with the luxury lifestyle and tremendous amount of salary they enjoy in Indonesia. For example, this results in marriage breakups, which eventually interferes with expatriates’ work well-beings. As noted by an expatriate:

... your family unit has to be solid because there are factors that impact on the well being of the family ... but I have seen people go from being when they come, when they come and work, they are the normal person ... they talk about their family ... sometimes they feel in position of power over a lot of people and then they develop this feeling of power and that they can do things and get away with it...sometimes their family seems a little boring and there are interesting things outside so I have seen many marriages collapse. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-05)

5.4.4 Work aspects

A number of expatriate participants indicated elements of their job (n = 18) as one of the main themes in defining expatriate work well-being in Indonesia. There were three key issues associated with this theme, namely: job role (n = 7 expats), challenges of the job (n = 6 expats), and work atmosphere and work culture (n = 6 expats). The first key issue that was frequently mentioned by expatriates was the job role, although this was not necessarily related to their placement in Indonesia. For example, working as an entrepreneur is different from working as an employee, as pointed out by an expatriate participant: “… being an entrepreneur, I don't feel like I have the security at all. I feel like I have a lot of responsibility to the staff” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-05). Job role is also shaped by the nature of the business, such as how working for a consulting company sets out different requirements to working for a contracting company. For instance, an expatriate participant stated: “When I
worked for a contracting company, driven by cost and revenue returns … and
consultants have a different perspective, they tell other people what to do”
(Expatriate-Mining-08). An expatriate’s individual job role is also heavily determined
by the purpose of knowledge transfer and meeting the highest standard. These are
seen as fulfilling the main functions of expatriates in bringing value to the
organisation.

A number of expatriates also reported challenges of the job as an important
determinant of work well-being in Indonesia. Working as an expatriate entails more
challenges compared to working in the home country. These challenges include more
“hands-on” work with greater responsibilities, language barriers, and the pressure to
meet higher standards. For example, as highlighted by an expatriate participant: “You
are a lot more hands on to deliver things to the right standards and to tip the target …
you try to be conveying with teaching people to understand the standards”
(Expatriate-Mining-10).

The last key issue under this theme was work atmosphere and work culture.
This also relates to the Indonesian collectivist nature and mentality. Working for a
local organisation is different from working for an international organisation, as they
have different work culture where the emphasis on family values and religiosity are
more apparent. For instance, an expatriate explained:

[here] is pretty unique compared to other international companies I’ve worked with,
here is very people-oriented, very family-driven ... quite religious in terms of praying
before meetings and lots of positive affirmation ... company song ... “all for one, one
for all” type of thing ... which is a bit cheesy ... but I found it that way early on, but
the more I immerse in it, the more that I see the people are getting behind it ... it is
positive, they’re not doing it to try to indoctrinate, they’re doing to bring people
together to have shared common goals and values which I think, can only be a good
thing. (Expatriate-Mining-02)
5.4.5 Job attitudes and other attitudes

A number of participants who talked about job attitudes and other attitudes (\(N = 13\), including 10 expats and 3 HR managers), also mentioned three issues associated with this particular theme, namely: other attitudes toward and perceptions about Indonesia (\(n = 9\), including 7 expats and 2 HR managers); job satisfaction (\(n = 3\), expat only); and passion, engagement, and commitment (\(n = 1\), HR manager only).

A number of expatriates expressed positive attitudes toward Indonesia, which improves expatriate well-being, and eventually contributes to high work well-being.

For example, an expatriate commented:

Absolutely positive ... I stayed in Indonesia through crisis and bombs and Australian troops and all these things when everyone else ran away ... through those times, I had people walk across the street in Jakarta and shake my hand and say thank you for being here ... that is remembered today in business ... and with the downturn in the mining industry, most people left but I am still here ... I don’t think I am capable of living anywhere else now. (Expatriate-Mining-27)

But expatriates also experience difficulties dealing with Indonesian attitudes at work toward expatriates, where Indonesian employees show resistance in taking orders from expatriates. For instance, as suggested by an expatriate:

... generally speaking it's harder as an expatriate than it is an Indonesian to get the work force to do their job ... an Indonesia manager can ask the same person to do the same thing as I have and they will do it very quickly for them. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-07)

In living and working in Indonesia, expatriates can be categorised into two major groups, those who succeeded and those who failed. Those who have successfully lived and worked in Indonesia, including working well with the culture, are more likely to be more successful at work and have higher work well-being in the country. On the other hand, expatriates who fail to live and work in Indonesia and understand the culture, tend to do poorly at work as these expatriates are not successfully adapting to work culture, hence, poor work well-being.
Job satisfaction is also important to expatriate work well-being in Indonesia and this is a key to being successful in Indonesia and also to thriving at work, anywhere in the world. For instance, this was highlighted by an expatriate: “I enjoyed my work everywhere … here I am at sixty-six and I still enjoy my geology … I’ve been blessed to have a career and a profession that is very enjoyable to me and satisfying” (Expatriate-Mining-29). Further, job commitment is significant to expatriate work well-being in Indonesia since expatriates show high levels of commitment to their job. For example, this was mentioned by an HR manager, “… compared with Indonesians … the expats are more committed to do the job and they have a sense of belonging with the company and higher trust” (HR-Mining-04).

5.4.6 Eudaimonic aspects

A number of expatriate participants indicated what this research is categorised as eudaimonic aspects (n = 13) to be critical to expatriate work well-being. These expatriates identified three issues associated with what this research refers to as eudaimonic theme, namely: help other people grow (n = 6); personal growth (n = 4); and intangible rewards and contribution to others (n = 3). Helping other people grow brings about internal satisfaction among expatriates, especially by seeing their subordinates grow and progress in their career. This issue was pointed out by an expatriate who mentioned:

... they started working for me as fresh graduates ... they are all managers and General Managers [now] ... from that sense I feel ... [it] gets to the top of the triangle with personal actualisation ... self-actualisation when you see people that you develop achieving good things and being recognised ... I feel good because I know what contribution I might give up ... so that’s really positive, really good. (Expatriate-Mining-26)
Personal growth has also been seen as critical to expatriate work well-being in Indonesia, especially for expatriate who have been spending their whole professional years in Indonesia. For example, as suggested by a long term expatriate:

*I actually stay here because we can make a difference in this company, I’m not just an accountant ... that I find satisfying ... as an accountant background I can get involved in operations ... I have been in ten different things that I would never get the opportunity probably in Australia to do ... personally satisfying.* (Expatriate-Mining-16)

Last, intangible rewards were also a highlight to expatriates experience working in Indonesia which contributes to expatriate work well-being from positive feeling gained from contributing to the society. For instance, this issue was highlighted by an expatriate:

*What we’re doing in this place is creating employment for Indonesians, creating hopefully a safe workplace for Indonesians, bring in good international practices to Indonesia, which hopefully people learn from and then get paid.* (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08)

As well as leaving a legacy behind that benefits Indonesia and its people, as mentioned by an expatriate:

*... we started the Djakarta Mining Club and Coal Club Indonesia three years ago... Some Indonesians said thank you for doing that, I said if I can leave something to Indonesia being good to me ... That’s my legacy.* (Expatriate-Mining-14)

5.4.7 Affect

Many participants talked about what this research grouped as affect (\(N = 8\), including 7 expats and 1 HR manager) and its significance to expatriate work well-being. There are two issues associated with this theme that were highlighted by some participants, namely positive affect (\(n = 4\), including 3 expats and 1 HR manager), and negative affect (\(n = 4\) expats). Affect includes emotions, moods, and feelings displayed at work or resulting from work. Positive affect includes the presence of positive feelings, moods and emotions, as well as the absence of negative pressure. For example, as
mentioned by an expatriate: “here probably is more positive pressure, there is always balance here … In Australia there is a lot of anxiety, a lot of pressure … I didn’t feel the same way here or that they existed” (Expatriate-Mining-07). Similarly, an HR manager participant found that his expatriate employees always show positive emotions at work, “… they are happy, I see them smiling every day, every morning, even at night” (HR-Auxiliary-01).

On the other hand, expatriates also reported negative affect such as the presence of stress and negative feelings associated with rejection. For instance, the existence of negative emotions was noted by an expatriate who said:

\[\text{It is more stressful working here ... it is probably not difficult to get in the work force it is more difficult to get the work force to do what it is that you need done ... so for an expatriate that is the main difference ... the interaction of the local work force.} \]

(Expatriate-Auxiliary-07)

5.4.8 Organisational factors

A small number of participants also indicated some organisational factors as determining expatriate work well-being in Indonesia (N = 6, including 3 expats, 1 spouse, and 2 HR managers). This mostly focuses on care that the organisation gives to their employees, especially expatriates, which significantly improved expatriate work well-being. Supportive organisation policies and a fair organisational system were also discussed. In highlighted organisational care, for example, an expatriate participant stated: “What I have enjoyed more is working for a lady… I think I am the luckiest man in this world, she is so conscious, she was so good” (M-14). On the contrary, the lack or the absence of supportive organisational policies or care given by the organisation resulted in low work well-being among expatriates, as highlighted by an expatriate:

\[\text{... in my experience expat is seen as a specialist he is a hired gun ... I’ve looked after my work well-being myself, none of the companies that I’ve worked for years has}\]
given a damn about me, whether I’m happy or depressed ... they just don’t care. (Expatriate-Mining-26)

Organisation turbulence was also reported to have a major negative impact on expatriate work well-being. For instance, this was apparent to a spouse participant: “His organisation is having financial issues … some of the business are struggling … things are not going as smoothly as he imagined” (Spouse-Mining-06).

The participants viewed expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia as consisting of eight key themes, namely: social aspect; security; benefits; work aspects; eudaimonic aspect; job attitudes and other attitudes; affect; and organisational factors. Social aspect was the most frequently cited component of expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, while organisational factors were least influential to expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

In this section, the participants’ perceptions of the concept of work well-being specifically in the context of the resources sector in Indonesia have been explored. Eight major themes, in a descending order, arose specifically with regards to the concept of work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. The most frequently mentioned theme was social aspect related to Indonesian culture and people. Many expatriates expressed some issues related to the significant difference of their home culture and Indonesian culture. Thus, social aspect was seen as the main component which significantly determines expatriate work well-being, specifically in the resources sector in Indonesia. This finding is in line with the first research question (RQ) explored in this study, namely, “How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” where expatriate work well-being is largely influenced by social components and/or social capital, such as friendly Indonesian employees. The second most frequently mentioned theme was
the concern about safety or security in Indonesia, which involves both physical and psychological security. Working in the resources sector encompasses both physical and psychological threats, and this is exacerbated by being away from the home country with limited support networks. In the next section, social capital and its impact on expatriate work well-being is explored.

5.5 Social capital and expatriate work well-being

This section discusses social capital and its impact on expatriate work well-being. There are three dimensions of social capital drawing upon Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) social capital theory, which are called structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions. Structural dimension represents the general pattern of connections between actors, while relational dimension describes the type of personal relationships individuals have developed with each other through a history of interactions, and cognitive dimension constitutes resources offering shared representation, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties. This study extends Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) study in developing key issues associated with the three dimensions of social capital. In this study: structural dimension is comprised of social networks, contacts with headquarters, and value in increasing networks; relational dimension consists of good relationships, trust, and collegiality; and cognitive dimension includes shared view, clear goal, and shared experience. A specific set of interview questions that contained all key issues addressing the three dimensions were developed in order to examine the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in Indonesia. Table 5.5 summarises the frequency of occurrence of each dimension and its individual components across expatriate, spouse, and HR manager groups.
### Table 5.5. Three dimensions of social capital and their individual components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social capital</th>
<th>Structural dimension</th>
<th>Value in increasing networks</th>
<th>Contacts with headquarter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expat</strong> (n=43)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HR</strong> (n=7)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spouse</strong> (n=8)</td>
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<td>87%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Relational dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good relationship</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Collegiality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expat (n=43)</td>
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<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR (n=7)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>97.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse (n=8)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>97.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Cognitive dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shared view</th>
<th>Clear goal</th>
<th>Common challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expat (n=43)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR (n=7)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>90.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse (n=8)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38</td>
<td>90.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6 Structural dimension and expatriate work well-being

In this section, structural social capital is discussed in terms of impact on expatriate work well-being. This was analysed through these following steps. First, the participants were asked about the existence of social networks (i.e., formal and informal) as well as the availability of contacts with local/global headquarters (expatriates and HR managers only). With regards to contacts with headquarters, expatriates who work for multinational companies had contacts with their global headquarter, while expatriates who work for local companies had contacts with headquarters in Jakarta, Indonesia. Then the participants were asked if they see value in increasing their social networks. Second, the participants were asked to confirm whether social networks and contacts impact on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Table 5.6 illustrates this structural dimension of social capital and its impact on expatriate work well-being.
Table 5.6: Structural dimension of social capital, its elements, and impact on expatriate work well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expat (n=43)</th>
<th>HR (n=7)</th>
<th>Spouse (n=8)</th>
<th>Expat (n=43)</th>
<th>HR (n=7)</th>
<th>Spouse (n=8)</th>
<th>Expat (n=43)</th>
<th>Spouse (n=8)</th>
<th>Expat (n=43)</th>
<th>HR (n=7)</th>
<th>Spouse (n=8)</th>
<th>Expat (n=43)</th>
<th>HR (n=7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social networks</td>
<td>Value in increasing networks</td>
<td>Contact with headquarter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Spouse (n=8)</td>
<td>Expat (n=43)</td>
<td>HR (n=7)</td>
<td>Spouse (n=8)</td>
<td>Expat (n=43)</td>
<td>Spouse (n=8)</td>
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<td>Spouse (n=8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>69.8%</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>69.8%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Impact on work well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expat (n=43)</th>
<th>HR manager (n=7)</th>
<th>Spouse (n=8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39 (90.7%)</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
<td>5 (71.4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6.1 Social networks

All expatriate \((n = 43)\) and spouse \((n = 8)\) participants mentioned that they have informal social networks, while only half of the expatriate participants \((n = 21)\) and none of the spouse participants indicated that they have formal social networks. In contrast, all HR managers \((n = 7)\) participants reported the presence of formal social networks for their expatriate employees. Most expatriate participants noted that their social network is mainly work-driven and that their spouse and children’s school play a major role in helping them build their social network outside work. For example, as highlighted by an expatriate:

... largely my social network is work-driven and only because of the time I spend at work... A lot of that is driven largely by my wife. She is involved in some organisations ... I try to always play rugby, so I am involved in rugby here ... there is sort of networking happening through the school as well. (Expatriate-Mining-02)

Although many expatriates confirmed that their social networks are mainly dominated by other expatriates, a small number of expatriates emphasised the importance of having networks of local people to their work well-being. This was suggested, for example, by an expatriate who said: “A lot of my friends are Indonesians… they were junior engineers, now they are the chairman of the board … that’s why I stayed here for 28 years, because of networks” (Expatriate-Mining-14).

The type of networks available to expatriates is not limited to traditional or conventional types, there is also a presence of virtual networks. For example, as pointed out by an expatriate participant:

... my friend from (first employer), he has left ... I had another good friend in (second employer), he is a lot older ... he has now left but we still stay in contact ... if you want a social thing that we do here that has connected us all is fantasy football. (Expatriate-Mining-19).

Social networks are also used by expatriates, particularly those who run the organisation, as a means to promote their business and to stay informed with current
issue or regulations within the industry. For instance, this was suggested by an expatriate participant:

... from my business perspective, we engage with professional groups and organisations such as the Indonesian-Australian Mining Association ... Coal Trans ... that brings together mining professionals from the region ... Singapore Mining Club ... to discuss what’s happening on a regional basis ... face to face contact with associates and colleagues within the industry ... we hold our own seminars ... it allows us two way feedback as to what the requirements are for an operational perspective and how we can support that as well as promoting our services...we’re very active on Linkedin ... our newsletter ... Facebook page. (Expatriate-Mining-03)

However, the downturn in the industry has resulted in a shrinking number of expatriate social networks, and this is apparent in social networks internal and external to the organisation. For example, this issue was acknowledged by an HR manager, “[internal expat network] is not quite active anymore ... it is not even still here [any more] ... expats get more involved with the local (expat) community” (HR-Mining-02).

Expatriates used social networks to thrive in their international posting. These networks consist of formal and informal networks. Although all expatriates (n = 43) and spouses (n = 8) confirmed that they had informal networks, only half of the expatriates (n = 21) and none of the spouses (n = 0) stated that they had formal networks. In contrast, all HR managers (n = 7) referred to expatriate formal networks and none of the HR managers (n = 0) mentioned informal expatriate networks. Formal networks serve as a means to help expatriates with work-related issues by providing expatriates with an avenue of support and offering professional advice. For instance, as mentioned by an expatriate participant, “… provide a body that has dialogue with the government to try and clarify some of the concerns that the industry has” (Expatriate-Mining-03). This, in turn, improves expatriate work well-being; while informal networks serve as expatriate’s stress-relief or a means to vent their
frustration and thus, to share stories and problems in a more fun, casual way. For instance, as stated by an expatriate,

... because it means that you turn up to work fresh ... I tend to socialise away from my work colleagues generally ... [it] probably does affect on my work well-being because I am not with them all the time ... it probably does help to have two separate groups. One creates a filter ... separates me from work ... they both (impact on my work well-being) in a different way. (Expatriate-Mining-07)

5.6.2 Value in increasing networks

When asked whether they see value in increasing their social networks, most expatriate (n = 30) and almost half of spouses (n = 3) participants answered that they do see value in increasing their social networks. The HR managers were not asked about this question since this is inapplicable as this question is personal to expatriates. Expatriates and spouses considered increasing networks and building relationships as being invaluable, and that this is true from both personal and professional perspective. For example, as highlighted by an expatriate, “from a business perspective definitely … I think you really have to work on the relationships and get to know as many people as you can” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-05). Further, it is not just important to have a large quantity of networks, but it is crucial to have meaningful quality networks as also significant to expatriate work well-being. Social networks are also useful in gathering information. Networking is arguably important to expatriate work well-being, as employers or employees. From an employer perspective, networking is critical for the success of the business in Indonesia, such as to get introduced to a client. For instance, this issue was emphasised by an expatriate who stated:

I think it is very critical to be successful here that you have a very strong social network but I think it is important to have a strong social network but I don’t think it is important to have a big social network ... my social network needs to be similar, either potential clients or similar businesses ... it goes both ways, you’re not forever introducing people to each other or telling them where they go to get something repaired or bought or whatever and the favour goes the other way, sometimes you
need an introduction for a particular project and get help with this. That something that happens all the time. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08).

Nevertheless, expatriates are also faced with the limited selection of friends in Indonesia since they are a long way from home and people tend to associate themselves with people who are similar to them. For example, an expatriate said:

“You somewhat have a much smaller group than you would if you were at home … it’s natural to try and surround yourself with people who are similar to yourself” (Expatriate-Mining-15). Although increasing social networks is invaluable to expatriates and spouses, the amount of effort to put into it is questionable given Jakarta’s transitory nature. For instance, as suggested by an expatriate participant:

*It is really down to the level of effort, Jakarta tends to be a transient place, there are few people that actually stay here as long as I have, therefore the amount of effort I put in does increase or decrease depending upon how big is my social group, how many people have left … how many people have joined in the last year … so it does change … the friends that you make here they still are friends when they go and work somewhere else, but your ability to see them on a regular basis diminishes…you tend to introduce new people into your social network.* (Expatriate-Mining-17)

Increasing social networks is even more of a value to long term expatriates since integrating with local community is important to ensure success in Indonesia for long term expatriates. For example, a long term expatriate commented: “We’re here for the long term … this is our home so if things go bad here we would not move…. The more you integrate the more comfortable you are” (Expatriate-Mining-30).

Integrating more with local community is also seen as important for spouses, especially those who stay for a longer term. For instance, as suggested by a spouse:

*My friends are now changing to more local people where you kinda know that they will stay here for a bit longer … now I am forming different friendships.* (Spouse-Mining-04)

However, a small number of expatriates also spoke in retrospective account about how they should have put more effort into increasing social networks when they first arrived in Indonesia. Although this is not necessary important as of now, for
example, as pointed out by an expatriate who has come to the end of his assignment:
“I probably would have seen value 12 months ago, looking back now, but as of now I
don’t because I know that I’ll be moving on” (Expatriate-Mining-07).

A smaller number of expatriates \((n = 13)\) and more than half of the spouses \((n = 5)\) said that they already had enough number of social contacts and that they do not
see it as critical to them. Increasing social networks was not just seen as having
retrospective value, but also prospective value added. Having said that, increasing
number of social networks would be important for future career plan. For instance, as
suggested by an expatriate who said:

... only in my career, I didn’t really do much of anything and really see the value of it
too much ... but later in my career, I see it is quite critical for the development of the
career and for benefiting the business ... as well as personally, to hear what other
people are up to and a potential career option in the future. (Expatriate-Mining-11)

Also, increasing social networks was not considered important to all long-term
expatriates. A few long-term expatriates thought that it is insignificant to their work
well-being, although admitting that increasing social networks is critical for new
expatriates to be successful in their international assignment. For instance, this was
suggested by a long-term expatriate:

... no because I have been here so long. To the newcomers I would encourage them,
yes... having an expanded social network ... both expatriate and Indonesian ... 
expatriates give you a better interchange of problem solving ... Indonesian network
gives you a better understanding and better opportunity to understand the culture of
the company. (Expatriate-Mining-21)

5.6.3 Contact with headquarters

Most expatriate participants \((n = 30)\) and all HR managers \((n = 7)\) confirmed that
expatriates have regular contact with the headquarter, while some other expatriates
who work for national companies either did not have any offices other than the head
office and some other expatriates who have site offices mentioned about contacts with their site offices.

Contact with headquarters was quite intense for expatriates who work for a global business with offices all over the world and also within Indonesia. For example, as mentioned by an expatriate participant:

... we have a video conference hours every Monday ... face-to-face meetings in head office ... Every day, I’m talking with my Managing Director or to my boss ... or texting, email. (Expatriate-Mining-09)

Expatriate-Mining-09’s HR manager, HR-Mining-02 also confirmed that they have regular contact with the head office. He said: “... weekly meeting, also with other international offices” (HR-Mining-02).

A small number of expatriates (n = 4) and none of the HR managers (n = 0) mentioned that they have no, or minimal, contacts with their headquarters. Despite working for a global business, Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01, for example, mentioned the lack, or absence, of contacts he makes with headquarters:

... headquarters is an anomaly ... you can put the entire year and not have an issue that requires you to interact with the corporate head office, so, there is no work-related connection and you have to rely on social connection to say let me reach out to key people so I can keep them updated on what's going on or I can't find out what's going on. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01)

Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01’s account was also backed up by his HR manager who stated that expatriates only make contacts, both work-related and personal issues, with the President Director in Indonesia:

... they communicate quite often because a lot of directions we get from the president director is related to expat issues, so I think expats communicate directly to the president director. And also issues related to spouse and their concern. (HR-Oil and Gas-01)

Although most expatriates (n = 30) and all HR managers (n = 7) confirmed that they have regular contact with headquarters, especially expatriates working for
global companies, only a few expatriates \( n = 4 \) did not have contacts with the global headquarters and the contacts was localised in the host country instead.

5.6.4 Impact on work well-being

Most expatriates \( n = 39 \) and all spouses participants \( n = 8 \) said that social networks impacted on expatriate work well-being in Indonesia, while only a small number of expatriates \( n = 4 \) and none of the spouses \( n = 0 \) thought that social networks did not have a significant impact on expatriate work well-being. HR managers had mixed views where the majority indicated significance of social networks \( n = 5 \) while their counterparts \( n = 2 \) did not think this was important. The main reasons they mentioned are: (a) act as a buffer between work and social life; (b) provide support with work tasks; (c) help develop their business; and (d) provide them with a sense of belonging, save them from feeling of isolation. First, social networks shield expatriates from work stress and provides expatriates with an avenue to share ideas and experiences. For example, as noted by an expatriate, “… if you got a good social network, it just makes life a bit easier … you got people to bounce idea of, you got people to share experiences with” (Exaptriate-Mining-02). Expatriates tend to have two separate groups, professional and social groups, so that work and social lives are not mixed. For instance, this separation was suggested by an expatriate: “They both do (impact on my work well-being) … one creates a filter … separates me from work” (Expatriate-Mining-07). Similarly, Expatriate-Mining-07’s spouse also confirmed that social networks improves her partner’s work well-being, “He gets to talk to other men about things that he might be worried about or confused about … [to] share [ideas], brainstorm” (Spouse-Mining-07).

Social networks also acted as a source of support for expatriates in completing their job or to deal with challenging tasks. For instance, as mentioned by an
expatriate, “If I need an information, or advice about something … I can call these networks, or contacts, or friends … they give me advice … help me doing my job” (Expatriate-Mining-04). Social networks also helped expatriates in developing business and securing a job. This eventually contributes to expatriate success and work well-being. However, there is a significant difference in dealing with Indonesians and expatriates, for example, as pointed out by an expatriate participant:

... you have a good set of personal relationship with them as well as business relationship ... if I went to see Indonesian clients, I would talk to them about personal things and then they are ready to get around to talking about business ... with expatriates they were more wanting to talk about business and possibly talk about family things afterwards. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-06)

On the other hand, a small number of expatriates (n = 4) and a couple of HR managers (n = 2) thought that social networks do not impact on expatriate work well-being. This is particularly evident for expatriates living and working in a remote site due to the limited availability of social life and social circle. For example, this issue was raised by an expatriate:

... everybody knows that you're there to work as opposed to say, if I was living at home in Australia and I had a job nearby, when I am home I know that I am at home but because I am living abroad I know that I am abroad to work. So in my situation, you are always in company housing, eating in a company restaurant with a company car, working and even socialising with the people you work with so everybody knows they're at work so it has a bit of a different mood than if you're doing the same thing in your home town. (Expatriate-Mining-33)

How social networks impact on expatriate work well-being may also be ambiguous. This was pointed out by an expatriate participant:

I mean social as opposed to what? If I was just purely in work mode where I would just give instructions all the time and we just purely talk about work I can still get by with that ... whether it's like in a network point of view some of these guys that have worked in my previous company whether we're just chatting about what the other guys are up to ... I'm happy not to have a huge amount of network. I can get by without it right? (Expatriate-Mining-19)
Expatriate-Mining-19’s view is in line with his HR manager’s account who confirmed that expatriates can separate their personal and professional life, “… they can do separately, for their personal life and for work.” (HR-Mining-04).

In addition, when asked about the impact of contact with headquarters to expatriate work well-being, it yielded a mixed results. Regular contact with headquarters could have negative impact on expatriate work well-being since all decisions are centralised through headquarters and expatriates are not involved in the decision making process. For example, this concern was expressed by an expatriate who worked for a global business who commented:

... puts me in the negative area ... we used to be a lot more autonomous ... whereas now it is a lot more autocratic ... so all of the decisions are centralised through (global head offices) so we’re more of a function of ... become more of a function of preparing recommendations and reports and everything rather than doing things. (Expatriate-Mining-10)

Also, Expatriate-Mining-10’s HR manager confirmed and added the limited amount of information that expatriates can now access given the change in management and how it negatively affected expatriate work well-being. He said

In the past is that the expatriates felt more comfortable ... they had better work well-being because they were able to gather more information ... from global office... now the information is only locally ... the communication channel with the global executives was better in the past ... the opportunity gets lesser ... they take more precautions and be more careful of passing statements or providing approvals unlike in the past so now people feel different. (HR-Mining-01)

On the contrary, some expatriates believed that having close contact with all offices is important to the survival of the business, hence, it is critical to expatriate work well-being. For instance, an expatriate participant emphasised the importance of having close contacts, “There’s gonna be a feeling of being left alone or they feel that they’re not important to the company … it generates jealousies … they are the bread and butter of the business” (Expatriate-Mining-03). Despite its importance of having close contacts with headquarters and other offices to the success of the business, there
are some issues in maintaining regular contacts, such as the issue with social distance. This issue was expressed by an expatriate participant: “We are spread across the world … social distance thing becomes really challenging because of the time gap, the time zone differences … the distance” (Expatriate-Mining-09).

Generally, social networks and regular contacts with the headquarters impacted on expatriate work well-being, as stated by almost all expatriates \((n = 39)\) and the majority of HR managers \((n = 5)\), while all of the spouses saw social networks as significantly impacting on expatriate work well-being. This shows that expatriates, HR managers, and spouses perceived structural social capital as having significant impact on expatriate work well-being, as such social networks and contacts with headquarter improved expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

Having explored the impact of structural dimension on expatriate work well-being, next, the impact of relational dimension on expatriate work well-being is discussed.

### 5.7 Relational dimension and expatriate work well-being

In this section, the impact of relational social capital on expatriate work well-being is examined. This was addressed by asking all three groups of participants (expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) about the importance of having good relationships with others as well as the importance of trust, and collegiality. Next, expatriates and HR managers were asked whether trust in business relationships impacts on expatriate work well-being, while spouses were not particularly asked about this question since this question is related to workplace context. All three groups of participants (i.e., expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) were asked whether collegiality impacts on expatriate work well-being Table 5.7 summarises this relational dimension of social capital and its impact on expatriate work well-being.
Table 5.7: Relational dimension of social capital, its elements, and impact on expatriate work well-being

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<th>Good relationship</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Collegiality</th>
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<td><strong>Relational dimension of social capital</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Expat (n=43)</strong></td>
<td><strong>HR (n=7)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Spouse (n=8)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>No</strong></td>
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<th>Impact of Trust on work well-being</th>
<th>Impact of Collegiality on work well-being</th>
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<td><strong>Expat (n=43)</strong></td>
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<td>93%</td>
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5.7.1 Good relationship

Almost all expatriate participants \((n = 42)\), all spouses \((n = 8)\) and all HR managers \((n = 7)\) confirmed the importance of having good relationships with others, be it their colleagues or friends. Only one expatriate \((n = 1)\) did not see the significance of having good relationships with others. The most frequently mentioned reason as to why they see it as important is because good relationships promotes effective communication with others which eventually leads to positive outcome. For example, in the work place context, having good relationships with colleagues helps expatriates to get their work done in an efficient and effective manner. Also, having good relationships with colleagues becomes more crucial in determining expatriate success in a collectivist place like Indonesia. For example, as an expatriate participant mentioned:

*I have to manage a team so my work colleague relations is essential. Managing a team in Indonesia is an art, and not many people have that ability. For an expatriate, generally you have to understand the cultural interfaces, you have to understand how the people here feel about being managed. You need to bring them close to you first and then you can manage them.* (Expatriate-Mining-08)

To be successful in Indonesia requires expatriates to build a family environment at work that emphasises team work. This is due to, for example, as suggested by an expatriate, “… especially here in Indonesia, there is no ‘I’ in team … we will work as a team, and we dialogue … we are all in an open office planning … so it is a family affair” (Expatriate-Mining-14). This team work environment is even more apparent in a smaller size organisation where all employees know each other and work together like a family. For example, as noted by an expatriate: “We are a small team and it's almost like a family atmosphere here … that’s been an important
part of being here. Indonesians really, are easy to get on with” (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-02).

Since Indonesians value family atmosphere in workplace, expatriates strive to embrace this value to be success. For example, an expatriate participant cited, “I’d like to build family-type environment … collaborative … to be successful at work, you need to build a successful team … if your team is individual, often you fail” (Expatriate-Mining-10). In response to this comment, Expatriate-Mining-10’s HR manager, confirmed the existence of family atmosphere in the workplace where the expatriates and locals have good relationships, “the expats and locals in the project and in the head office, they communicate and socialise very well” (HR-Mining-01).

Having good relationships with work colleagues is of great importance to expatriate work well-being since having good relationships facilitates good communication which eventually leads to success in conveying message. This, for example, was noted by an expatriate: “You communicate much better as a unit … if you don’t then you spend a lot of time doing jobs that have to get done 2–3 times” (Expatriate-Mining-13). Given the negative effect of the financial crisis which greatly impacts the mining industry and results in its significantly shrinking size, having good relationships with others determines expatriates’ existence in the industry. For instance, this issue was raised by an expatriate who said: “You always meet each other … so you maintain cordial and good relationships with everybody” (Expatriate-Mining-29). This shrinking size is also exacerbated by the mining industry’s secluded nature which creates such a small-closed circle. For example, as mentioned by an expatriate participant, “You work with these people and then you socialize with them … you have to be very careful that any issues on the job didn’t spill over when you’re meeting them off the job” (Expatriate-Mining-30). For other expatriates in a support
role, establishing good relationships with colleagues was seen as fulfilling the purpose of their role, for example, as noted by an expatriate:

... if I am not helping them I am not fulfilling the purpose of being here ... if you are in a foreign country, you are not interacting with your coworkers or at least making an effort, you are not really growing and developing. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01)

An expatriate couple shared their similar views on the significance of having good relationships with others, particularly in Indonesia:

Relationships are important anyway but probably here (in Indonesia is) more so ... if you enjoy interacting with people, people will enjoy working with you, if you feel that you can learn something from them. But if there is a personal thing you don’t like or you don’t interact with, it is not a good exchange of information then it is a negative on all accounts on both sides. (Expatriate-Mining-11)

In Indonesia I think it is because people are expected to join a club or join a group, social group, which is very different than when we were living in Australia or America, you can have 1 or 2 friends ... But in Indonesia it is kinda expected especially in a work function. (Spouse-Mining-11)

However, a differing view comes from an expatriate who thought that having good relationships brings about negative effect to his work well-being since he is an introvert who works better in solitude:

I’m happy ... horrible introvert ... going out socialising ... having dinner with strangers and breakfast with strangers doesn't come easy ... it’s distracting me. (Expatriate-Mining-27)

Being an introvert in a highly collectivist context might be challenging since to be success in the business, hence, to have high work well-being, requires building relationship and socialising with other people. For example, with Expatriate-Mining-27’s case where he enjoyed solitude to do his work and disliked social functions, he then delegated the work that requires social interaction to his Chief Operation Officer:

I am the grumpy one at work ... I actually don’t, it never really occurs to me, at a theoretical level I’m supposed to be caring and understanding ... that’s why I have a second in charge. That’s his job is be nice to everyone. (Expatriate-Mining-27)

Having good relationships with others, including work colleagues, is important to expatriate work well-being, especially to ensure their success in
Indonesia. Almost all expatriates \((n = 42)\) but one \((n = 1)\) confirmed its importance. All HR managers \((n = 7)\) and all spouses \((n = 8)\) emphasised that having good relationships with others is positive to individuals’ well-being, including expatriate work well-being.

**5.7.2 Trust**

As for trust, almost all expatriate participants \((n = 42)\) as well as all HR participants \((n = 7)\) and spouse participants \((n = 8)\) considered trust as one critical aspect. But while most expatriates \((n = 40)\) said that trust impacts their work well-being, the remainder \((n = 3)\) reported no impact of trust on their work well-being. The most cited reasons as to why trust is important to expatriate work well-being are: (a) to make sure the job is well done without having to micro-manage or redo the same tasks twice; (b) to build good reputation in the market; (c) to have a healthy working relationship by delivering what has been promised; (d) to make sure all the information being shared.

Trust gives peace of mind to expatriates by ensuring them that they do not have to question their colleagues’ work and that expatriates can rely on their colleagues. For instance, as noted by an expatriate participant:

*I don’t have to go and check, basically redo (their work) … that’s important to work as a team and know that when you ask somebody to give you something, they will give you that … you learn to rely on people.* (Expatriate-Auxiliary-03)

Trust is also needed to build good reputation, which is of great significance to ensure expatriates’ success in Indonesia, particularly due to the lack of government support in Indonesia. For example, this issue was highlighted by an expatriate who said, “Because there is no backup, it is not a highly regulated place, it is a highly bureaucratic but not highly regulated” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08). Also, Indonesian employees’ trust to expatriates’ reputation is important to ensuring expatriate success.
in undertaking expatriate role in Indonesia. For example, an expatriate participant commented:

... if [Indonesians] feel I am just here badmouthing Indonesia and not really supportive, they won’t enjoy that either or they won’t open up because they feel like you are spying, you are just here and it's nothing. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01).

In line with his expatriate’s view, his HR manager added:

[Trust goes] both ways ... there is a tendency (for expats) to question the readiness of the nationals to do certain task ... so are with the nationals ... they think that expats are single player, and do not contribute to team. (HR-Oil and Gas-01)

Further, trust is also crucial in creating a healthy working relationship, which is achieved through delivering what an individual has been promised. Delivering what has been promised involves meeting the payment plan and being committed to own promises. For example, an expatriate participant explained “… if the client fails to meet that payment plan, trust goes down the drain…with a work colleague…Board of Directors is doing what they say they will do...” (Expatriate-Mining-09). Failing to deliver what has been promised causes disruption in expatriates’ work as trust is absence and hence negatively impacts on expatriate work well-being. This, for example, was suggested by an expatriate:

... we don’t have the trust with that client ... a lot of problems happening in the job site ... this is how it is supposed to be done ... because we don’t have trust with the client … he doesn’t have trust with us … things happening almost everyday, you have emails coming back and forth … this is what you said but you didn’t deliver … when I said this is going to happen, this is what I delivered. Again it’s all trust. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-01).

Not having trust may also distract expatriates from their work and take away the focus from the work itself. For instance, this was pointed out by an expatriate participant, “… you'll always thinking, you're always wondering and your focus is taken away from what you should be doing” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-05)
Trust is also important in knowing that nobody holds back any important information and that everybody has access to the information. For example, as cited by an expatriate:

... trust in information is being shared ... trust in work that is being completed on your behalf or to be provided ... that those individuals are not talking badly about you to other peers, or other counter-parts. (Expatriate-Mining-15).

This expatriate’s HR manager also acknowledged the importance of sharing all information and that failure in doing this results in poor relationship. He said:

They will then go see other people to deal and communicate with ... if the person is not trustworthy, how can they see this other person in real [genuine]. (HR-Mining-01)

Trust also involves maintaining confidentiality of information, both in personal and professional lives. For example, as mentioned by a spouse “...with your friends if you want to talk about personal matters you need to see if you can trust the person…” (Spouse-Mining-31). Trust also extends to personal life, such as in personal relationships, where trust gives a peace of mind to expatriates so that they can focus on their job, hence improves their work well-being,

I trust my husband if he works long distance, if I don’t trust him then it will make me stress and make him stress. As a human being, we always feel worry, so we need to trust, otherwise you can’t feel happy. (Spouse-Mining-31)

However, three expatriates (n = 3) did not consider trust as being crucial to their work well-being. For example, in an environment where trust is rather non-existent and the colleagues do not value trust, as an expatriate participant reported:

I have to say no (trust is not important) my two other business partners don’t trust each other so ... Well they dance around those (trust) issues but there is not fundamental trust in the end of the day between them ... So my job is to be like a marriage counsellor, trying to get the husband and wife to make the good decision they need to make. (Expatriate-Mining-06)

Almost all expatriates (n = 42) and all HR managers (n = 7) and all spouses (n = 8) stated it is important to have trust in every aspect of life, but when asked about
the impact of trust on expatriate work well-being, the number of expatriates who confirmed the impact of trust on their work well-being went down \( n = 40 \), while the number of HR managers were still the same \( n = 7 \). Trust is essential in all type of relationships, and particularly in the workplace context, trust determines expatriate success, hence, it significantly impacts expatriate work well-being. Some expatriates did not see trust as impacting on their work well-being since it is a part of their job to compromise the work with the colleagues. Also, trust becomes less critical to expatriate work well-being given the positive reputation of the organisation where an expatriate works. Therefore, people already established trust to that organisation due to its long time presence in Indonesia with excellent track record.

5.7.3 Collegiality

Almost all participants across all three groups recognised the importance of collegiality. Nearly all expatriates \( n = 42 \), all HR managers \( n = 7 \), and all spouses \( n = 8 \) confirmed its significance, and that collegiality is indeed existing in many aspects of life, including in the workplace and even in home life. From an HR perspective, collegiality is also significant for management as it provides them with assurance, including for its survival, for example, as noted by an HR manager: “… that we are going to complete the job on time … for the company to survive, we need support from the people, the managers … to support each other” (HR-Mining-02). Collegiality also creates a comfortable and supportive environment at work that eventually motivates the employees to perform well at work. For instance, as suggested by an expatriate: “… and support each other… then they want to come to work early, they want to work harder, they want to do all the right things” (Expatriate-Mining-04). Collegiality becomes even more crucial to a job that needs to be done in
a specific order where the final results rely heavily on the correct order. For example, an expatriate participant explained:

... it is often a series of tasks that need to be done in sequence and each one depends on the one before being done properly so it is not done properly then it will affect every step after that. (Expatriate-Mining-11)

Similarly, collegiality also extends to home life, where a husband and wife support each other, including with work-related tasks. For example, Expatriate-Mining-11’s spouse talked about how she helped her partner with work:

... especially because it is in Indonesian, so I think he trusts my Indonesian skill. I don’t do that often ... work on the translation, calculation, just because I know the formula because it is the same formula that we’re using in the report. It is not that much but I think it helps. (Spouse-Mining-11)

Further, when asked about the impact of collegiality on expatriate work well-being, nearly all expatriates \((n = 40)\), all HR managers \((n = 7)\) and almost all spouses \((n = 6)\) confirmed the significance of collegiality to expatriate work well-being. A small number of expatriates \((n = 3)\) and only a couple of spouses \((n = 2)\) said that collegiality is not significant to expatriate work well-being.

On the impact of collegiality to expatriate work well-being, there are four key issues that were raised by the participants: (a) creating a comfortable or happy work environment; (b) getting the work done well; (c) having a well-communicated message; and (d) providing support and social buffer.

First, a small number of expatriates \((n = 4)\) argued that collegiality is significant to expatriate work well-being since it creates a comfortable work environment. Collegiality can neutralise hostile environment at work, for example, an expatriate explained in details:

So (now we have a) much simpler model ... our challenge was to throw these two companies that used to be fierce competitors ... fierce competitors yesterday, now brothers today ... bringing those team together and getting them to work side by side rather than defending their own information ... getting the job done for both
companies until we bring that business into one global one eventually. (Expatriate-Mining-09)

Second, a number of expatriates \((n = 8)\) said that collegiality is especially critical to get the job well done or to successfully execute the work. Collegiality ensures the equal share of workload. For instance, as suggested by an expatriate: “If the workload is not being shared evenly, then obviously someone is gonna work extra hours … higher staff turnover” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08). Collegiality also saves expatriates from wasting their time doing things that are not important. This issue was highlighted by an expatriate: “So you don’t waste time trying to sort out other people’s problems or problem stretched by certain things” (Expatriate-Mining-13).

Third, a number of expatriates \((n = 6)\) suggested that collegiality is important to their work well-being since it ensures that the message is well-communicated and that there is no information silo. As proposed by an expatriate, an information silo refers to “… individuals of groups of people that seem to work in autonomous nature than working with anybody else” (Expatriate-Mining-22). This silo has a negative impact to expatriate work well-being and collegiality can prevent this sort of silo to occur. Without the existence of information silo, a healthier workplace will be created and thus, contribute to expatriate work well-being. For instance, as pointed out by an expatriate, “People will be generally happier, people will be better informed, people know more about what is going on. They have a binding to the collective vision of where we’re pushing this company” (Expatriate-Mining-02).

Last, half of the expatriate participants \((n = 22)\) suggested that providing support bases or acting as social buffers as the rationale why collegiality is important to their work well-being. Collegiality is critical for expatriates since a lot of tasks require teamwork and without it the tasks can’t be completed. This was stressed by an expatriate who stated: “If I'm going to succeed I have to have that level of collegiality
in the workplace” (Expatriate-Mining-30). Knowing people on a more social level may facilitate collegiality and this is especially important to site-based expatriates who face many spillover effects. For example, a site-based expatriate said:

So if you have a clashes at work it can affect your home life ... because everything is so closely tied together and we work with each other all day, we see each other socially at night. (Expatriate-Mining-33)

Collegiality significantly impacts expatriate work well-being as it provides them with psychological security and a sense of belonging. For example, from an HR perspective, it is stated “...if everyone is willing to support you...then you will feel supported and relieved from your burden...” (HR-Mining-05). Having a high level of collegiality also prevents expatriates from experiencing any negative emotions as it provides them with support. This, for example, was acknowledged by an expatriate: “… anxiety and stress – if you don’t have the support then your work well-being is going to be much poorer” (Expatriate-Mining-07). Further, collegiality is not limited to work relations, it is also apparent between husband and wife, which significantly improves expatriate work well-being. For instance, as mentioned by a spouse, “He asked me what do I think about job related matters … the information really helped him … he sometimes asked me about work-related issue” (Spouse-Auxiliary-03).

In contrast, a smaller number of expatriates (n = 3) did not think that collegiality is significant to their work well-being. Collegiality could be a burden and interferes with job performance where solitary time is needed to get the work done. For example, an expatriate participant emphasised: “There’s a never-ending strain of people asking you questions … I can’t get that sort of intellectual work done in that environment … I have to go and sit in the cupboard” (Expatriate-Mining-27). Collegiality is also not needed for self-sufficient individuals who can perform the job by themselves without help or assistance from others. For example, as mentioned by
an expatriate … I am kinda self-sufficient … work is not important for me compared to my family … if I don’t like work, we could just retire” (Expatriate-Mining-06).

Collegiality is important and it is apparent in any sort of relationships as it provides the individuals with a support base and this is especially important to ensure expatriate success. Almost all expatriates and all HR managers confirmed the significance of trust and collegiality on expatriate work well-being, while the majority of spouses thought that collegiality has a significant impact on expatriate work well-being. This indicates that expatriates, HR managers, and spouses perceived relational social capital as having a significant impact on expatriate work well-being, as such high levels of trust and collegiality significantly improved expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Having explored the impact of relational dimension on expatriate work well-being, next, the impact of cognitive dimension on expatriate work well-being is discussed.

5.8 Cognitive dimension and expatriate work well-being

In this section, the impact of cognitive social capital on expatriate work well-being is examined. This is addressed by an examination of views of all three groups of participants (expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) about the importance of having shared view, a clear goal, and sharing common challenges. Expatriates and HR managers were asked whether having a clear goal impacts on expatriate work well-being, while spouses were not asked this question since this question is related to organisational context. Then all three groups of participants (i.e., expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) were asked whether expatriates experience similar challenges or issues in Indonesia which are common to all other expatriates in Indonesia and whether it impacts on expatriate work well-being. Table 5.8 presents this cognitive dimension of social capital and its impact on expatriate work well-being.
Table 5.8: Cognitive dimension of social capital, its elements and impact on expatriate work well-being

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<th>Cognitive dimension of social capital</th>
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<th>Clear goal</th>
<th>Common challenges</th>
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5.8.1 Shared view

When asked about the importance of having a shared view (i.e., a common vision that is shared among people), most expatriates \( n = 39 \) thought that it is important to their work well-being while others \( n = 4 \) saw it as rather insignificant to their work well-being. All HR managers \( n = 7 \) and all spouses \( n = 8 \) agreed that having a shared view is important in shaping an individual’s goal in life, including people who work as expatriates. Having a shared view is important, although at the beginning of the process before arriving at one common view, everyone’s view is quite diverse, but the ability and the process to arrive at a common view is really critical to expatriate work well-being. For example, the following view was suggested by an expatriate participant:

... at the beginning you might not have a shared view ... to be able to see each other’s view points ... if we have different positions on a topic to concede, sometimes human pride you don’t want to admit ... you don’t want to change your position, some people don’t like to do that ... but the ability to say okay I see your point ... we can do it like this to solve your problem ... that means moving away from your original position, some people don’t want to do that ... I’m sticking to it. (Expatriate-Mining-16)

Shared view is critical because it ensures that everyone works towards the same goal and that there is one underlying principle shared among people. This was mentioned, for example, by an expatriate: “Everyone needs to be believe in one story, why you come to work every day, what is it that you’re trying to do” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08). Having a shared view can also help make the employees (including expatriates) be more motivated to work together toward the same direction. For instance, as highlighted by an expatriate “… they become more identified with the work and they are more willing to carry out the work itself” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-06). From an HR perspective, shared view also involves knowing the purpose of the
presence of the company, and particularly for expatriates, it is related to their function in the home country. For example, as mentioned by an HR manager:

... the expats are representing the international face of the company so they should know that they are actually representing the company in whatever their function is. (HR-Mining-03).

This HR manager’s view is also supported by his expatriate employee, who emphasised the importance of sharing the company’s view with all employees. He added:

It is important so everybody knows what is the mission of the company ... it is shared from time to time so people know what you’re working toward. (Expatriate-Mining-20).

Shared view is not only needed in workplace context, it is also needed in other aspects of life, such as in home life. From a spouse point of view, shared view includes the ability to work together to reach goals in life. For example, an expatriate couple (Expatriate-Mining-04 and Spouse-Mining-04) shared the same view on the importance of having a shared view of their life. The spouse commented:

... you’re working together to get somewhere or to live your life ... how each of you wants to live your life. (Spouse-Mining-04)

Similarly, the expatriate believed that shared view serves as a guidance to reach the common goal and it affects work well-being in that:

If you don’t know where you’re going, then you’re a little bit lost ... if people have a common view on where we’re going as a team, then we’ll be able to get there together [and be successful]. (Expatriate-Mining-04)

On the contrary, to the majority of expatriates who affirmed the importance of having a shared view, some of their counterparts ($n = 4$) thought that it is not critical to have. Shared view may not be important to individual expatriate work well-being, but it is critical for the team success where having a common view shared among team members helped set the goal and thus, directions to reach the end goal. For example, as explained by an expatriate:
... for the team it is ... it affects people in a different way, independent or self-motivated people don’t need it ... ultimately everyone likes to know what it is we’re doing ... what it is we’re trying to achieve. (Expatriate-Mining-10).

Similarly, from HR perspective, for example, Expatriate-Mining-10’s HR manager confirmed that employees need to have a shared view in order to be successful, and this is the responsibility of the management to ensure this. He noted: “For example, we changed our approach … and that is shared with all the people … shared discussion, shared knowledge and agreement to make it happen” (HR-Mining-01).

It was also considered impossible to have a shared view among all employees who are highly diverse in nature and when most people just see their work as a means to survival. For example, an expatriate explained:

*I’m not one of those people that believes that every employee holds hands with each other and sings Kumbaya or they’ve all got a mission. I think if you’re lucky enough to have a job that you really enjoy, you’re in the minority rather than the majority, I think the majority of people have a job that they do because they have to subsist to survive.* (Expatriate-Mining-17)

Having a shared view is important to aid the process in reaching the goal and to agree on setting the common goal itself. Almost all expatriates \((n = 39)\) and all HR managers \((n = 7)\) and spouses \((n = 8)\) confirmed the significance of having a shared view in their lives since having a shared view brings everyone in agreement on how to reach the end goal.

### 5.8.2 Clear goal

Almost all expatriates \((n = 38)\) and all HR managers \((n = 7)\) said that the headquarters set a clear goal for all of the business units. Spouses were not asked about their views on this issue since it is unrelated to their experience. The financial crisis resulting from the downturn in the industry has shifted the goal to survival game, where most organisations’ main focus is to survive through the financial crisis, and the goal also
changes frequently. For example, as argued by an expatriate, “Right now the goal is cost-saving and how to get benefit from the market” (Expatriate-Mining-12).

Although the headquarters set a goal for the business units, the goal of each business unit was found to be more critical to expatriate success. This issue was highlighted, for example, by an expatriate who proposed: “The goal of the business … [does] not [have] the entire bearing on work well-being…. Local business unit is by far the most influential” (Expatriate-Mining-15). Similarly, from an HR perspective, the local business unit goal is more important to achieve; for example, Expatriate-Mining-15’s HR manager added: “When the actual plan is cascaded to Indonesia, the Indonesian office has their own KPI to achieve” (HR-Mining-01).

On the other hand, a small number of expatriates \( n = 5 \) said that the headquarters or the organisation do not formally set an organisational goal. The goal is generally understood by the employees and that there is no specific goal set by the head office cascaded down to all employees. For instance, two expatriate participants talked about simple goals that they have, “The goals were understood that this job had to be finished” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-06); and to be skilled in own job, such as “… the only goal you can say is, if you have a very good competent job” (Expatriate-Auxiliary-04).

When asked about the impact of having a clear goal from headquarters for their work well-being, nearly all expatriates \( n = 39 \) and almost all HR managers \( n = 5 \) said that it is important to expatriate work well-being. Having a clear goal gives a sense of purpose and underlying reason for working. For instance, as indicated by an expatriate participant: “It gives you a purpose for why you’re going to work … unless you’re just working for the money, which is very terrible, actually … then you need to have that goal” (Expatriate-Mining-04). Having a clear goal also helps aligning
interests in the organisation although the goal needs to be constantly revisited to make sure its relevance. For example, as suggested by an expatriate:

*It helps to how interest are aligned rather than focal goal maybe … it’s important I think to put something out and say this is what as an organisation we’re trying to obtain or reach whatever it maybe … work towards that – if you achieve it then you rephrase it and go again or change it.* (Expatriate-Mining-28)

From an employer perspective, having a clear goal is really important for the success of the business as it serves as a guidance and standard to consult to and to prevent failure. For example, as highlighted by an expatriate:

*We have a strategic 5 years business plan … urgent is red, must have is yellow, should have is white … this morning we had (a meeting) with the team and we had going in this business plan … that’s how we tackle that. You’ve probably heard this saying, maybe not, in HR “if you measure it, you will manage it”. So we are very disciplined in project management and measuring what we need to manage otherwise we’re all humans … maybe tomorrow, maybe one might not do it today.* (Expatriate-Mining-09)

From an HR perspective, the management needs to communicate a clear message and instruction to ensure the goal is understood and shared among all employees, including expatriates. For example, as stated by an HR manager: If the top says A it needs to be A all the way to the lower levels” (HR-Mining-01). This, in turn, helps all employees to work together in harmony and unity to reach the goal.

In addition, a clear goal from headquarters is important at the core, but sometimes it does not necessarily apply to the reality on site when local goals become more critical. For example, as explained by an expatriate participant:

*It is important to know what you do and what the company stance is on a lot of situations … but when it gets into the lower level stuff how you do your job and why you did do it that way, once they start getting into lower aspect of your job that’s when it becomes the hindrance.* (Expatriate-Mining-33)

Working for the same organisation, Expatriate-Mining-33’s HR manager also emphasised on the importance of adjusting organisational goal to own personal goal since personal goal is more vital to expatriate work well-being. As he stated:
... a clear goal is on a personal level, while the company charter ... it will be translated to the personal goals. (HR-Mining-05)

On the other hand, a small number of expatriates ($n = 4$) and only a couple of HR managers ($n = 2$) thought that having a clear goal from headquarters is insignificant to expatriate work well-being. For example, due to the current financial crisis and how mining industry has been badly affected by it, a clear goal becomes less important where all employees know that the most important thing to do is to make sure that the organisation still survives. For instance, this issue was raised by an expatriate: “If you take the last two years we're just in survival mode so everyone knows we got to survive so we just do whatever we got to do to survive” (Expatriate-Mining-19).

Contrary to Expatriate-Mining-19’s comment, his HR manager thought that a clear goal is vital to the employees’ work well-being, including expatriates, especially since they are now in survival mode. As she emphasised: “It is about their life or death.. do you still want to get your salary? Then you have to achieve your goal” (HR-Mining-04).

Having a clear goal is important to give an individual’s sense of purpose in life. Similarly, in the workplace, it is important that the organisational goals are understood by all employees to make sure everyone, including expatriates, is working together in harmony to reach the goals. All HR managers ($n = 7$) confirmed that their organisations have clear organisational goals, and a majority of them ($n = 5$) believed that a clear goal impacts on expatriate work well-being. Only a small number of expatriates ($n = 5$) said that their organisations do not set a clear goal and even fewer expatriates ($n = 4$) stated that a clear goal does not impact on their work well-being. This may be due to the lack of clear system and structure in the organisation, for example, as suggested by an expatriate participant: “Without having a defined job
description, its very difficult to have a continual defined goal on everything you do … therefore that isn’t totally important to me” (Expatriate-Mining-17).

5.8.3 Common challenges

When asked whether they think that they share similar challenges with other expatriates, most expatriate participants ($n = 34$) thought that they do share similar challenges, all HR managers ($n = 7$) also thought that their expatriate employees experience challenges that are common to other expatriates, while only half of the spouses ($n = 4$) think that they and their expatriate spouses share similar challenges with other expatriates. On the other hand, a number of expatriates ($n = 9$) and half of spouses ($n = 4$) did not think that expatriates share similar challenges with other expatriates in Indonesia.

These common challenges include the frustration over Indonesian government regulations, language barriers, quality of communication with locals, Indonesian culture (including religion), traffic, Indonesian work ethics, difficulties in dealing with people, obstacles in doing their day to day routine, and concerns with health issue. For example, Indonesia is the biggest Muslim country in the world with devoted and religious Muslims and this could pose challenges to expatriates and their work well-being:

[In a Western context] if a Muslim was going to go and pray five times a day, that just wouldn’t happen and taking an extra long lunch break on a Friday to do prayer day wouldn’t happen and fasting month changing the office hours so that we can come in earlier and leave earlier, would not have happened. I can still find that immensely frustrating if you have a deadline to do, you have to be culturally aware…you need to try and plan around. (Expatriate-Mining-17)

Another expatriate participant stressed about adaptation:

All expatriates experience similar challenges generically … a challenge of adapting … you have to trade off the positives for the negatives and understand what they are and resolve them … you cannot look back to what you don’t have. … So it’s the kind of change curve as an acceptance is obvious but critical. (Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01)
Similarly, Expatriate-Oil and Gas-01’s HR manager also highlighted expatriates challenge in adapting: As she said: “Adapting to (Indonesian) culture … adapting to working with Indonesians … otherwise it can be problematic for their work” (HR-Oil and Gas-01).

There is, however, a major division among all expatriates in Indonesia which expatriates identified, as an expatriate couple explained:

_I tell you 50:50. There is half of the expats would think my way, who are very happy to be in Indonesia, who feel very lucky to be here, who enjoy being here. And I think the other half hate it ... I have been here four years. But everybody either loves it or hates it._ (Expatriate-Mining-04)

_There is a group of people, they’re like me, they’re really happy to be here and we just see the positives and then there is another group of people who would just don’t like it at all here, they focus on negatives._ (Spouse-Mining-04)

In some instances, expatriates develop a strong feeling toward Indonesia and turn them to be more like an Indonesian: “One of my staff accused me of that. Saying you're not an Australian, you're an Indonesian … I have a long way to go” (Expatriate-Mining-27).

The way individuals look at problems differs from one to another. Some do inward looking while others do outward looking. For example, an expatriate participant said how he does not compare his experience with others:__

_I know others would get frustrated over simple stupid things whether it is traffic or whether it is people or I have to go to government department ... to me that is the beast I am dealing with ... but I know other expatriate get frustrated, blame this blame that ... there are some good things and there are some difficult things ... I look at solutions._ (Expatriate-Mining-23)

Having privilege (i.e., money, power, special treatment, and luxury facilities) can also be challenging for expatriates as such numerous temptations arise with the power expatriates have. This impacts on expatriate work well-being since trying to
balance work and extracurricular activities does not come easy. For example, as pointed out by an expatriate:

[The challenge] is navigating the task … there are enormous numbers of extra curricular temptations if you’d like … come and find that balance so that you're still performing, maintaining a professionalism and your integrity while enjoying … whatever extra curricular activities that you can … there are many task that follow under those. (Expatriate-Mining-27).

On account of its impact on their work well-being, a large number of expatriate participants \((n = 31)\) asserted the significance of sharing similar challenges, while less than half of the HR managers \((n = 3)\) and most of the spouses \((n = 5)\) affirmed its significant impact on expatriate work well-being. Knowing the presence of common challenges that are shared among all expatriates in Indonesia may impact on expatriate work well-being if expatriates set up a high and unrealistic expectation which can’t be met and will only bring expatriates down. For instance, an expatriate stated: “If you would expect everyone to speak English, for example, then it will be hard … if you don’t accept that, you don’t realise the environment, then you’ll get frustrated” (Expatriate-Mining-13). Knowing that other expatriates also experience similar challenges impacts on expatriate work well-being as it provides expatriates with a sense of acceptance and belongingness. For example, as pointed out by an expatriate who said: “When you realise that it’s a commonality amongst multiple people, it's not just you feeling the issues … acceptance” (Expatriate-Mining-15).

Sense of community among expatriates is particularly important since there are several things that expatriates can only relate to their fellow expatriates. For example, as highlighted by an expatriate:

*You’re not the only one that is getting these problems.... Sometimes you get a phone call from an expat and you talk for an hour ... he called to just vent [his frustration] ... He wants to be able to get it all out to a similar person, whereas if he tries to talk to Indonesians about it, they wouldn't understand or he doesn't have anybody at his level to talk about it. (Expatriate-Mining-31)*
On the other hand, Expatriate-Mining-31’s spouse thought that sharing similar challenges is not important to expatriate work well-being as it bears no significance to expatriate. She said:

*It is not an important thing for him to think about. He just lives (his life) and just let it flow ... it does not bother him.*

From an HR perspective, HR manager HR-Mining-03, for example, saw that expatriates like to discuss and share the challenges they face in Indonesia with other expatriates in order to find solutions to their problems, “They are always sharing about their perceptions in small gathering” (HR-Mining-03). Sharing and discussing common challenges is critical to expatriate work well-being to help vent their frustration and to get a relief from the stress they are experiencing. For instance, an expatriate talked about how he shared his frustration with other expatriates, “We laugh about it so yeah it does [impact]” (Expatriate-Mining-06). This expatriate’s spouse, Spouse-Mining-06, who is also an expatriate, tried to accept the challenges that they share together, “We don’t know want to talk about this, we try not to complain to each other, so just accept it” (Spouse-Mining-06).

In contrast, a number of expatriates \((n = 12)\), more than half of HR managers \((n = 4)\), and a couple of spouses \((n = 2)\) said that sharing similar challenges with other expatriates do not impact on expatriate work well-being. Long-term expatriates suggested that experiencing similar challenges does not affect their work well-being any more since they have been in Indonesia for a long time and have become more accustomed to the culture. For example, a long-term expatriate said, “It is much more relevant when you first arrive and you're single and all of those things” (Expatriate-Mining-27). Sharing common challenges is also not important to expatriate work well-being if the expatriate is sitting in a senior position since they do not have as many counterparts sitting on the same level as them. For instance, this was expressed
by an expatriate, “I run the business so I don’t have too many colleagues or peers … what I’d like to see is expat successful in operating in Indonesia” (Expatriate-Mining-10). Having an Indonesian wife, Expatriate-Mining-11 and his spouse, Spouse-Mining-11 offered a different perspective in viewing challenges they face in Indonesia:

*I have a lot of support groups here like mainly family and friends and also my cultural background is basically here…oh yes, I am out of his hair.* (Spouse-Mining-11)

*I don’t have to worry about when I go home in the afternoon, where should I be in two years.* (Expatriate-Mining-11)

...*which is some of our friends, we come to their house and their wife would be like, I am not happy here, and it affects their job.* (Spouse-Mining-11)

Most expatriates in Indonesia generally share common challenges, as acknowledged by the majority of expatriate participants, all HR managers, and half of the spouses in this study; while another half of spouses and some of expatriates did not think that expatriates share similar challenges with other expatriates in Indonesia. To expatriates, this might be attributable to having local spouses as this allows expatriates to learn more about the culture while at the same time provides expatriates with strong support network from the spouse’s family. Knowing that all expatriates in Indonesia generally share similar challenges is important to expatriate work well-being as it provides them with a sense of acceptance and belonging. This significance is confirmed by the majority of expatriate participants, less than half of HR managers, and more than half of the spouses.

**5.9 Conclusion for structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions**

As for structural dimension, generally, social networks and regular contacts with the headquarters impact on expatriate work well-being, as stated by almost all expatriates (*n = 39*) and the majority of HR managers (*n = 5*), while all of the spouses (*n = 8*) saw
social networks as significantly impacting on expatriate work well-being. Next, with regards to relational dimension, almost all of the expatriates \((n = 40)\) and all HR managers \((n = 7)\) confirmed the significance of trust and collegiality on expatriate work well-being, while the majority of spouses \((n = 6)\) thought that collegiality has significant impact on expatriate work well-being. Last, in relations to cognitive dimension, the majority of expatriates \((n = 39)\) and HR managers \((n = 5)\) stated that having a clear goal from the headquarters impacted on expatriate work well-being, while a smaller number of expatriates \((n = 31)\), less than half the HR managers \((n = 3)\), and a number of spouses \((n = 5)\) thought that sharing common challenges impacted on expatriate work well-being.

The above findings address three sub-research questions in this study. The first sub-research question \((RQA)\) is: "How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?" The finding shows that expatriates perceived structural, relational and cognitive social capital as having significant impact on expatriate work well-being. This suggests that expatriates considered social networks, contacts with headquarters, trust, collegiality, clear goal and sharing common challenges improved expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

The second sub-research question \((RQB)\) is "How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?" The findings indicate that expatriate spouses perceived structural, relational and cognitive social capital as having significant impact on expatriate work well-being. This means that expatriate spouses thought social networks, contacts with headquarters, trust,
collegiality, clear goal and sharing common challenges significantly influenced expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

The third sub-research question (RQc) is “How do HR managers perceive structural, relational and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” The findings suggest that HR managers perceived structural, relational, and cognitive social capital as having significant impact on expatriate work well-being. This shows that HR managers saw social networks, contacts with headquarters, trust, collegiality, clear goal and sharing common challenges improved expatriate work well-being for expatriates working in the resources sector in Indonesia.

5.10 Support received
In overcoming the challenges they face in Indonesia, expatriates received support and assistance from other people, including fellow expatriates and locals. This includes support and assistance with work-related issues; making this support critical to expatriate work well-being. The amount of support received by expatriates varies across expatriates, while the sources of support are categorised into two types, namely informal and formal support. A number of expatriates also stated that they managed to tackle the challenges they face in Indonesia without receiving any support or assistance from others. However, some expatriates have also mentioned multiple types of support they received (i.e., formal and informal support) as well as claimed to be self-sufficient.

5.10.1 Informal
Most expatriate participants (n = 21), only one HR manager (n = 1), and more than half of the spouses (n = 5) reported receiving support from their friends or colleagues in Indonesia (or even abroad) in dealing with the challenges they face in Indonesia,
whether it is work-related or day-to-day activities. This form of support has been found to be effective in overcoming their challenges despite the lack of support that management offered. By overcoming the work-related challenges, expatriates felt that they become more successful at and satisfied with work, and hence, contributed to their work well-being. For example, an expatriate participant received help from his other expatriate colleague on how to manage things in an Indonesian workplace. As he suggested: “A colleague has written some very good papers … on the management styles … there’s no management support at all … not even management recognition until later” Expatriate-Mining-32). Similarly, another expatriate also indicated the lack of support from his organisation or even embassy and he highlighted the quality of advice given by their friends by taking into account their length of stay in Indonesia. He explained that:

We don’t get assistance from the Australian government, we don’t get the assistance from our own company … 90% of the assistance coming from other expatriates… I think after year 1, the people are able to provide assistance and probably at around the 3 years mark, quite useful … (whereas) the guys who have been here at 10 years plus, are they actually giving a good advice or their advice is too old now because it is a very dynamic place. (Expatriate-Auxiliary-08)

5.10.2 Formal

A number of expatriates (n = 17) and almost all HR managers (n = 6), and only one (n = 1) spouse suggested that they received formal support. Even though the only kind of formal support provided by the employers that was reported by the participant is in the form of cross-cultural training or language lesson. This was found to be effective in helping expatriates adjusting to Indonesian culture and to adapt to expatriates work in Indonesia which contributes to expatriate work well-being. Also, this training goes both ways, meaning it applies for both expatriates and nationals. For example, as noted by an expatriate:
It was a very good … not only was it designed to educate expatriates on Indonesian culture, but it was also Indonesian on expatriate culture. (Expatriate-Mining-15)

From an HR perspective, Expatriate-Mining-15’s HR manager, for example, also confirmed the importance of cross-cultural training in aiding successful living and working in Indonesia for expatriates and in turn, to ensure expatriate success in Indonesia. He commented:

It is basically to provide the expats with understanding on how to deal with Indonesian customs, tradition, and Indonesian way of dealing with people. (HR-Mining-01)

Other forms of support offered by the employer that was mentioned by the participants is the assistance from a legal consultant to deal with expatriates’ paperwork, such as work permit. Acquiring a work permit is a long and complicated process, which may bring about stress to expatriates, hence it negatively impacts on expatriate work well-being since without a valid work permit expatriates can not work in Indonesia. Therefore, it is really important to have a consultant to assist expatriates with this issue. For example, as pointed out by an expatriate: “A consultant like an agent. And so we pay them a fee to help us” (Expatriate-Mining-30). In addition, local networking groups such as Djakarta Mining Club and Indonesian Mining Association have also served as expatriates’ avenues of support. These associations keep expatriates updated on important information in the industry as well as offers professional advice to overcome work-related issues. For instance, an expatriate highlighted that “they provide a body that has dialogue with the government to try and clarify some of the concerns that the industry has” (Expatriate-Mining-03). Being a member of these professional industry associations also serves as a means for business development for expatriates to promote their business, such as to secure a project from a potential client, hence, improving expatriate work well-being. For instance, an expatriate participant put emphasis on the importance of networking:
“It’s amazing the amount of business you will pick up through networking … if you network people or had a few drinks, casual, and then you pick some of his pay or something” Expatriate-Mining-14).

5.10.3 Self-sufficiency

A number of expatriates (n = 14), only one HR manager (n = 1), and only one (n = 1) spouse also claimed to be self-sufficient in overcoming the challenges they face in Indonesia. They develop their own support system while at the same time contributing to their own learning and personal growth. This eventually helps expatriates to overcome burdens at work and improve expatriate work well-being. For example, an expatriate participant came up with his own project to help him learn the Indonesian language at work. He explained:

*I employed fresh graduates from ITB and we started developing management system for the company, so we were writing standard operating procedures, so I will do the English column, and then they have to translate it ... and in doing that I picked it up very quickly because we were speaking bahasa.* (Expatriate-Mining-26)

Most expatriates received informal support from their friends or colleagues in overcoming challenges they face in Indonesia. This support involves assistance with work-related to day-to-day issues. Some expatriates made use of formal associations to seek support or assistance they face in Indonesia. These formal associations are mostly industry-based and expatriates generally consulted their work-related issues with other members. A small amount of expatriates also asserted that they self-managed their challenges. Informal support, formal support, and self-management were found to be significant to expatriate work well-being.

5.11 Conclusion

This chapter began with introducing the background context by presenting factors that motivated individuals to work in the resource sector organisations and to undertake an
international assignment in Indonesia, which was followed by their experiences living in Indonesia as well as discussing challenges they faced in Indonesia. The findings indicate that most expatriates were often motivated by the attractive opportunity to pursue their international career in the resources sector. This also included the lack of opportunity in their home countries. The experience living and working in Indonesia has been found to be generally positive despite the challenging situation or uncertainty resulting from Indonesian government regulations.

The chapter then presented the participants’ understandings of the concept of work well-being in general, and in work well-being in Indonesia in particular. Ten major themes, in a descending order, were discussed with regards to the concept of work well-being, namely: job attitudes, affect, benefits, social aspect, work atmosphere, security, eudaimonic or intangible rewards, work aspects, work-life balance, and organisational factors. The results suggested that most participants see work well-being as consisting of job attitudes, such as job satisfaction, as well as positive and negative affect. As for the expatriates’ work well-being in Indonesia, it was found to be highly influenced by Indonesian culture as well as Indonesian people.

The chapter then focused on individuals’ perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia in order to address three sub-research questions:

RQa: How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQb: How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?
RQc: How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

The findings indicate that expatriates, spouses, and HR managers perceived structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as significantly impacting on expatriate work well-being. Four associated major themes were then examined, namely: structural dimension; relational dimension; cognitive dimension; and types of support. Most participants reported that the availability of social capital did impact on expatriate work well-being, as such all three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions) significantly affected their work well-being level. Different types of support expatriates received were also highlighted.

Next, in the discussion chapter, the findings of this study are related to the extant literature. This is followed by an examination of the differences across three different groups of participants in this study (i.e., expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) in perceiving the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. A new conceptual framework of work well-being as perceived by the participants in this study is also presented.
CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This research explored the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. In doing so, this study examined the overarching research question (RQ): “How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in Indonesia?” across three groups of participants, namely resources sector expatriates in Indonesia, spouses, and HR managers. The current research builds a new conceptual framework of work well-being that is based on Fisher’s (2014) model of work well-being. The core theory which is used to examine the overarching research is Social Capital Theory (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) which focuses on the resources embedded in the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit, and thus, well-suited the qualitative nature of the current research which scope is to examine the individual and social units. In this chapter, the discussion is provided. The key themes are presented with regard to how the current research extends prior literature on expatriate/expatriation, work well-being, and social capital. In discussing the extant literature, the findings of this research support, disagree with, or extend and add to the related extant literature.

First, this chapter will examine the findings in this study related to expatriate/expatriation issues and contrast them with the extant literature. This section includes discussion about the types of expatriates, length of international assignment, roles of expatriates, culture shock, cross-cultural training, expatriates’ spouses and family; and their relation to expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Second, this chapter will explore the differences across three different
groups of participants in this study (i.e., expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) in their perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. In doing so, this section examines three sub-research questions: RQa: “How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?”; RQb: “How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?”; and RQc: “How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” This also involves examining the differences in how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being across a range of demographic factors, such as age, marital status, length of stay in Indonesia, previous international experience, years of expatriation, organisational ownership type, and location of work. Third, this chapter presents a proposed new conceptual framework of work well-being as perceived by the participants in this study.

6.2 Expatriates/expatriation

Prior research has examined the importance of expatriate employees for MNCs (e.g., Armstrong, Francis, & Grow, 2017; Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004); the increase in the number of expatriate employees working for local organisations implies that the need to source global talent has become more apparent not only for MNCs but also for local companies in order to enhance organisational performance and productivity. This study found that although a great number of the expatriate participants are currently working for local companies, they started out as organisationally assigned expatriates (AEs) who worked for MNCs. These expatriates
prefer to stay in Indonesia accepting work with another organisation after completing their previous assignment rather than returning to their home country. They are similar to McPhail et al.’s (2012) “glopatriates” who are devoted to pursuing a global career with 7–10 years of experience and are committed to stay on international assignments, but without obligations to stay with one organization (McPhail et al., 2012). Like McPhail et al.’s (2012) glopatriates, the long-term expatriates in this study valued their global networks, which serve as a means for career advancement and opportunities. Some long-term expatriates in this study were also recruited by local organisations directly from their home countries and are still working for the same local organisations that initially recruited them. These expatriates resemble McPhail et al.’s (2012) “propatriate”, who are defined as a professional expatriate with 7–10 years’ experience and who are committed to stay with their initial employing organisations.

This study also found that resources sector expatriates who are working for MNCs as AEs in Indonesia serve four different roles, as mentioned earlier in the findings chapter, where the participants talked about their roles as expatriates that ranged from: transferring values of the parent organisation, building networks, ensuring compliance, and bridging the relationship between parent and host country organisations. This is similar to Huynh et al.’s (2007) study, which proposed four roles of expatriates: agent of socialisation, network builder, agent of direct control, and boundary spanners. Some expatriate participants, particularly those who are in the highest management positions, were more likely to act as an agent of socialisation who transfers the values and beliefs of the parent organisation to the host organisation. The network builder expatriates were heavily involved in business development of the host organisation. The direct control expatriates, who exercise
bureaucratic control to ensure compliance, were more likely to work in the field and supervise the day-to-day operation as well as the work of HCNs. The boundary spanners bridging the relationship between parent and host organisations were those expatriates who work in the support function.

International assignments do not just affect the expatriates themselves, but may also affect the family as whole. This is particularly true for married expatriates with trailing spouse and children. Extant literature has found that family status and satisfaction of trailing spouse are significant to expatriate success (De Cieri, Dowling, & Taylor, 1991; Stone, 1991). This study found that the expatriate family (particularly the spouse) has a significant impact on determining an expatriate’s work well-being; for example, by creating the opportunity for expatriates to make friends and create support networks through contacts they make through their children’s schools. This finding extends the extant literature that discussed the importance of spouse and family experience living in the host country to expatriate failure or success (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Fenton, 2010; Jack & Stage, 2005; Sims & Schraeder, 2004; Tung, 1982; van Erp et al., 2011) by suggesting that the spouse and family’s experience living in the host country was also important to expatriate work well-being.

The current study also extends extant literature on expatriates/expatriation in relation to expatriates’ use of social capital, specifically in the context of Indonesia. This study found that the strength of social bonds between expatriates and HCNs plays a major role in determining expatriate work well-being, as reflected by perceived importance of relational social capital suggested by the participants in this study. For example, high levels of trust and collegiality between expatriates and HCNs were regarded as significant in ensuring success of the projects, which
impacted on expatriate work well-being. This particular finding extends Oranuch’s (2010) study, which found that the success of expatriates’ overall experience with the local culture is influenced by the strength of social bonds between expatriates and HCNs. This research also supports Fechter’s (2008) suggestion of the significant role that expatriate spouses have in establishing the link between expatriates and the expatriate community. This study found that the expatriate community provided a support network and a sense of belonging to expatriates, which had a positive impact on their well-being, and that it led to higher work well-being. Thus, while carrying this “bridging” role, expatriate spouses also served as a form of social capital for the expatriates that contributed to expatriate work well-being. While Fechter (2008) argued that the role played by expatriate spouses is important to improve expatriate experience living and working in Indonesia, the current study extends this by arguing that this particular role of expatriate spouse also aids in improving expatriate work well-being. This study found that the spouse “bridging” role is more pronounced among local spouses, given their roots with Indonesia and the breadth of their social support networks.

In conclusion, this section has presented several issues related to expatriate/expatriation issues in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital.

The findings in this current study add to prior literature by extending the concepts related to expatriate/expatriation by specifically examining the work well-being of expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia; a sector and a country that have received little attention in the extant literature.

6.3 New conceptual framework of work well-being
Fisher (2014) contended that work well-being is a multidimensional concept comprised of judgements of satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1969) and similar job
attitudes, as well as the experience of more positive and fewer negative moods and emotions at work (cf. Diener, 2002). It also takes into account the importance of personal growth, meaning and purpose (i.e., eudaimonic well-being), as well as social interactions and relationships at work (i.e., social well-being). Figure 6.1 illustrates the concept of work well-being as proposed by Fisher. The current study found that there are 10 major themes associated with work well-being, as explained by the perceptions of expatriates, spouses, and HR managers. These themes associated with the concept of work well-being in general are categorised in this research as follows (in descending order of importance): job attitudes, affect, benefits, social aspects, work atmosphere, security, eudaimonic or intangible rewards, work aspects, work-life balance, and organisational factors. The concept of work well-being in general was regarded by the participants in this study as mainly consisting of job attitudes and least recognised as comprising of organisational factors.

Further, the participants viewed expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia as consisting of eight specific key themes. The themes were: social aspect, security/safety, benefits, work aspects, eudaimonic aspect, job attitudes and other attitudes, affect, and organisational factors. Social aspects, such as Indonesian culture and people, was the most frequently mentioned component of expatriate work well-being, while organisational factors were viewed as the least influential to expatriate work well-being. This is apparent across all three groups of participants (expatriates, HR managers, and spouses).

Taken together, the findings extend Fisher’s (2014) model of work well-being, as illustrated in Figure 6.2. This new conceptual framework includes the following dimensions of work well-being: social well-being, eudaimonic well-being, job attitudes, affect (positive and negative), work-life balance, safety, and external
influence. The external influences include organisational factors and government policies. In creating the new conceptual framework, this study combined two different themes – expatriate work well-being in general and in the resources sector in Indonesia in particular. Similar to Fisher’s (2014) model, the findings of this study suggest that (a) social well-being, (b) eudaimonic well-being and (c) job attitudes occupy the three biggest portions because these three aspects were found to be vital to work well-being as suggested by the participants in this study. In contrast with Fisher’s (2014) model, the new conceptual framework swaps the two subdimensions of affect, as such positive affect occupies the bigger portion while negative affect sits in the smaller portion. This is because the participants in this study perceived the experience of positive affect to be felt more often than negative affect. Also, extending Fisher’s (2014) model, the new conceptual framework added three new aspects: work-life balance, security/safety, and external influence. Work-life balance sits in between job attitudes, positive affect, and negative affect, because whether or not an individual has a balance between their personal life and work life is determined by their level of job satisfaction and whether they are happy or distressed with their job and personal life. While safety is the antithesis of negative affect, the level of safety is determined by the presence of negative affect; that is, how external influence affects work well-being depends on safety level, eudaimonic well-being, and positive affect.
Figure 6.1: Fisher’s original model of work well-being (Fisher, 2014).

Figure 6.2: New conceptual framework of work well-being adapted from Fisher (2014) for this research.
How these aspects interact is explained in Figure 6.3. For example, an individual on the “high positive” spectrum is self-actualised (eudaimonic well-being), highly socialised (social well-being), satisfied with their job (job attitudes), has balance between work and personal life (work-life balance), is very happy (positive affect), rarely sad (negative affect), feels secure (safety), and experiences low external pressure (external influence). Next, each dimension of this new conceptual framework is highlighted. Next, to better understand the concept of work well-being as viewed by participants in this study, each aspect of work well-being is explained.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low Negative</th>
<th>High Positive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very low eudaimonic well-being</td>
<td>Very high eudaimonic well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low social well-being (isolated)</td>
<td>Very high social well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very negative job attitudes</td>
<td>Very positive job attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor work-life balance</td>
<td>Very good work-life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low positive affect</td>
<td>Very high positive affect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very high negative affect</td>
<td>Very low negative affect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low safety</td>
<td>Very high safety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very high external pressure</td>
<td>Very low external pressure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.3: Spectrum of high and low levels of work well-being.
6.3.1 Social well-being

In extending the recent conceptualisation of work well-being (job satisfaction and moods/emotions), Fisher (2014) argued that relationships in the workplace are also critical for individual’s work well-being. This is termed as social well-being, which involves quality connections with others at work, satisfaction with peers, relationships with leaders, and social support as well as feelings of belonging to and being embedded in work communities, from teams, departments, or the whole of the organisation (Fisher, 2014). Social support was found to buffer the effect of workplace stress, whilst giving as well as receiving social support is critical to an individual’s well-being (e.g., Shakespeare-Finch & Obst, 2011).

The findings of this study indicated that work well-being is by and large determined by the social aspect, hence, it supports Fisher’s (2014) notion of social well-being. The social aspect that was discussed by the participants includes the people who they work with and the culture, as well as the native language of the place. People to work with is a vital aspect of defining work well-being since “high quality connections” with others at work brings about energy and boosts individuals’ happiness in the workplace (Dutton, 2003), while Indonesian culture and Indonesian people in general were other two key issues that played a major role in determining work well-being levels for those in this study. For example, the Indonesian culture, which places importance on family and communal values, significantly influences expatriate work well-being in Indonesia because expatriates need to feel that they belong and are accepted in a team where everyone is supportive of each other’s work and where every member of the team takes responsibility for the team’s success, which eventually leads to higher expatriate work well-being levels.
6.3.2 Eudaimonic aspects

As an aspect of work well-being, Fisher (2010, p. 385) defined eudaimonic well-being as any actions resulting from the thought of what is seen as “virtuous, morally right, true to one’s self, meaningful, and/or growth producing” (see also Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Singer, 2008). This concept resembles Bellah, Masden, Sullivan, Swindler, and Tipton’s (1985) concept of calling at work, where an individual views their purpose of work to contribute to a greater good. Similarly the findings of this study suggests that the eudaimonic aspect consists of personal growth, help with other people’s growth, and intangible rewards and contribution to others. Individuals who are high in eudaimonic well-being levels pursue their goals and self-growth as well as self-actualisation, irrespective of their feelings at any given time (cf. Seligman 2002; Warr, 2007). Personal growth involves the opportunity for self-development and learning. This also entails feeling internally satisfied about having done the right thing and contributed to the community. For example, helping other people grow brings internal satisfaction to expatriates, especially by seeing their subordinates grow and advance in their career.

6.3.3 Job attitudes

In line with extant literature that suggests job satisfaction (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Dimotakis et al., 2011; Herzberg et al., 1969; Warr, 2007; Wright et al., 2007) and similar job attitudes constitute work well-being, this study also proposed that job attitudes is one of the main components of work well-being. Job attitudes include job satisfaction (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003), job performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge et al., 1998; Vroom, 1964; Wright et al., 2002; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000), and passion, engagement (Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Seppälä et al., 2009), and commitment (Carr et al., 2003; Hackett et al., 1994; Mathieu & Zajac,
1990; Porter et al., 1974; William & Hazer, 1986). Job satisfaction involves the value and contribution of the job to the individual, as well as the internal satisfaction the individual gets from the job. Job performance is also an important factor in determining work well-being levels (Wright et al., 2002). This involves meeting an individual’s work targets and contributing fully to the organisation. In this current study, being passionate, engaged, and committed was important for an individual’s work well-being as it makes them feel happy at work. For instance, being passionate about a job helps expatriates enjoy the work and look forward to coming to work, as noted by one of expatriate participants in this study where it served the purpose of “getting out of bed in the morning” (i.e., to go to work).

6.3.4 Affect

Prior literature found that the experience of more positive and fewer negative moods and emotions at work (cf. Diener, 2002) are important to work well-being (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). This study supports this by confirming the significance of moods and emotions (i.e., affect) on expatriate work well-being. Affect can be both positive (Cropanzano & Wright, 1999; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994; Wright & Staw, 1999) and negative (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Kidger et al., 2016; Lepine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). It includes emotions, moods, and feelings displayed at work or resulting from work. In this current study, positive affect includes positive feelings as well as the absence of negative pressure, while negative affect is represented by stress and negative feelings associated with rejection. For instance, positive affect involves the absence of anxiety, as stated by one of the expatriate participants in this study, where working in Indonesia brings about positive pressure, which is different to working in the home country that may entail a high level of pressure.
6.3.5 Work-life balance

Another finding in this study that extends past research (Fisher, 2014) is work-life balance. Carvalho and Chambel (2015) suggested that work-family balance and work well-being mediate the relationship between individuals’ perceived high-performance work practices and their subjective well-being. Adding to Carvalho and Chambel’s study, the findings of this study showed that work-life balance is an important aspect of work well-being. The current research suggests that work-life balance should also be included as a dimension of work well-being. Work-life balance reflects the balance between life at work and life outside work and gives attention to both one’s professional and personal life. As indicated by one expatriate participant, having a balance between work and personal life means possessing a balance between actual work hours and time spent with the family so they receive the attention they need. This is important to ensure that both work and family are well managed, while still performing well at work and spending enough time with the family so they are happy. Work-life balance becomes more crucial for expatriates since they live in a foreign country, away from their family and support base, which for expatriates also means the importance of knowing a number of people outside their work. Knowing people is positive to expatriate work well-being because it denotes a support system that serves to help expatriates.

6.3.6 Security/safety

This study found that security/safety plays a key role in determining expatriate work well-being. This particular finding extends the literature on work well-being by highlighting the importance of security/safety to levels of work well-being. Security/safety involves physical and psychological safety as well as a sense of
control or state of mind. The concern with physical and psychological safety includes physical and psychological threats associated with working in the resources sector, such as the presence of wild animals and dangerous dust, as well as the risk in operating heavy equipment, while psychological safety is concerned with the danger of isolation and strong masculinist cultures (Lovell & Critchley, 2010) associated with working in the resources sector. Physical security also entails the attitude of Indonesians toward safety where safety is not viewed as a top priority when conducting work, and which is exacerbated by the high risk in operating heavy machinery needed to run field operations. Also, the Indonesian economy, its physical and geographical infrastructure, and health aspects were mentioned by the expatriate participants as other issues related to physical security. Further, given the downturn in the industry, concern with psychological safety entails being financially secure and having a stable job. Financial issues were also a concern for the organisation if it causes financial debts and lower revenue, while for expatriates, financial issues may also create psychological insecurity as they are residing in foreign country without social security support from their own government. In addition to having physical and psychological security, feeling secure also involves having a positive state of mind; for example, by feeling in control of their own work, because working in the resources sector always involves an element of risk. Therefore, having peace of mind regarding security/safety is important for both expatriates and their families.

6.3.7 External influence
The findings of this study indicated that expatriate work well-being is affected by external factors such as organisational factors and government policies/practices. This extends extant literature on work well-being by acknowledging the influence of external factors to an individual’s work well-being. For example, organisational
factors such as supportive organisational care and a fair system were reported to improve expatriate work well-being. This includes not only the presence of a good working system that completely supports all employees, but also supports the local community and develops the economy (Abbey, 2015). In addition, government attitude towards expatriates working in Indonesia was found to be significant for expatriate work well-being. For example, the complicated bureaucracy and regulations in issuing work permits were arguably the most negative element of working in Indonesia, which can create enormous stress among expatriates. This stress can have a negative impact on expatriate work well-being.

In conclusion, this study extends extant literature on work well-being by offering a new model that encapsulates all aspects of work well-being, as perceived by participants in this study. Work well-being is a multidimensional concept that includes social aspects, eudaimonic aspect, job attitudes, affect, work-life balance, security/safety, and external factors. Social aspect, eudaimonic, work-life balance, and security/safety are internal factors to the individuals; while affect represents the affective part; job attitudes represent the cognitive part; and external factors are organisational and government policies/practices.

6.4 Social capital, expatriate work well-being, and demographic variables
It is known that expatriate experiences of living and working overseas is affected by expatriates’ personal attributes, such as being young, ambitious, and an experienced executive, entrepreneur, or diplomat/aid worker; as well as an expatriate’s characteristics, such as gender, age, marital status, and time overseas (Clegg & Gray, 2002). For example, Quick, Gavin, Cooper, and Quick (2000) found that health issues might have more significant implications for executive expatriates’ performance, especially for short-term executive expatriates. This might be due to the unavailability
of trailing families, and thus, they tend to work excessive hours, which leads to poor work-life balance and causes them to experience stress and burn-out, and perform poorly. Further, the importance of social capital, such as trailing family, to job performance has been examined in the literature (e.g., Boxman, De Graaf, & Flap, 1991; Granovetter, 1974; Kim, 2002) where the expatriate’s family status as well as amount of previous international experience, age, and gender (Black et al., 1999; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Ko, 2014; van Erp et al., 2011) determine the experience of expatriate culture shock.

Birdseye and Hill (1995) found that expatriates over the age of 45 were less likely to terminate their international assignments early as opposed to their younger counterparts. Shaffer and Harrison (2001) suggested that expatriates with younger preschool-aged children tended to show more successful adjustment as opposed to their counterparts with older children, while Takeuchi et al. (2002) proposed that family’s adjustment contributed significantly to the expatriate adjustment – and vice versa-. Although this study did not directly explore culture shock and expatriate adjustment, prior research has highlighted their importance to expatriates’ experiences living and working abroad. Thus, the current research extends the existing literature by exploring the influence that these demographic attributes have on expatriates’ perceptions of their work well-being.

Given that expatriate experiences of living and working overseas is affected by their demographic attributes, the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being may also be influenced by an individual’s demographic attributes. Demographic attributes such as age, marital status, length of stay in Indonesia, previous international assignment, years of expatriation, organisational ownership type, and work location influenced how expatriates perceived social capital
as impacting on their work well-being. This effect also differed across three dimensions of social capital (i.e., structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions).

In this section, the perceptions of the impact of three dimensions of social capital on expatriate work well-being across these different demographic attributes will be explored. The effect of different demographic attributes was not examined among the other two groups of participants (i.e., expatriate spouses and HR managers). This was for the following reasons: The number of spouses in this study was too small to be able to discuss differences to any great extent, with the exception of differences across spouses’ nationalities (i.e., foreign or local spouses), which had an effect on perceptions of expatriate well-being. HR manager participants were homogenous (i.e., all local Indonesian nationals) who worked in MNCs. In examining the differences in the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being across different demographic variables, this section addresses the sub-research question RQa: “How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” This section will highlight the roles of demographic variables on how expatriates perceived structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions as impacting on their work well-being. In doing so, the discussion addresses the influence that age, marital status, length of stay in Indonesia, previous international assignment, years of expatriation, organisational ownership type, and work location have on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

6.4.1 Structural dimension and expatriates’ demographic variables

In this study, a total of 43 expatriate participants were asked questions that provided insight into how the structural dimension of social capital impacted on their work well-being. The structural social capital was represented through social networks (cf.
Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), social contacts maintained by the individuals (cf. McFayden & Cannela, 2004), and exploration of the value in increasing social networks. Social interactions (with family, work colleagues, local people, and other expatriates) and social support were found to be significant for success in relocating to a host country (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002). While Caligiuri and Lazarova’s (2002) study did not actually study social capital as such, their study looked at the importance of social interactions to relocating success.

The findings of this study show that there are differences across age groups in how expatriates perceived what this research referred to as structural social capital as impacting on their work well-being, as these expatriates’ social networks grew as expatriate age increased. Older expatriates were more likely to be involved with social networks and they perceived these networks to have a positive impact on their work well-being. This finding extends the existing literature on well-being generally, which states that older individuals have higher well-being levels than younger individuals (Argyle, 1999) and negative emotions decline with age (Charles et al., 2001), by suggesting that the perceptions of the importance of social networks to expatriate work well-being increase with age.

The youngest cohort (26–35 years of age) tended to consider their social networks as their group of friends with whom they casually spent time outside work to do social or hobby-related activities. This group considered their friends as an avenue to escape from work-related stress and as a relief from daily routine that kept their minds fresh, and this had a positive impact on their general well-being, which eventually contributed to their work well-being. The second cohort consisted of expatriates aged 36–45 years. This age group were more likely to have wider social networks compared to their younger counterparts, where this older group’s social
networks were dominated by networks they established through their children’s schooling. This group also showed more variety of social networks, where they also indicated the presence of hobby clubs as well as professional or formal groups. These two groups serve different functions, where the first acts as the enjoyment of a more relaxed social scene while the latter serves as a means to develop their business. All three types of social networks were regarded as having a positive impact on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. This finding extends existing literature on social networks and expatriate experience living and working in a non-Western context by suggesting the focal importance of social networks to expatriate work well-being. Prior research, such as Horak and Yang’s (2016) study, found that expatriates’ inability to become a part of a certain social network in South Korea contributed to their negative experience working and living in South Korea. Freeman and Rizvi (2014) argued that living and working in Asia has improved Australian expatriates’ global networks and opportunities for public diplomacy practice; and Despotovic, Hutchings, and McPhail’s (2014) research argued that community groups or expatriate social networks provide expatriate with social support; and Selmer, Lauring, Zhang, and Jonasson (2016) suggested that having large social networks is key for expatriates to be able to sit in high-level positions such as CEO.

Further, the third cohort comprising expatriates aged 46–55 years showed a slight difference in their pattern of social networking to their younger counterparts aged 36–45 years. The third group indicated a more extensive use of work-related social networks and more involvement of their spouses in establishing social networks as well as children’s schooling networks to some extent. This age group also confirmed their presence in the greater Jakarta social scene, such as by visiting expatriate-dominated pubs or clubs, while still maintaining their involvement in
industry-specific professional or formal groups to promote their businesses. All these social networks contributed positively to expatriate work well-being as they improved expatriate work-life balance. Last, the oldest cohort in this study included expatriates aged 56 years and older. This group of expatriates indicated more involvement in professional or formal groups as well as more engagement with the local community in their local neighbourhood. This expatriate group was mostly in the empty-nest stage where their children were in the early adulthood stage, and thus they were not associated with children’s schools. However, in this stage, expatriate spouses still played a major role in connecting expatriates with wider and greater social networks, which, as also noted by Fechter (2008), were not limited to the expatriate community only. This age group tended to be more rooted within the local community and showed more interest in building local social networks. These various social networks had a positive impact on expatriate well-being as they provided expatriates with a sense of belonging that eventually led to higher work well-being. This finding about the influence of age on expatriate work well-being extends past research on the relationship of age with other job attributes, such as decreased importance of high job demands and job variety with age (Warr, 2001), increased importance of job security and physical security with age (Warr, 2001), and decreased significance of achievement motivation with age (Mehrabian & Blum, 1996).

The relationship between social networks and expatriates’ length of stay was found to be similar with the relationship between social networks and expatriates’ age, where the importance of structural social capital on expatriate work well-being increased as their length of stay in Indonesia increased. This could be because younger expatriates are more likely to plan to stay for a short time in order to obtain international experience and therefore they do not view networks as of high
importance. On the other hand, older expatriates tend to have stayed in Indonesia for a long time and thus they learned from their experience about the significance of social networks to their work well-being. This finding supports Reiger and Rees’ (1993) proposition that years of work experience play a major role in determining motivation to conduct several work-related actions, which could also be true for expatriates. For example, while they did not specifically look at social capital, Peltokorpi and Froese (2012) argued that length of work experience in the host country positively impacts SIEs’ interaction adjustment in Japan. A majority of short-term expatriates in this study who had only been in Indonesia for less than a year considered social networks as insignificant to their work well-being, while expatriates who had been in Indonesia for 2–5 years tended to see the positive influence of social networks for their work well-being. Long-term expatriates with 6–10 years’ length of stay stated that social networks had a positive impact on their work well-being, as well as that social networks made their stay in Indonesia, including their work, more enjoyable. Similarly, even longer term expatriates with 11–15 years and 16–20 years’ length of stay saw social networks as positively affecting their work well-being, because the networks provided expatriates with reassurance in the face of difficulties, including work-related issues. More senior expatriates who had been based in Indonesia more permanently for more than 20 years were more aware of the significance of social networks on their work well-being, as they suggested that the resources sector is a small sector where everyone within this sector knows each other. Therefore, having wide social networks, including networks of local people, and knowing numerous social contacts assisted expatriates in developing their businesses while also offering support with work-related tasks and challenges. This finding contrasts with Hutchings et al.’s (2013) study that suggested a majority of long-term female expatriates in the
UAE tended to socialise only with their fellow expatriates, both at work and outside work, and possessed limited contacts with local people. Long-term expatriates in this study acknowledged that wide social networks, consisting of both locals and expatriates, provided assurance with other general issues and acted as support networks away from home.

Moreover, in line with findings across age groups where the younger expatriates’ social networks were dominated by hobby clubs, this pattern was also apparent among single expatriates. Although single expatriates consisted of expatriates across different age groups, they indicated their deep involvement in hobby-related activities, such as in sports (e.g., triathlon, running). These expatriates also maintained their engagement with industry-specific professional and formal groups to ensure their presence in the resource sector in Indonesia. These social networks impacted positively on expatriate work well-being as they ensured expatriate work-life balance. On the other hand, married expatriates’ social networks revolved around their spouse networks and children’s schools. They also showed more involvement with local networks, ranging from local work-related networks to local community neighbourhood networks. This may be because married couples with children are less likely to be mobile (Crowley-Henry, 2007) due to their children’s school arrangements. Married expatriates were also actively participating in industry-specific professional and formal groups to stay up to date with industry-related news while at the same time developing their business networks and presence. These different social networks had a significant impact on expatriate work well-being.

Although there were differences in terms of the types of social networks (i.e., married or single), both groups regarded social networks as positively impacting on their work well-being. This finding suggests that marital status did not influence the perceptions
of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being. On the other hand, existing literature indicates that married individuals tend to have higher levels of well-being generally compared to single individuals (Helliwell, 2003); while single employees are more concerned with their career advancement and married employees emphasise balancing work and family life (Wong, Siu, & Tsang, 1999). The marital status of expatriates is particularly important because international assignments also have an impact on an expatriate’s family as a whole (Brown, 2008), and marital status also determines the assignment success of SIEs since personal and social life in the host country significantly contributes to the extent of adaptation to that country (Crowley-Henry, 2007).

Further, the findings in this study also indicated that there are differences in how expatriates perceived what this research categorised as structural social capital as impacting on their work well-being as a function of whether or not they had previous international experience. Prior international experience is argued to affect not only individual expatriates, but also the performance of the organisations (Monks, Scullion, & Creaner, 2001). Expatriates with prior international experience tended to have a more mixed group of social contacts coming from various nationalities, including local Indonesians. This social network was found to have a significant positive influence on expatriate work well-being as it provides expatriates with a sense of belonging that prevents them from feeling alone and isolated while also being able to vent their frustration by participating in social or hobby-related activities. This supports Froese’s (2011) research, which suggested that SIEs in South Korea with prior international experience in South Korea were more content with their degree of social interactions with locals, by suggesting that Indonesian resource sector expatriates with prior international experience tended to show more concern
with their social interactions. Further, this network also offered expatriates with reassurance in case something bad happened, including work-related issues. This finding is similar to Häuberer’s (2011) suggestion that these networks serve as a source of mutual understanding, safety and respect that buffer the stress of expatriation. Expatriates with prior international experience were also aware of Indonesia’s collectivist nature, where the conduct of business tends to be relationship driven, hence stressing the importance of social networks to expatriate work well-being. This supports Sorensen’s (2015) argument about the importance of social and exchange relationships as the basis for most business dealings and that expatriates’ ability to build and maintain social networks is related to the performance of businesses.

In contrast, expatriates without previous international experience were less aware of Indonesia’s collectivist nature and tended to have a common group of social contacts consisting of expatriates of their own nationality. This finding supports Howe-Walsh and Shyns (2010), which suggests that expatriates with prior international experience tend to adapt more easily to the host country. Similarly, Selmer (2002) proposed that previous international experience in non-Asian countries assisted work-related adjustment of Western expatriates in Hong Kong. Prior international experience also serves as an important source of information that helps expatriates in dealing with uncertainty about the next international assignment (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991), and that it is important for future cross-cultural competence and ability to adjust to new situations (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

The majority of expatriates in this study without prior international experience viewed social networks as an aid in venting their frustration associated with working and living in Indonesia, while also providing support with work-related issues and
promoting their companies. As a result, this social network improved the work well-being of expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia.

In addition, there are slight differences in how organisational ownership type influences expatriate perceptions of the impact of structural social capital on their work well-being. Expatriates who worked for MNCs stressed the importance of regular contact with headquarters to stay updated with the global business and that MNCs tended to have their own expatriate clique as they employed a great number of expatriate employees. While the social experience is a significant part of living and working in Asia, Australian expatriates claimed that expatriate cliques are not their main form of socialisation mode (Freeman & Rizvi, 2014). MNCs also offered expatriates with membership of industry-specific professional and formal groups. In addition, these expatriates also indicated the presence of an informal expatriate community such as hobby clubs outside work. These social networks and regular contact with headquarters had a positive influence on expatriate work well-being.

Tambunan (2011) stated that MNCs are often poorly integrated with host country’s economy, and hence show a low contribution to the society and local development. The current research suggests that this lack of integration also extends to MNCs’ expatriate employees, who tended to be less engaged with their HCN counterparts. On the contrary, expatriates who worked for local organisations indicated more contacts with their HCNs in the workplace due to the numerous HCNs employed there and small number of expatriate employees, while having a separate group of work and social contacts that are dominated by other expatriate contacts. These expatriates also maintained their membership of industry-specific professional and formal groups, because their membership is not necessarily provided by their local resources organisations. Unlike expatriates working for MNCs, expatriates
working for local organisations emphasised the importance of maintaining regular contact with their site offices to ensure the success of the business, and hence this contributed to expatriate work well-being. Contact with headquarters is important because it helps ensure consistency of organisational strategy, managerial practices, and operational policies (Shay & Baack, 2004, as cited in Massingham, 2010), while expatriates offer strategically significant two-way knowledge between subsidiary and headquarters (Downes & Thomas 2000, as cited in Massingham, 2010).

Differences were also apparent in how expatriates based in Jakarta and expatriates on (more remote) sites perceived how structural social capital impacted on their work well-being. Site-based expatriates showed more concern for their social networks because in order to avoid a spillover between work and social life since these both comprised the same individuals, due to the remoteness and the limited number of individuals working on site, it meant there was a limited selection of social networks available on site. This implies that expatriates need to be quite cautious to avoid work-related conflict extending to their social life. The Australasian Centre for Rural and Remote Mental Health highlighted the danger of isolation faced by resources sector employees (ACRRMMH, 2014) with apparent poor well-being levels due to remoteness of locations and a strong masculinist culture (Lovell & Critchley, 2010).

Further, given the advancement of technology, site-based expatriates were advantaged by the availability of social media in facilitating their contact with the outside world, including with their family and friends in their home countries. This particular finding lends support to McPhail and Fisher’s (2015) study, which found that lesbian and gay expatriates used social media as a form of their social capital for both professional and social purposes, while Freeman and Rizvi (2014) added that
Australian expatriates used communication technology such as social media and instant messaging to stay connected to Australia, and these connections provided them with benefit both when they were overseas and when they arrived home. Interestingly, site-based expatriates also indicated that they had established superficial contacts with HCNs; for example, they attended social functions held by the locals as a courtesy and claimed that expatriates did not really mix up other locals. This is interesting given the limited selection of friends that expatriates have on site. In contrast, Jakarta-based expatriates expressed more variety of social networks with more mix of members’ nationalities. However, these social networks showed a positive impact on both site-based and Jakarta-based expatriates’ work well-being. This finding contrasts with Despotovic et al.’s (2015) study, which proposed that the presence of expatriate networks within cities provided urban expatriates with benefits, while they offered contextual misinformation for rural-based expatriates.

6.4.2 Relational dimension and expatriates’ demographic variables

Relational dimension of social capital in this study was represented through close relationships (Taskin & Bridoux, 2010), trust (Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1993), and collegiality. Unlike structural social capital, the perceptions of the impact of relational social capital on expatriate work well-being were not significantly different across expatriates’ age groups, marital status, organisational ownership types, and length of stay in Indonesia. Almost all expatriates agreed that having good relationships with their colleagues, trust, and maintaining collegiality are important to ensure their success in the workplace, including successful completion of work tasks or projects.

Having good relationships allowed the establishment of strong ties, which is of focal importance in relational social capital (Levin & Cross, 2004), and good relationships that were more accessible were helpful for expatriates (cf. Szulanski,
This is especially true in Indonesia where business conduct tends to be relationship driven (Sorensen, 2015) and where individual success depends on team success. Most expatriates emphasised that trust represents an individual’s reliability, confidence, credibility, and openness of information; whereas its absence results in negative consequences ranging from financial loss and breach of confidentiality to health and safety issues, which can eventually have an impact on expatriate work well-being. This finding supports Mishira’s (1996) notion of trust, which was defined as a willingness arising from confidence in four aspects: (a) belief in the good intent and concern of exchange partners (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale, 1990; Ring & Van de Ven, 1994), which resembles what expatriate participants in this study called credibility; (b) belief in their competence and capability (Sako, 1992; Szulanski, 1996), which is similar to confidence in this study; (c) belief in their reliability (Giddens, 1990; Ouchi, 1981), which was described as reliability in this study; and (d) belief in their perceived openness (Ouchi, 1981), which is similar to what expatriates in this study referred to as openness of information.

Further, with regard to expatriates’ previous international experience, expatriates with and without prior international experience acknowledged the influence that trust, collegiality, and maintaining good relationships have on their work well-being; particularly in an Asian country like Indonesia where the success of an individual depends on the success of the team. Hence, it is important for expatriates to be able to function well in the group (Chen et al., 2015). Expatriates also noted the significance of having support from the local workforce and emphasised the importance of maintaining good relationships with HCNs to get the job done. This support from the local workforce was crucial to expatriate work well-being since it is vital to the success of the projects. Further, some expatriates with
previous international experience expressed concerns about the willingness of HCNs to trust expatriates, while some expatriates without prior international experience highlighted how personal trust extends to the business context. This is in line with literature that suggests that prior international experience influences expatriate preparedness in facilitating individuals to create adaptation strategies and knowledge of other cultures to help individuals feel less distant in the host country (Tye & Chen, 2005).

Establishing trust with HCNs was important to expatriate work well-being since it created cooperative interaction (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) between expatriates and HCNs. For both groups of expatriates, trust means reliability, knowing that others (mainly HCNs) will do their tasks and complete the job. Therefore, expatriates would not have to micromanage the HCNs as trust means confidence in the ability of HCNs to do things correctly. This is in line with Mayer et al.’s (1995) suggestion that trust is concerned with the integrity, benevolence, and ability of the other party.

Like the more pronounced effect of structural social capital to site-based expatriates, relational social capital (i.e., good relationships, trust, and collegiality) was also found to be more important for these expatriates. Specifically, they expressed more concern over their relationships with their colleagues, so as to avoid a spillover effect between work and social life due to a limited number of individuals working on site and hence, even fewer friends and colleagues. This finding resonates with one of Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998, p. 256) main aspects of relational social capital, namely identification, where “individuals see themselves as one with another person or group of people”. This situation is different to Jakarta-based expatriates who had a wider selection of friends with different sets of work and social groups.
Regardless, both site-based and Jakarta-based expatriates acknowledged the importance of relational social capital to their work well-being.

6.4.3 Cognitive dimension and expatriates’ demographic variables

In the face of language barriers, cognitive social capital became crucial to expatriate work well-being, in order to be able to establish meaningful communication. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) noted that meaningful communication requires some sharing of context between the engaging parties. Therefore, having shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties (Cicourel, 1973) are essential. In this study, cognitive social capital was represented through shared vision (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998), clear goal (cf. Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006), and sharing common challenges (cf. Cicourel, 1973; Taskin & Bridoux, 2010).

Slight differences were found in how expatriates perceived what this research categorised as cognitive social capital as impacting on their work well-being across various demographic variables, such as age, marital status, previous international experience, length of stay in Indonesia, and work location. There were no significant differences in expatriates’ perceptions of the impact of shared vision and clear goal on their work well-being as most expatriates in this study generally found shared vision and clear goals as important to their work well-being. This finding supports prior research on the importance of having a shared vision as it encapsulates the collective goals and aspirations that bond different parts of an organisation in order to integrate their resources (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). It also lends support to Cohen and Prusak’s (2001) study, which found that shared values and goals unite people while also facilitating the emergence of cooperative action that eventually benefits the organisation.
Further, the findings of this study indicated that the impact of cognitive social capital (i.e., sharing common challenges) decreased with age and length of stay in Indonesia. This is shown by lessening concerns expressed by older groups of expatriates and longer-term expatriates with regard to sharing common challenges with other expatriates as opposed to their younger counterparts, despite the high level of conformity to societal rules in a collectivist country (Bodycott & Lai, 2012), which is apparent in Indonesia, where people are highly collectivist in nature. This finding is similar to Hutchings, Michailova, and Harrison’s (2013) study, which found that short-term female expatriates in the UAE had greater concerns about conforming to the local culture while long-term female expatriates had a better understanding of what was really expected in the culture. There was no significant difference in the perceptions of the impact of cognitive social capital, particularly sharing common challenges, to expatriate work well-being across expatriates working for MNCs and local organisations. This may be due to expatriate employees’ tendency to only socialise with other expatriates.

The youngest group of expatriates (26–35 years of age) tended to believe that sharing common challenges had a positive impact on their work well-being as it provided them with a sense of community where they learned from each other’s experience. This shared narrative acts as powerful means in creating, exchanging, and preserving rich sets of meanings within the communities (Nanaka & Takeuchi, 1995). The second expatriate cohort (aged 36–45 years old) mostly expressed a significantly positive impact of sharing common challenges to their work well-being, although a small number of expatriates in this group disagreed with its significance and attributed self-sufficiency and the individual’s uniqueness as buffering the impact of sharing common challenges. The third expatriate cohort (aged 46–55 years old)
showed a mixed response in responding to how an important sharing common challenge is to their work well-being. Half of the expatriates in this age group perceived sharing common challenges as positively impacting on their work well-being, while the other half considered it as insignificant to their work well-being. Last, the oldest cohort (aged 56 years and older) were more likely to acknowledge the existence of common challenges among expatriates in Indonesia though most of these expatriates did not see any significant impact of sharing common challenges on their work well-being. This might be due to the fact that older people generally tend to have better well-being generally (e.g., Argyle, 1999) and fewer negative emotions (e.g., Charles et al., 2001). These expatriates suggested that the individual’s personality type and capability in facing challenges and overcoming them were more influential to their work well-being compared to the experience of sharing common challenges. In an international context, traits such as being culturally adventurous, open to criticism, and flexibility were found to be determinants in predicting the future success of expatriates (Spreitzer, McCall, & Mahoney, 1997), while empathy, openness, flexibility, tolerance, self-confidence, optimism, independence, good communication skills, initiative, and intelligence were important for successful international assignments (Gertsen, 1992), along with achievement, self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, relational and perceptual skills, previous international assignments, and language fluency (Andreason, 2003).

Also, in a collectivist country like Indonesia where communality is highly valued, it is important for individuals to control their emotions in order to be able to function well in the group (Chen et al., 2015), because anger is perceived as a socially disengaging emotion that can have negative impacts on social harmony of the group (Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006). High levels of anger can have negative
effects for expatriates, especially in collectivist countries, because it may decrease the expatriate’s ability to act according to the context, and cloud their judgement and create bias (Selmer, Lauring, Zhang, & Jonasson, 2016). This may decrease expatriate contacts with locals, which results in reduced social feedback that is necessary to fit in to a new work situation (Selmet et al., 2016). In the workplace, high levels of anger negatively affect learning, decision making, interpersonal relations, and performance, and this negative effect is even more pronounced in stressful environments such as those faced by expatriates (Reio & Callahan, 2004).

Similarly, longer-term expatriates were more likely to express that there was less importance in sharing common challenges to their work well-being. Most of the short-term expatriates who had only been in Indonesia for less than a year considered sharing common challenges as having a significant positive impact on their work well-being. Some expatriates who had been in Indonesia for 2–5 years saw sharing common challenges as providing them with a sense of belonging so that they did not feel alone, while other expatriates in this group did not perceive sharing common challenges as having an impact on their work well-being. This impact was buffered by the individual’s personality, ability to adapt, and expectations, which is consistent with past research suggesting that personal characteristics such as tolerance for ambiguity and ability to adapt to different norms of behaviour have positive implications for working and living overseas (Tye & Chen, 2005). Similarly, some long-term expatriates with 6–10 years’ length of stay also stated that sharing common challenges had a positive impact on their work well-being since it made them feel they were not alone, while other expatriates in this group thought that expatriates do not face similar challenges as challenges are unique to each individual, and thus they have no significant impact on expatriate work well-being.
Further, sharing common challenges was perceived as insignificant to expatriate work well-being, as stated by the majority of long-term expatriates with 11–15 years’ length of stay as they only talked about these challenges and shared ideas on a superficial level. Most long-term expatriates with 16–20 years’ length of stay felt that sharing common challenges with other expatriates did not have an impact on their work well-being as it was irrelevant to what they feel or experience. More senior expatriates who had been based in Indonesia more permanently for more than 20 years said that knowing that other expatriates face similar challenges to them was not significant to their work well-being since they were accustomed to Indonesia and felt comfortable living and working in Indonesia. This particular finding is similar to Hutchings et al.’s (2013) study, which suggested that the unwillingness of female expatriates in the UAE to socialise with local’s increases with their length of stay, as such female expatriates with high tenure tended to socialise with expatriates only. This implies the degree of discomfort with the host country culture.

Although there were no significant differences in how expatriates with and without prior international experiences perceived cognitive social capital as impacting on their work well-being, expatriates without prior international experience were more likely to acknowledge the benefit of sharing common challenges with other expatriates. This may be because prior international experience allows expatriates to create strategies to adapt to new cultural situations (Tye & Chen, 2005), and thus, expatriates with prior international experience were more equipped with strategies to overcome challenges compared to expatriates without prior international experience. These expatriates were more likely to learn how to overcome these challenges from other expatriates. This sharing experience helped build a sense of camaraderie among most of these expatriates while also serving as a sounding board where these
expatriates bounce off ideas, and share their stories and challenges. This sounding board was found to be beneficial for expatriate work well-being. On the other hand, the majority of expatriates with prior international experience considered that they all experience similar generic challenges, although sharing these challenges were not necessarily influential on their work well-being.

How expatriates perceived what this research categorised as cognitive social capital as impacting on their work well-being differed across marital status. Single expatriates indicated that each individual is unique; thus, expatriates do not face similar challenges. Expatriates’ approach to overcoming challenges (including work-related challenges) was determined by their personality type and expectation, regardless of whether these challenges were common among expatriates or not, and so this had no influence on expatriate work well-being. Married expatriates, on the other hand, thought that sharing common challenges had a positive impact on their work well-being as it provided them with an avenue of support, source of advice, and a sense of belongingness. This result is different from McNulty’s (2012) study, which highlighted a lack of understanding about challenges that expatriates and their spouses face in the host country. Married expatriates confirmed that the feeling of facing similar challenges was also shared with their spouses, who also offered expatriates support and communality. This finding supports Fischlmayr and Puchmüller’s (2016) study, which found that female expatriates relied on their social capital more and involved their spouse, family or friends to assist in dealing with challenges of global mobility.

Cognitive social capital (i.e., shared vision, a clear goal, and sharing common challenges) was found to have a more pronounced effect on site-based expatriates compared to Jakarta-based expatriates. For example, most site-based expatriates
expressed that sharing common challenges improved their work well-being. This shared feeling (narrative) serves as a means to share experiences where meaning and future decisions are made (Nisbet, 1969), and which develops camaraderie among site-based expatriates who live in remote locations and are faced with a difficult work situation. This implies that a sense of camaraderie serves as a support base for site-based expatriates faced with challenges on a daily basis. This situation is different to Jakarta-based expatriates who do not have to face the difficulties associated with a heightened concern for safety and isolation, as do site-based expatriates. However, Jakarta-based expatriates showed mixed responses to the importance of sharing common challenges, as some claimed it to have no influence on their work well-being while others said that sharing common challenges affected their work well-being.

In sum, this section has presented details of how perceptions of the impact of three dimensions of social capital on expatriate work well-being vary across different demographic attributes. It has highlighted the differences in how expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive social capital across their demographic variables: namely, age, marital status, prior international experience, length of stay in Indonesia, organisational ownership types, and work location. The most significant differences were found in expatriates’ perceptions of the impact of structural social capital on their work well-being across expatriates’ demographic variables. These differences were mainly related to expatriate social networks. Fewer differences were found in expatriates’ perceptions of the impact of cognitive social capital on their work well-being, particularly with regards to the importance of sharing common challenges with other expatriates. The fewest differences were found in how expatriates perceived relational social capital as impacting on their work well-being across various demographic variables. Almost all expatriates, regardless of their demographic
variables, saw trust as especially important to their work well-being. The findings above have addressed the sub-research question (RQa): “How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” by confirming the positive impact that all three dimensions of social capital have on expatriate work well-being.

6.4.4. Expatriate spouses’ perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being

It is known that trailing spouse and family – specifically, the capacity of spouses to adapt (Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002) – play a major role in determining expatriate’s experiences overseas. The influence of family status and the presence of trailing spouse are argued to impact on expatriation success (De Cieri, Dowling, & Taylor, 1991; Stone, 1991). Caligiuri, Joshi, and Lazarova (1999) and Caligiuri and Lazarova (2002) argued that spousal support plays a major role in female expatriates’ adjustment to international assignment. This study extends studies on the influence of expatriate family, particularly expatriate spouse, on expatriate experiences overseas by suggesting that family, particularly spouse, also has an impact on expatriate work well-being.

In this study, a total of eight expatriate spouse participants generally perceived all three dimensions of social capital – that is, structural, relational, and cognitive – as having a significant positive impact on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Given the small number of expatriate spouses who participated in this study, analyses of their perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being across various demographic attributes were not conducted. However, consideration was given to their nationalities in respect to how this reflected how
expatriate spouses perceived social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being. Of the eight spouse participants, five were foreigners and three were locals.

First, with regard to structural social capital, all spouses admitted having informal social networks, predominantly women or wives’ organisations, ranging from nationality-based, region-based, to status-based. Foreign spouses were heavily involved in women organisations whose members are dominated by foreigners (as also found by McNulty, 2012). There was also the presence of hobby clubs, such as hiking groups, golf groups, and arts groups. These hobby clubs were composed of mixed nationalities and were more involved with locals. On the other hand, local spouses stated that they have wide and various social networks, including networks of family, relatives, friends, and colleagues. The local spouses’ networks acted as strong support networks for them, which also extended its support to their expatriate husbands and thus were regarded as a positive influence on expatriate work well-being.

For expatriate couples with school-age children, both foreign and local spouses were also involved in parents’ associations and children’s extracurricular groups, as well as being immersed within their expatriate neighbourhood. Since socialisation within an expatriate community was found to contribute to an expatriate spouse’s long-term adjustment (Adler & Gundersen 2007; Cartus & Primacy 2010; McNulty, 2012), this study extends the importance of social networks to well-being of the spouses as they made spouses feel comfortable living in Indonesia, which made expatriates feel happy, and hence positively influenced expatriate well-being, which then resonated with their work well-being. In addition, spouses’ social networks acted as an avenue for expatriates to socialise with other expatriates (e.g., husbands of the members of women’s organisation), where expatriates built friendships with these
husbands and engaged in social activities; hence, this improved the expatriate work-life balance. Foreign spouses acknowledged that their expatriate husbands were able to share ideas and stories (including work-related issues) with other husbands, which positively affected expatriate well-being as well as work well-being.

Second, the majority of expatriate spouses, both foreigners and locals, also suggested that what this research referred to as relational social capital (i.e., having good relationships, trust, and collegiality) positively impacted expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. All expatriate spouses confirmed the importance of building positive relationships with other people to establish friendships that served as a support base away from home. This may be due to the nature of female individuals, who tend to be guided by communal concerns that have an emphasis on interpersonal affiliation, as well as a desire to maintain harmonious relations with others and themselves (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Hall & Mast, 2008). This is especially true in Indonesia where individuals are expected to have good relationships with everyone – in personal, social, and professional contexts; which lends support to past research (see Sorensen, 2015). In building positive relationships, trust was a prerequisite stated by the spouses. Both foreign and local spouses noted the importance of trust to expatriate well-being. Interestingly, almost all spouses, regardless of their nationalities, emphasised the role of trust in avoiding marriage breakdown, a phenomenon that was apparent in some expatriate families in Indonesia. The failure to maintain a good family life affected expatriate well-being in general and led to poor performance at work, thus negatively impacting on expatriate work well-being.

Another important element in maintaining good relationships is collegiality. Expatriate spouses, both foreigners and locals, acknowledged the presence of
collegiality between them and their expatriate husbands through the division of home and work responsibilities, where spouses managed domestic, home-related tasks, and expatriate husbands had to work and thus managed work-related tasks. This equal share of work had a positive influence on expatriate work well-being since it prevented expatriates from becoming stressed about non-work-related issues and allowed them to focus on their work and perform well at work; hence, this contributed positively to their work well-being. However, a number of local spouses were also able to provide work-related support to their husbands, such as help in translating documents and in giving advice related to their husbands’ work. All local spouses had worked in the same industry as their expatriate husbands, and hence they were able to offer assistance to their husbands with work-related tasks (cf. McNulty, 2012).

Third, both foreign and local spouses saw that what this research categorised as cognitive social capital as having a significant positive influence on expatriate work well-being. These spouses indicated that having a shared view was important to them and their expatriate husbands to define their direction in life and thus to work towards that shared purpose. This is particularly important in aiding the decision making process associated with expatriation (Cartus & Primacy 2016; Lazarova, Westman, & Shaffer, 2010; McPhail et al., 2016), such as when deciding whether to take an international assignment or not. Hence, it significantly affected expatriate work well-being. Further, although noting that they shared similar general challenges with their expatriate husbands, half of the foreign spouses acknowledged that their experiences living in Indonesia were different to their expatriate husbands’ because the husbands were faced with work-related issues, while the spouses mainly dealt with domestic issues. These foreign spouses also noted that their expatriate husbands faced challenges that were commonly shared among expatriates, and that knowing
that these challenges were also experienced by other expatriates positively affected expatriate work well-being. On the other hand, local spouses perceived that their expatriate husbands were faced with more challenges working in Indonesia that were different to their own. This may be because local spouses are accustomed to Indonesian culture and they view their expatriate husbands who are foreigners as struggling with understanding Indonesian culture. However, as locals, these spouses provided more support bases to their expatriate husbands, which led to higher expatriate work well-being.

In conclusion, expatriate spouses perceived all three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive) as significant to expatriate work well-being. This perception may differ across spouses’ nationalities (i.e., foreign or local spouses). The most significant differences were found in expatriate spouses’ perceptions of the impact of cognitive social capital on expatriate work well-being between foreign and local spouses. These differences were mainly related to the impact of sharing common challenges in expatriate work well-being where local spouses did not experience similar challenges as their expatriate husbands, but at the same time provided wider support networks for their expatriate husbands and support with work-related tasks. Therefore, it contributed to higher levels of expatriate work well-being. The findings above have addressed the sub-research question (RQb): “How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” by confirming that the spouses regarded all three dimensions of social capital as having a positive impact on expatriate work well-being.
6.4.5 *HR managers’ perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being*

Seven HR managers were interviewed for this study and they commonly perceived questions that provided insight to all three dimensions of social capital – that is, structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions – as significantly positively impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Given the high homogeneity of this group, where all HR managers were Indonesian nationals and worked in multinational organisations, analyses of the differences of their perceptions on the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being across all demographic variables were not conducted.

First, in relation to structural social capital, HR managers talked about the importance of maintaining regular communications with all employees, including expatriates. In addition to maintaining regular contacts with the headquarters, HR managers arranged annual professional summits and other social events, such as family gatherings and outbound training. As a representative of the organisation, all HR managers stressed the involvement of their employees, especially expatriates, in industry-based professional organisations. Although failing to specifically name any informal expatriate groups that their expatriate employees were involved in, these HR managers understood that expatriates were heavily immersed in local expatriate groups. All these groups, both professional and informal, were significant to expatriate work well-being as they served as support bases with work-related and general day-to-day issues. This finding extends Lee and Von Vorst’s (2010) study, which found that social capital had an impact on the relationship between support from co-workers (both expatriate and HCN) and expatriate experience of living and working in the host country, by suggesting that social capital, particularly social networks, had a direct impact on expatriate work well-being. Social networks also
provided expatriates with a sense of belonging while still being able to maintain their home lifestyle (e.g., sports and drinks). From a business perspective, some HR managers stated that many business deals in Indonesia took place outside the office in a social context, thus maintaining expatriate presence in social networks served as an effective means of business development (Sorensen, 2015).

Second, all HR managers emphasised the significance of what this research referred to as relational social capital to expatriate work well-being. When discussing positive working relationships, HR managers stressed the role of trust as a prerequisite of effective working relationships. This is similar to Theingi et al.’s (2008) suggestion that a planned strategy to develop an individual’s network structure is represented through building trust, with trust being a vital element of social capital. Without trust, there would not be good working relationships between employees, particularly between expatriates and HCNs, thus it affects expatriate work well-being.

As a bridge between the organisation and employees, HR managers also indicated the importance of having employees, especially expatriates, trust their credibility in communicating messages from the organisation to the employees. For example, this involved communicating individual expatriates’ role as well as their remuneration packages to the organisation.

How trustworthy HR managers were also influenced expatriate work well-being since HR managers were regarded as representatives of the organisation that employed expatriates. This finding is similar to McPhail and McNulty’s (2015) study, which found that perceived levels of acceptance and company support were significant to lesbian and gay expatriates’ decisions to disclose their sexual orientation, while in this study HR managers’ trustworthiness defined the level of openness of expatriate employees in sharing their concerns. Further, due to the nature
of the industry they worked in, HR managers expressed the significance of collegiality, where actions are expected to be reciprocated (Chiu et al., 2006) to ensure the success of projects. In order to successfully complete a project that is comprised of interdependent sequences, all employees (including expatriates) need to work together in synergy, given their interconnected roles, and this requires expatriates and HCNs to have a high level of collegiality. Therefore, collegiality has a significant, positive impact on expatriate work well-being.

Last, HR managers perceived that not all elements of what this research called cognitive social capital has an impact on expatriate work well-being. Unlike relational social capital, HR managers tended to see cognitive social capital as having less significant impact on expatriate work well-being. Although all HR managers acknowledged the presence of clear organisational goals set by the headquarters, not all of them suggested there was a significant impact of clear organisational goals on expatriate work well-being. For some HR managers, these goals seemed to have a positive impact on expatriate work well-being, while for others, these goals brought about negative pressure, hence, negatively impacting on expatriate work well-being. These shared codes serve as the basis for how groups function, problem solve and engage in decision-making processes to determine their present and future, and to recall their past (McPhail et al., 2016), as well as to generate civic virtue and community involvement (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 2012). On the other hand, a small number of HR managers saw clear organisational goals as insignificant for expatriate work well-being, and these HR managers emphasised the importance of localised goals that were more personal to the individuals. Moreover, despite admitting the presence of common challenges faced by expatriates, the majority of HR managers considered sharing common challenges as having an insignificant
impact on expatriate work well-being. These HR managers argued that each individual was unique and different and their coping mechanism was greatly determined by their own personalities, regardless of what other expatriates think or feel. Therefore, other expatriates’ experiences of challenges were irrelevant to and had no impact on expatriate work well-being.

In sum, HR managers perceived the three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive) as impacting on expatriate work well-being. No analyses were done about the differences between HR managers’ perceptions on the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being across different demographic variables due to the homogenous nature of these participants. The most significant finding among HR manager participants was that all HR managers stressed the importance of relational social capital (i.e., good relationships, trust, and collegiality) to expatriate work well-being. This finding extends Theingi et al.’s (2008) argument that trust is a vital element of social capital by suggesting that not only is trust a vital element of social capital, but all aspects of relational capital (good relationship, trust, and collegiality) are significant elements of social capital. The findings above have addressed sub-research question RQc: “How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?” by confirming that HR managers regarded all three dimensions of social capital as positively impacting on expatriate work well-being.

This section has examined perceptions of the impact of three dimensions of social capital on expatriate work well-being, as varying across expatriates’ demographic attributes as well as across expatriate spouses’ nationalities. Expatriates’ age, marital status, prior work experience, length of stay, and work location
significantly influenced expatriates’ perceptions of the impact of social capital on their work well-being, while different organisational ownership types did not show significant differences in how expatriates perceived social capital as impacting on their work well-being. Further, expatriate spouses’ nationalities were also found to contribute to how they perceived social capital as impacting on expatriate work-being. In particular, the differences found were mainly related to the impact of sharing common challenges to expatriate work well-being, where local spouses offered wider support networks for their expatriate husbands compared to foreign spouses. Moreover, how HR managers viewed structural, relational, and cognitive social capital as being significant to expatriate work well-being was also discussed. No analyses were conducted across HR managers’ demographic variables due to the high homogeneity of this group where all HR managers were Indonesian nationals and worked in multinational organisations. HR managers stressed the role of trust as a prerequisite of effective working relationships, which was vital to expatriate work well-being. Consideration was also given to how the findings of the current research compare to the extant literature, as summarised in Table 6.1.
Table 6.1: Summary of key findings related to social capital and expatriate work well-being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Demographic variables and findings</th>
<th>Existing literature</th>
<th>Social capital and related literature</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>The importance of social networks increased with age</td>
<td><strong>Supports</strong> the literature on age and well-being (Argyle, 1999; Charles et al., 2001)</td>
<td><strong>Supports</strong> literature on the importance of <strong>social networks</strong> to expatriate, particularly to expatriate experience living and working in non-Western context (Horak &amp; Yang, 2016; Freeman &amp; Rizvi, 2014; Despotovic et al., 2014; Selmer et al., 2016) <strong>Supports</strong> literature on the role of expatriate spouses to expatriates’ social networks (Fechter, 2008) <strong>Extends</strong> literature on the relationship between age and other job attributes (Warr, 2001); age and motivation (Mehrabian &amp; Blum, 1996) to age and expatriate work well-being</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Marital status had no influence on how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being</td>
<td><strong>Refutes</strong> literature on marital status and well-being (Helliwell, 2003); marital status and employees’ priorities (Wong, Siu, &amp; Tsang, 1999)</td>
<td><strong>Extends</strong> the literature on marital status to expatriates success (Brown, 2008; Crowley-Henry, 2007) by suggesting the differences in types of social networks possessed by single expatriates and married expatriates.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prior international experience</td>
<td>Prior international experience influenced expatriate’s social contacts</td>
<td><strong>Supports</strong> literature on the importance of prior international experience (Monks et al., 2001; Selmer, 2002; Black, Mendenhall, &amp; Oddou, 1991; Howe-Walsh &amp; Schyns, 2010)</td>
<td><strong>Supports</strong> research regarding the role of <strong>social networks</strong> and the stress of expatriation (Froese, 2011). <strong>Supports</strong> extant research on the importance of social and exchange relationships for expatriate and business success in non-Western context (Sorensen, 2015) <strong>Supports</strong> literature on expatriates prior international experience and the willingness to learn local culture (Hutchings et al., 2013)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Length of stay</td>
<td>The importance and variety of structural social capital increased with length of stay</td>
<td><strong>Supports</strong> research on the importance of length of stay (Reiger &amp; Rees, 1993) to expatriate experiences (Peltokorpi &amp; Froese, 2012)</td>
<td><strong>Disagrees with</strong> research regarding expatriate tenure and their limited number of local social contacts (Hutchings et al., 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational ownership types</td>
<td>Organisational ownership type determined expatriate’s social networks.</td>
<td><strong>Supports</strong> literature on the relationship between MNC and local economy (Tambunan, 2011) and society</td>
<td><strong>Extends</strong> literature by providing knowledge of different interactions and contacts of expatriates in MNCs and local organisations (Freeman &amp; Rizvi, 2014).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>Work location</td>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>HR manager</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Work location determined the role of social networks to expatriate work well-being</td>
<td>Heavy involvement of foreign spouses with expatriate community</td>
<td>The importance of both formal and informal social networks to expatriate work well-being</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Supports research on poor well-being and working in the resources sector (Lovell &amp; Critchley, 2010)</td>
<td>Supports literature on the role of expatriate spouse to expatriate experiences overseas (Takeuchi et al., 2002; De Cieri et al., 1991; Stone, 1991; Caligiuri et al., 1999)</td>
<td>Extends research regarding the influence of social capital on the relationship between support from co-workers (both expatriate and HCN) and expatriate experience living and working in the host country (Lee &amp; Von Vorst, 2010), by suggesting that social capital, particularly social networks, had a direct impact on expatriate work well-being.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Demographic variable</th>
<th>Existing literature</th>
<th>Social capital</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The importance of relational capital was acknowledged by expatriates across different age groups, marital status, organisational ownership types, and length of stay</td>
<td>Supports extant literature on the importance of relational social capital (Levin &amp; Cross, 2004; Mishira, 1996) in providing support to expatriates, particularly in non-Western context.</td>
<td>Supports extant knowledge on the importance of trust in relationships, including in business (Sorensen, 2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate</td>
<td>Prior international experience</td>
<td>The importance of trust was acknowledged by expatriates, regardless of their experience</td>
<td>Supports the literature on the importance of prior international experience to expatriates preparedness (Tye &amp; Chen, 2005).</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Work location</td>
<td>Site-based expatriates expressed more concerns over their relationships with their colleagues, hence, they identified themselves with the group</td>
<td>Supports research on identification as a main aspect of relational social capital (Nahapiet &amp; Ghoshal, 1998)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>Supports literature on the nature of female and interpersonal affiliation (Eagly &amp; Crowley, 1986; Hall &amp; Mast, 2008)</td>
<td>Supports the literature on the more pronounced benefits of social capital in Asian contexts (Sorensen, 2015)</td>
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<tr>
<td>HR manager</td>
<td>All HR managers viewed relational social capital as vital to expatriate work well-being</td>
<td></td>
<td>Supports earlier research on the significance of trust in building relationships (Theingi et al., 2008). Extends existing literature on the importance trustworthiness of the management (McPhail &amp; McNulty, 2015) to expatriate work well-being.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Demographic variable</th>
<th>Existing literature</th>
<th>Social capital</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate</td>
<td>Slight differences were found across various demographic variables, such as age, marital status, previous international experience, length of stay in Indonesia, and work location.</td>
<td>Supports prior research on the importance of aspects of cognitive social capital, such as shared vision and shared values and goals to individuals and to their organisations (Cohen &amp; Prusak, 2001; Tsai &amp; Ghoshal, 1998) and the individual’s performance (Fuller &amp; Marler, 2009; Tangney et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2003)</td>
<td>Supports the literature on the relationship on personality traits and firm performance (Hayward &amp; Hambrick, 1997; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Simon &amp; Houghton, 2003) and individual’s job performance (Fuller &amp; Marler, 2009; Tangney et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2003) Supports research on the relationship on personality traits and expatriate success (Spreitzer, McCall, &amp; Mahoney, 1997).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>The impact of cognitive social capital (i.e., sharing common challenges) on expatriate work well-being decreased with age</td>
<td>Supports the literature on age and well-being (Argyle, 1999; Charles et al., 2001)</td>
<td>Supports research on the relationship on personality traits and firm performance (Hayward &amp; Hambrick, 1997; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Simon &amp; Houghton, 2003) and individual’s job performance (Fuller &amp; Marler, 2009; Tangney et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2003) Supports research on the relationship on personality traits and expatriate success (Spreitzer, McCall, &amp; Mahoney, 1997).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Length of stay</td>
<td>The impact of sharing common challenges on expatriate work well-being decreased with length of stay in Indonesia.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Supports extant knowledge on the influence of the local culture to expatriate tenure in host country (Hutchings et al., 2013) Supports extant literature on the importance of shared narratives as an individual’s social capital, particularly sharing common challenges (Bodycott &amp; Lai, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior international experience</td>
<td>The benefit of sharing common challenges with other expatriates were more pronounced among expatriates without prior international experience</td>
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<td>Supports literature on the importance of prior international experience (Tye &amp; Chen, 2005) expatriate experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Supports the literature that expatriates rely on their social capital more and integrated their spouse, family or friends to assist in dealing with challenges of global mobility (Fischlmayr &amp; Puchmüller, 2016) Disagrees with research on expatriates and spouses experiences in the host country (McNulty, 2012)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Differencex</td>
<td>viewing shared challenges across marital status</td>
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<tr>
<td>Work location</td>
<td>Differences in level of impact of cognitive social capital across site and head office expatriates</td>
<td>Extends extant knowledge on the importance of shared narratives (feelings) (Nisbet, 1969) as a form of social capital in sharing experience to develop comradely in the face of difficulties</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Spouse    | Nationality Differences in range of support bases offered by spouses across nationalities | Supports prior research regarding the importance of shared view in aiding the decision making process associated with expatriation issue (Cartus & Primacy 2016; Lazarova, Westman, & Shaffer, 2010; McPhail et al., 2016)  
Extends the literature by suggesting the importance of spouses’ nationality (cf. McNulty, 2012) in viewing sharing common challenges to expatriate work well-being |
| HR manager | Differences in how HR managers perceived clear goals as impacting on expatriate work well-being | Supports the literature on the role of cognitive social capital (i.e., clear organisational goal) to determine how the groups function and in decision making processes (McPhail et al., 2016) |
CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction
In this final chapter the conclusions of the current research are discussed. The purpose, aims, and research questions are presented, as is a summary of the key findings. This is followed by theoretical contributions and then practical implications for organisations and expatriates. Finally, the limitations of this research are discussed and directions for future research are highlighted before the chapter is concluded.

7.2 Purpose and aims of the research
Research on work well-being has gained impetus because work well-being is considered the most important aspect of overall subjective well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010). However, exactly what work well-being really constitutes has been relatively unclear. Fisher (2014) proposed that work well-being comprises of cognitive and affective components as well as social and eudaimonic components. Prior literature has mainly used job satisfaction to represent work well-being (e.g., Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) and identified individual factors that influence work well-being such as age (Argyle, 1999; Charles et al., 2001) and gender (Alesina, Di Tella, & MacCulloch, 2004). Yet, questions remain regarding what constitutes and comprises work well-being as affected by factors internal and external to the organisation. Little is known regarding the impact of social capital on work well-being, particularly of expatriate employees, even though social capital has been found to play a central role in assisting successful expatriation (e.g., Fischlmayr & Puchmüller, 2015; McPhail et al., 2016) and has generally been little explored in expatriation/expatriate literature (see also Hsu, 2012; McFayden & Cannella, 2004; Zhou, Siu, & Wang, 2010; Claus, Maletz, Casoinic, & Pierson, 2015; Lee & Kartika, 2014; Horak & Yang, 2016; Lee &
Further, in the resources sector, work well-being plays a major role in workers’ productivity. According to The Australasian Centre for Rural and Remote Mental Health (ACRRMH), understanding well-being in the resources sector is vital to improving productivity and profits (ACRRMH, 2014). Indonesia, in particular, remains under-researched with respect to management and human resource management practices. Thus, the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia warrants exploration, not only because of the challenges associated with working in the resources sector, but also because of the growing economic importance of the Indonesian economy, especially in the resources sector, for international economies. Given that previous studies on work well-being (see Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Fisher, 2002, 2010; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Kidger et al., 2016; Lamb & Kwok, 2016,2014; Warr, 2007) mainly used quantitative measures and explored particular aspects of work well-being, the current research is important as it qualitatively sought to understand perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. This was examined through the views of expatriates, spouses and HR managers. This study thus contributes to expatriate/expatriation, work well-being, and social capital literature.

The focus of this study was to explore the following overarching research question (RQ): *How is social capital perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?* The current research provides a new conceptual framework of work well-being —developed from the perceptions of Indonesian resources sector expatriates, their spouses, and HR managers’ understanding of expatriates’ use of social capital— that builds on Fisher’s (2014) model of work well-being which includes affective,
cognitive and social components. The core theory underpinning this research is Social Capital Theory (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) that focuses on the resources embedded in the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit, and thus, it suits the current qualitative research which scope is to examine the individual and social units. In addition, in non-Western countries like Indonesia which is highly collectivist in nature, social capital is argued to be vital (cf. Sorensen, 2015).

Three different groups (expatriates, spouses, and HR managers) were asked about their perceptions of the impact of three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive social capital) on expatriate work well-being, and a set of sub-research questions were used to explore these perceptions. The research questions included:

RQa: How do expatriates perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on their work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQb: How do expatriate spouses perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

RQc: How do HR managers perceive structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia?

7.3 Summary of key findings

The analysis of the interview data indicated recurring issues, which were grouped into several key themes: (a) the background context of working in Indonesia and experience and challenges faced in Indonesia from the perspective of resource sector expatriates and expatriate spouses as well as HR managers’ opinions about expatriate employees working in Indonesia; (b) the participants’ understandings of the concept of work well-being in general, and in Indonesia in particular; and (c) the perceptions of the impact of social capital on
expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, as well as types of support. A summary of key findings within each of the themes is presented below.

7.3.1 Background context and experiences in Indonesia

The key motivating factors to work in the resources sector in Indonesia that were reported by the participants included opportunities, personal reasons, meaningful challenges, background education, social connections, benefits, intangible rewards (eudaimonic aspect), passion, and organisational factors. Further, both expatriate and spouse groups expressed that there were challenges to living in Indonesia that were predominantly related to difficulties in adapting to Indonesian culture, as well as the negative impact of Jakarta’s traffic on individuals’ well-being, including expatriate work well-being. However, the expatriate and spouse participants generally noted that their experience in Indonesia, despite its challenges, was a positive one for expatriate work well-being, and this was also confirmed by HR managers, who suggested that the expatriate employees had never expressed that there were significant challenges for them in Indonesia.

7.3.2 Expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia

This study explored the participants’ perceptions of the concept of work well-being in general; more specifically, it also examined the understanding of expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Whilst the concept of work well-being in general was predominantly perceived as consisting of job attitudes, including job satisfaction, with organisational factors were considered the least influential; the understanding the concept of work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia specifically indicated that social aspects related to Indonesian culture and people were seen as the main component that determined expatriate work well-being, while organisational factors were considered to be the least influential component in perceiving expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.
7.3.3 Impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being

This study used Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) three dimensions of social capital theory, namely, structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions. The structural dimension represents the general pattern of connections between actors, while relational dimension describes the type of personal relationships individuals have developed with each other through a history of interactions, and cognitive dimension constitutes resources offering shared representation, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties. Each of these three major themes is comprised of three subthemes. The structural dimension consists of social network, contact with headquarters, and value in increasing networks; the relational dimension comprises good relationship, trust, and collegiality; the cognitive dimension consists of shared vision, clear goal, and common challenges sub-themes. Moreover, types of support include formal and informal support, and self-sufficiency.

For the structural dimension, social networks and regular contacts with headquarters were viewed as important to expatriate work well-being, although contacts with headquarters were seen as having a mixed effect on expatriate work well-being. Further, with regard to relational social capital, having good relationships was regarded as important since it promotes effective communication with others, which eventually leads to positive outcomes, including in the workplace context. While trust was perceived as a critical aspect of expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia, collegiality provides individuals with a support base, and this is especially important to ensure expatriate success. In relation to cognitive social capital, having a shared view was seen as important since it aids the process of reaching goals and assists with reaching agreement in setting common goals. While having a clear goal is important for giving an individual sense of purpose in life, sharing common challenges and knowing that other expatriates in Indonesia generally share similar challenges is important to expatriate work well-being because it provides them with a
sense of acceptance and belonging. Furthermore, to overcome the challenges they face in Indonesia, expatriates receive support and assistance from other people, including fellow expatriates and locals. This support can be formal and informal, as well as from their own personal resources.

7.4 Theoretical contributions

This research offers theoretical contributions to expatriate/expatriation literature, specifically in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital, while also contributing to both work well-being and social capital literature in several key areas. This research provides analysis of a specific under-researched context (i.e., the Indonesian resources sector); both have not been well examined in the business/management/HRM literature. First, the research is important in focusing on expatriates/expatriation issues in relation to expatriates’ use of their social capital by specifically examining expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia, a sector and country that has received little attention in the extant expatriate/expatriation literature. In providing understanding of the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in a developing economy, in which much of the work in the sector is undertaken in remote locations, this current research adds to studies done in prior expatriate/expatriation research that have focused on more standard workplaces. Second, the study extends the existing literature on work well-being by offering a more thorough examination of the components of work well-being of expatriates in the resources sector in Indonesia. The new conceptual framework developed from this current research, which includes all aspects of work well-being identified in this study, extends the previous model proposed by Fisher (2014) by adding consideration of aspects external to the organisation as being part of work well-being. Third, the current study extends the social capital literature by providing an understanding of the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being, particularly by examining three dimensions of social capital; namely, structural, relational,
7.4.1 Expatriate/expatriation

The current study extends the literature on social capital and expatriate/expatriation specifically in the context of the resources sector in Indonesia. Since working in remote locations was found to result in poor mental health and well-being levels (Lovell & Critchley, 2010), social support has become more important for expatriates. In order to receive social support, expatriates need to use their social capital. The current research found that business conducted in Asian countries (see Sorensen, 2015), particularly in Indonesia, is relationship driven. This means that the breadth of one’s relationship determines the success of the business. Further, this study extends prior research by suggesting that the strength of social bonds between expatriates and HCNs (see Oranuch, 2010) plays a major role in determining expatriate work well-being, as reflected by the perceived importance of relational social capital suggested by the participants in this study. This is apparent through expatriates’ new adaptive leadership style (see Suutari et al., 2002) that takes into account the Indonesian collectivist nature where expatriates embrace the family values and value team work, as these individuals’ success depends on team success or, as it is also known, “there is no I in TEAM”. Living and working in Asia, like in Indonesia, was found to be beneficial for expatriates. For example, Freeman and Rizvi (2014) argued that the social experience is a vital element of living and working in Asia, which allows Australians to expand their global networks as well as bring about opportunities for the advanced practice of public diplomacy.

This study also extends Fechter’s (2008) suggestion about the importance of expatriate spouses by arguing that while carrying this “bridging” role, expatriate spouses also serve as a form of social capital to expatriates that contributes to expatriate work well-being. The spouse “bridging” role was found to be more pronounced among local spouses, given their roots in Indonesia and the breadth of their social support networks. Being a member of
an expatriate community is important because it serve as a source of social support for expatriates (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Despotovic, Hutchings, & McPhail, 2015). Thus, while carrying this “bridging” role, expatriate spouses also serve as a form of social capital for the expatriates that contribute to expatriate work well-being.

7.4.2 New conceptual framework of work well-being

This study extends the literature on work well-being by offering a new conceptual framework that more fully examines the components of work well-being (as illustrated in Figure 6.2). This was developed from the perceptions of participants in this study about what constitutes work well-being. The findings of this study suggested that there are 10 major themes associated with work well-being in general. These are, in descending order of importance: job attitudes, affect, benefits, social aspect, work atmosphere, security/safety, eudaimonic or intangible rewards, work aspects, work-life balance, and organisational factors. Each of these themes contains subthemes that make up a specific theme. Each theme has highly related specific sub-themes.

Slightly different from the understanding of the concept of work well-being in general, work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia was specifically perceived as consisting of eight key themes, each of which consisted of highly related specific sub-themes, that were categorised in this research as: social aspect, security/safety, benefits, work aspects, job attitudes and other attitudes, eudaimonic aspects, affect, and organisational factors. These themes are comprised of subthemes that are grouped into a specific theme. Taking into account these findings, this study proposes a new conceptual framework of work well-being that specifically extends Fisher’s (2014) conceptualisation of work well-being by adding new aspects to the model. The new conceptual framework considers factors that are related to work well-being of expatriates in particular, which also has implications for understanding work well-being in general. Work well-being is then conceptualised as a multidimensional
concept that includes both cognitive (job attitudes) and affective parts (affect), as well as factors internal to an individual (social, eudaimonic, work-life balance, safety) and external factors (organisation and government).

7.4.3 Social capital

The current research offers an important contribution to social capital theory, as previous research has not used social capital theory to examine work well-being generally, nor expatriate work well-being specifically. This research extends the existing literature by examining the influence of demographic attributes (age, marital status, length of stay in Indonesia, previous international assignment, organisational ownership type, and work location) on how expatriates perceived elements that this research categorised as the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of social capital as having an impact on expatriate work well-being. The demographic attributes examined included age, marital status, length of stay in Indonesia, previous international assignment, organisational ownership type, and work location. Age and length of stay were perceived to be the most significant demographic variables across three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive social capital) that influenced expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia.

The most significant differences were found in expatriates’ perceptions of the impact of structural social capital on their work well-being across differing expatriates’ demographic variables. These differences were found to be mainly related to expatriate age and social networks. Whilst not examining social capital in particular, prior literature has considered the relationship between age and well-being (Argyle, 1999; Charles et al., 2001), age and other job attributes (Warr, 2001), achievement motivation and age (Mehrabian & Blum, 1996), age and other job attributes (Warr, 2001), and achievement motivation and age (Mehrabian & Blum, 1996). Thus, the current research extends past research by suggesting that age and
social networks were related, as such the number of social networks increases with an expatriate’s age. This study also found that the importance of sharing common challenges decreased with age, which was attributed to the expatriate’s personality, and the expatriate length of stay was also significant for expatriate work well-being. This supports Hutchings et al.’s (2013) study, which found that female expatriates in the UAE showed decreased concern about conforming as their length of stay increased. Prior literature has examined the relationship between personality traits and success at work, (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997; Judge, Bono, Illies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Simon & Houghton, 2003; Fuller & Marler, 2009; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004; Wang, Karns, & Meredith, 2003), including for expatriates (Reio & Callahan, 2004; Selmer, Lauring, Zhang, & Jonasson, 2016; Spreitzer, McCall, & Mahoney, 1997). While those researchers did not look at social capital in particular, the current research extends past research by suggesting that an expatriate’s age, length of stay, and personality influence how they define the importance of sharing common challenges to their work well-being.

Furthermore, almost all expatriates, regardless of their demographic variables, specifically saw trust as significantly important to their work well-being. This is because trust represents an individual’s reliability, confidence, credibility, and openness of information. Past research defined trust as a willingness arising from confidence in four aspects (Mishira, 1996): (a) belief in the good intent and concern of exchange partners (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale, 1990; Ring & Van de Ven, 1994) that resembles what expatriate participants in this study called credibility; (b) belief in their competence and capability (Sako, 1992; Szulanski, 1996), which is similar to confidence in this study; (c) belief in their reliability (Giddens, 1990; Ouchi, 1981), which was described as reliability in this study; and (d) belief in their perceived openness (Ouchi, 1981), which is similar to what expatriates in this study referred to as openness of information. While those researchers did not particularly examine social
capital, the current research adds to prior research by suggesting that as a form of expatriate’s social capital, trust is represented through four aspects, namely confidence, competence and capability, reliability, and openness.

Although all expatriate spouses perceived all three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive) as significant for expatriate work well-being, differences were found in their perceptions of the impact of cognitive social capital on expatriate work well-being across different spouses’ nationalities. These differences were mainly related to the impact of sharing common challenges to expatriate work well-being where local spouses did not experience similar challenges as their expatriate husbands, while at the same time they were able to offer wider support networks for their expatriate husbands, including support with work-related tasks. Therefore, the wider support network provided by local spouses to expatriates contributed to higher levels of expatriate work well-being. This study contributes to the expatriation/expatriate literature by extending studies on the influence of the expatriate’s family, particularly the expatriate spouse (Caligiuri, Joshi, & Lazarova, 1999; De Cieri, Dowling, & Taylor, 1991; Stone, 1991; Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002), on expatriate experiences overseas by suggesting that the expatriate family, particularly the expatriate spouse, also has an impact on their work well-being.

No analyses were conducted across HR managers’ demographic variables due to the homogenous nature of these participants (i.e., being Indonesian nationals and worked for MNCs). While all HR managers perceived the three different dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, and cognitive) as impacting on expatriate work well-being, HR managers emphasised the importance of trust as a prerequisite of an effective working relationship, which lends support to Theingi et al.’s (2008) study on the importance of building trust. While Theingi et al.’s study did not specifically examine social capital, the current research supports their argument by suggesting that trust is a focal form of social
capital and that building trust is important to improve expatriate work well-being. Further, HR managers explained that trust also involves their trustworthiness when this influences expatriate work well-being, since HR managers are regarded as representatives of the organisation that employed expatriates. This finding is similar to McPhail and McNulty’s (2015) study on the importance of acceptance and company support to lesbian and gay expatriates. While McPhail and McNulty’s (2015) study did not explore social capital in particular, the current study adds to that literature by suggesting that HR managers’ trustworthiness is regarded as a form of management support that is vital for expatriate work well-being.

In this section, theoretical contributions of this research have been discussed. This research is significant because it adds to expatriate/expatriation literature, work well-being literature, and social capital literature. In particular, this research also offers understanding of the context of Indonesia, specifically the resources sector, a country and area that both have been under-researched in the business/management/HRM literature. Figure 7.1 below shows how these three key areas of literature interact.

Figure 7.1: Theoretical contributions of this study: the interaction of social capital, work well-being, and expatriates
7.5 Practical implications

This research contributes to practice by providing insights for organisations and managers to develop policy and practice to enhance work well-being of expatriates through supporting expatriates (and their families, where relevant) when working in developing countries, including in remote locations. The findings of this study also have implications for expatriates in respect to how they manage their own expatriate experience.

7.5.1 Implications for organisations

For organisations that employ expatriates, the findings of this study suggest the need to conduct effective cross-cultural training about Indonesia; to have understanding of bureaucracy, hiring issues, and how to work in Indonesia; and to design specifically tailored expatriate support policies for the inclusion of expatriate spouse and family.

7.5.2 Cross-cultural training about Indonesia

To design an effective cross-cultural training (see Tung, 1982), it is important for the programs to include information about both physical and non-physical elements of the host country. This is also true for Indonesia, particularly given the geographical size and infrastructure, as well as cultural diversity. For example, some expatriate participants talked about Indonesia being the biggest archipelagic country, and Indonesia’s geographical and physical infrastructure can pose challenges for expatriates in terms of logistics and distribution, which also creates societal tiers. Employers should also provide a thorough and detailed briefing to expatriates about the infrastructure and how to travel around Indonesia before sending them there; for example, to reach different places in Indonesia mostly requires air travel. Non-physical elements are particularly important because many expatriates in this study pointed out the importance of learning local language; hence, suggesting that
organisations should arrange language lessons for expatriates.

Given the great diversity in Indonesia, which has over 300 native languages, it is important for expatriates to at least be able to speak the basic national language. Inability to understand local language has been widely cited by expatriates as a challenge that eventually contributes to their work well-being when they learn to speak the language, and thus employers need to provide expatriates with Indonesian language lessons prior to their departure. Also, Indonesia has more than 300 ethnic groups with different norms, values, and taboos. Therefore, HR managers need to ensure that their expatriate employees understand the importance of being sensitive about diversity in order to thrive in Indonesia and assist their work well-being.

7.5.3 Understanding bureaucracy, hiring issues, and how to work in Indonesia

It is important for organisations to offer support and care to their expatriate employees to assist with their relocation experiences. Recruitment of expatriates can be challenging. Given Indonesia’s complicated bureaucracy, especially in issuing work permits for expatriates, it is important for managers to be able to handle this issue to ensure expatriates’ legal status in Indonesia. Almost all expatriates in this study pointed out the negative influence of this complicated bureaucracy for their work well-being. Therefore, it is vital for organisations employing expatriates to act in the best interests of their expatriate employees in dealing with their work permits. Also, corruption is a big issue in Indonesia (Blunt, Turner, & Lindroth, 2012) and this makes expatriate experiences in Indonesia more complicated. For example, the regulation states that expatriates are only allowed to fill some positions that cannot be filled by locals (Tjiptoherijanto, 1998) and this has made obtaining work permits for expatriates difficult. This is an example where corruption exists to justify an expatriate’s qualifications for being in Indonesia.
The low level of competency of human resources in Indonesia might exacerbate the stress expatriates feel related to relocating overseas, especially in the workplace, and generally in day-to-day issues. The level of Indonesians’ English competency may create the feeling of “lost in translation” when local Indonesians fail to understand expatriates’ instructions or questions. Further, since line managers play a key role in implementing HR systems and procedures (Susilowati et al., 2012), and because expatriates in Indonesia are at managerial levels, this makes the expatriate’s role important in promoting good HRM practices. Organisations should provide guidance, training, and manuals to make sure expatriates understand their function of transferring knowledge to their HCNs. Some expatriate participants in this study pointed out the Indonesian culture of a resigned attitude (rooted in Javanese culture) where Indonesians always accept whatever they have and lack ambition. This research found that Javanese culture (see also Pruetipibultham, 2012) also extends to the work context, where business values respect, understanding, and trust. HCNs do not force their own personal growth, and the idea of progressing in an organisation seems somewhat alien. This is where organisations need to train expatriates to implement dynamic leadership by applying Western values of personal growth and to encourage Indonesians to be more outspoken and critical, and thus to change their attitude of resignation. This is important because many expatriates in this study stated that their success in changing Indonesians’ resigned attitude to becoming more critical contributed positively to their work well-being, while for organisations, it eventually aids the organisation to have higher performance outcomes.

7.5.4 Relocation assistance

Employers should offer relocation assistance for expatriates as foreigners are not allowed to own a property in Indonesia. Since renting a house in Indonesia has to be paid annually, it can pose challenges for expatriates who want to stay in a particular house for a short period
of time (less than a year). Organisations need to assist expatriates in this situation, although it is not uncommon for HR managers to arrange housing for their expatriate employees as part of their compensation and benefit package. Accommodation and facilities are main attractions to work in Indonesia, as expressed by almost all participants in this study, and thus, employers need to offer an all-inclusive package with the best accommodation and excellent facilities.

Some expatriates in this study saw Indonesia as being old school and that everything relied on word-of-mouth. Considering the lack of information provided to expatriates to settle in Indonesia, HR managers need to arrange housing, car, schooling, and even a housemaid to assist in smoothing expatriates and spouses’ relocation to Indonesia, which contributes positively to expatriate well-being and work well-being. In addition, given the heavy Jakarta traffic, HR managers also need to consider providing housing for Jakarta-based expatriates that is close to the office in order to prevent them being stuck in the traffic for hours when commuting. Jakarta traffic was also found to have negative impacts on expatriate well-being, while also having financial consequences.

7.5.5 The inclusion of spouse and family in expatriate-tailored policies

Prior research has suggested that spouse dissatisfaction and spouse non-adjustment are reasons for expatriates’ failure in international assignments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; van Erp, Giebels, van der Zee, & van Duijn, 2011). While the current research did not look at adjustment as such, this study found that trailing family and spouse were vital in determining expatriate experiences of living and working in Indonesia that contribute to expatriate work well-being. In Indonesia, spouses are not allowed to work, and this contributes negatively to the spouses’ well-being, which also negatively affects expatriate work well-being. Since most partners require help in coping with the negative
psychological reactions associated with overseas relocation (Forster, 2000), managers need to create expatriate networks within the organisation that also include expatriate spouses.

It is important for expatriates (and trailing spouses) to participate in organisations to widen their support network, while increasing knowledge and skills to be self-sufficient in effectively managing challenges. As a planner and executor, HR managers need to have an “open door” policy that welcomes expatriates any time to discuss the issues they are facing working and living in Indonesia to their HR managers. For instance, having a regular “town hall” meeting (i.e., “an organization-wide business meeting in which an executive report is made and then employees or guests have an opportunity to ask questions, and engage with business executives”; TKO Video Conferencing, 2017) for all employees, including expatriates (and expatriates’ spouses), can be beneficial for both the organisation and expatriates. Town hall meetings allow all employees to voice their concerns pertaining to their work (and their work well-being). This is particularly important for expatriates and their spouses to help tackle their issues associated with working and living in Indonesia and contributes positively to both expatriates’ and spouses’ well-being in Indonesia, which leads to higher expatriate work well-being.

7.5.6 Implications for expatriates
At an individual level, the findings of this study suggest the need to build expatriate social capital, such as building trust through embracing family values, and developing strong social networks to improve expatriate work well-being, as well as to encourage people to work with cultural diversity.

7.5.7 Building trust through embracing family values
Almost all the participants in this study, across the three groups, saw trust as especially important to their work well-being, which supports Theingi et al.’s (2008) study on the importance of building trust, as well as Mishira’s (1996) study on the roles of trust. In order
to gain trust from local people, it is important that expatriates are open to adapting to
Indonesian values, such as to work well in a team, to recognise that individual success
dePENDS on team success, to move away from the individual Western value of the superior
“I”, to the culture of respecting others (especially older people).

Expatriates in this study expressed difficulties in building relationships with HCNs,
because their HCN colleagues were not willing to work with expatriates, hence resulting in
poor performance that contributed negatively to expatriate work well-being. Poor
performance leads to dissatisfaction with the job, which leads to low levels of work well-
being. HCNs provide four types of social support (see Van Bakel, Oudenhoven, & Gerritsen,
2017) and by offering this social support, HCNs serve as expatriate social capital, while the
absence of this support has a negative impact on expatriate work well-being.

To overcome trust issues, expatriates need to build a family environment, which is
valued highly by Indonesians, who are highly collectivist. Building a family environment was
found to be effective to manage HCNs’ work and maximise the outcome because people
work better when they are together as a group. This creates an environment with a sense of
belonging for expatriates and HCNs, as well as building harmonious relationships, which
leads to higher expatriate work well-being. A family environment can be created through
socialising with HCNs and removing barriers that might exist between expatriates and local
workers, but it is important to take into account the Indonesian resigned attitude, which
makes them obey all instructions given by their superiors, including expatriates. Therefore,
expatriates need to teach HCNs how to be more critical and to take more responsibility for
their own work, and hence identify with their individual work, not just team work. This can
be achieved by taking into account HCNs’ voice and by integrating collectivist values.

7.5.8 How to socially network

Expatriates in this study saw social networks as serving the following purposes that are
significant to their work well-being: (a) act as a buffer between work and social life; (b) provide support with work tasks; (c) help develop their business; and (d) provide them with a sense of belonging, which saves them from feelings of isolation.

Social networks differed by demographic factors and were seen as increasingly more significant with expatriates’ age and length of stay, especially for establishing social networks with local people to provide a safety net for expatriates and spouses. Older expatriates have stayed longer than younger expatriates and they are more aware of the local culture, which places high importance on sense of community. In Indonesia, being a part of a community contributes positively to expatriate well-being in general and to individual’s work well-being specifically, and it is very important to be a member of a local community in order to broaden friendships with local people. This can be achieved, for example, by participating in local art clubs, interacting with local neighbours, participating in neighbourhood activities, and visiting local attractions and markets. To be able to speak Indonesian language, even if only at a basic level of mastery for day-to-day activities, is key to establishing friendships with locals. This is also vital for expatriate work well-being as it ensures their existence in Indonesia by helping them to secure a job or project with local organisations or government in Indonesia.

While formal networks serve as a means to help expatriates with work-related issues, informal networks act as a buffer that facilitates expatriates’ stress-relief (cf. Häuberer, 2011). It is also important for both expatriates and spouses to increase networks and build relationships. For example, networks comprised of potential clients or similar businesses are important to develop success of the business in Indonesia, and will lead to higher expatriate work well-being. Also, social networks are useful in gathering important information for expatriates – for example, about potential projects. Increasing both informal and formal networks can be achieved through actively attending both social and business gatherings and
by being involved in hobbies, such as joining a fitness centre to meet a wider network of people, and participating in industry-based associations to keep updated with important news. In Indonesia, many business deals take place on the golf course. This shows the overlap between the work and non-work context in Indonesia that is apparent in many areas. Having friends at work is key to higher work well-being levels for expatriates as it allows expatriates to “blow off the steam” of challenges associated with working and living in Indonesia. This is different from the Western context where people more often separate work and personal lives, including establishing a line between having a friend and having a colleague.

7.5.9 Personality with understanding of cultural diversity

Given Indonesia is a big country with over 17,000 islands and more than 300 ethnic groups with over 300 native languages spoken, it is important for expatriates to understand how to work with cultural diversity. Some expatriate participants in this study talked about the challenge of working with different ethnicities in that they need to use different approaches when working with two ethnic groups; for example, using a softer tone of voice when working with Javanese people, while using a louder voice when working with Batakinese people. It becomes even more critical for expatriates who work in remote locations since they have to work with local people who have limited or nil capacity to speak English. This is when learning the Indonesian language really determines expatriate work well-being. However, it might not be so applicable to expatriates who work in Jakarta as HCNs in Jakarta are able to speak English and it is not uncommon to have English as the business language. Expatriates who work in remote locations are also exposed to the danger of spillover effects, which significantly affects collegiality level at work. It is really important for site-based expatriates to know people on a more social level as they work with each other all day and see each other socially at night.
Indonesia is the largest populated Muslim country in the world (see Indonesia Investment, 2016), which has implications for expatriates who work in Indonesia where employers are required to give their employees a 10-minute break for each prayer time each day (Lange, 2010). For example, Muslims pray five times a day, and they take an extra long lunch break on a Friday to pray, as well as change their office hours during the fasting month of Ramadan. Expatriates can find this frustrating if they have a deadline and have to plan around Muslim HCNs’ total devotion to their religion and low priority for work, and thus, this is when cultural sensitivity becomes crucial. Although Indonesia is the biggest Muslim country in the world, it is not an Islamic country. Indonesia is a secular country with six official religions (Islam, Christianity, Catholicism, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucianism). This makes Indonesia unique and different from other countries. Expatriates need to be sensitive of different religions and learn to be tolerant to all the religions.

Since personality type influences expatriates’ experiences of living and working overseas (e.g., Spreitzer, McCall, & Mahoney, 1997), having a positive personality is even more significant to thrive in a collectivist country like Indonesia, where communality is of high importance, because an individual’s success depends on the team’s success. Therefore, being patient and respectful are key to success in Indonesia. Chen et al. (2015) argued that being able to control emotion is important, while being “hot-headed” is detrimental to an individual’s work well-being (see also Kitayama et al., 2006).

7.6 Research limitations and future research directions

Despite offering contributions to the literature, this research has some limitations. In this section, the limitations of this study are discussed and issues for future research are highlighted.

7.6.1 Data collection technique

The data collection technique in this study was cross-sectional in nature, in which the
participants’ perceptions have been measured simultaneously at one point in time. The cross-sectional data collection technique was deemed suitable for this research due to time constraints, in addition to its advantages in providing an understanding of the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being during expatriates’ stay in Indonesia. This prevents memory bias, such as clouding from past account (retrospective) autobiographical memory, in that in autobiographical memory, positive events tend to be remembered more than negative events, as positive emotions fade slower than negative ones (Ritchie et al., 2015). As the participants’ perceptions were captured at one point in time, it was not possible to examine long-term effects, such as the perceptions of the impact of social capital on subsequent expatriate postings, or upon later career stage or progress. Future studies may consider adopting a longitudinal approach across different stages of career and across different expatriate postings to better understand the impact of different stages of career and host locations on the perceptions of expatriate work well-being. Thus, future research might examine expatriates and their spouses prior to their departure to a host country, upon arrival, and in their first few years after arrival.

7.6.2 Sample size, sample distribution, and self-selection

The semi-structured, in-depth interviews offered rich data containing detailed and unique perspectives of expatriates, spouses, and HR managers regarding the expatriates’ experiences of living and working in Indonesia and the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. As the interviews were conducted with 58 participants across three different groups, the results may yield limited generalisability. Also, given that the resources sector is a male-dominated sector, there was only one female out of 43 expatriate participants in this study. Future research might seek to employ a more equal distribution across genders (which is important to minimise sampling bias) in a different sector and therefore resulting in more description of the phenomenon. Although the
current sample size exceeds the suggested number of 50 interview participants to be methodologically valid (Saunders & Townsend, 2016), future research may consider employing a larger sample of participants. The sample of participants was limited to those who had self-selected through access from gatekeepers, snowballing technique, and direct approach for a request for an interview. Given the data collection process in this study was conducted over six months, future research could dedicate more time to be able to assess a greater number of organisations.

7.6.3 Qualitative method

Despite interviews being the most suitable method for conducting this research, which explored individuals’ unique perceptions, future research could employ a quantitative methodology; for example, by using quantitative measures of items such as level of trust, perceived social support, attachment, and number of contacts. These were key issues expressed by the participants in this study, where they indicated that high levels of support and trust were perceived as significantly impacting on expatriate work well-being, while low levels of support and trust were not perceived as significant. This is because the types and extent of use of social capital have been examined, but the levels of each subdimension have not. Future research might include a quantitative-based checklist of various types of social capital and scales of consistency levels. Multivariate approaches could be used in order to reduce bias, which is done by controlling for explanatory variables. In addition, though the demographic details of participants were collected and analysed across significant demographic differences (such as age, gender, marital status, prior international experience, length of stay, work location, and organisational ownership type) that were thought to influence the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being, future quantitative analysis may consider other potential demographic factors. Given the findings of this study indicated potential relationships between demographic factors and personality.
types, future research could consider the influence of other factors in determining an individual’s use of social capital (e.g., personality type, such as extroversion/introversion).

7.6.4 Examination of specific host country context

This study focused specifically on extending the literature by offering insights into the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Thus, this sample is to a certain extent context bound, and though the findings may relate to expatriates working in other remote locations, the findings may not be applicable to expatriates from other host country locations and business sectors. Although it is expected that some of the findings would also be found for expatriates in other non-Western host locations with some cultural similarities, such as China and Malaysia, the findings of this study may not be generalisable to other host locations. Since the country context influences expatriates’ experiences, future research could examine more diverse host contexts, such as in an Asian country with larger expatriate populations. The importance of social capital, such as having wide social networks, might be more or less pronounced than in Indonesia.

7.6.5 Social capital and other forms of capital of expatriates

The findings identified types of social capital that are viewed as important to expatriate work well-being and expatriates’ use of social capital in facilitating their experiences working and living in Indonesia. The current study suggests that future research needs to examine factors other than individual’s social capital that may influence expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. Among others, these variables could be economic capital, human capital, and environmental factors. For example, future research could examine expatriates’ use of their economic capital in aiding their international assignment and its effect on expatriate work well-being.

Further research could benefit by exploring the following: (a) the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being across different stages of expatriation; and (b) the role
of social capital to expatriate work well-being across individualist and collectivist countries. Future research needs to broaden the focus by examining expatriates’ use of structural social capital across different stages of expatriation, such as predeparture, arrival, and repatriation. In addition, future research could specifically examine the role of social capital on resource sector female expatriates’ work well-being, where the strong masculinist culture poses more challenges for females than for males.

7.7 Conclusion
The current study is the first to explore the perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the specific context of the resources sector in Indonesia. Drawing on 58 semi-structured interviews across three different groups of expatriates, spouses and HR managers, this study provides theoretical contributions to expatriates/expatriation literature, work well-being literature, and the literature on social capital. In particular, this research provides understanding of an under-researched context (i.e., the Indonesian resources sector). The findings of this study indicated that all three dimensions of social capital (structural, relational, cognitive dimensions) were perceived as having a positive impact on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. These findings also highlighted the types of social capital dimensions and subdimensions that are perceived as important to expatriate work well-being. This study is important because it offers a new conceptual framework that more thoroughly captures understanding of work well-being – as indicated by the participants in this study. This research also provides understanding of the perceived impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in a sector and country that has received little attention in the literature. Therefore, this current research adds to prior studies of work well-being that have focused on more standard workplaces. Along with the contributions this study adds to expatriate/expatriation, work well-being and social capital literature in the context of the Indonesian resources sector,
understanding of how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being offers practical implications for expatriates and organisations. Key practical implications for organisations include: the need to conduct effective cross-cultural training; the need to understand bureaucracy in Indonesia, hiring issues in Indonesia, and how to work in Indonesia; the need to provide relocation assistance; and consideration of spouse and family in expatriate-tailored policies. For expatriates, key practical implications are: how to build trust through embracing family values, ways for expatriates to socially network and find beneficial networks, and the need for expatriates to understand cultural diversity.


*Business Horizons, 24*(6), 82–83.


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Tambunan, T. (2011). Do multinational companies transfer technology to local small and medium-sized enterprises? In E. Rugraff & M. W. Hansen (Eds.), Multinational
Corporations and Local Firms in Emerging Economies (pp. 75–99). Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.


Appendix A: Interview Protocol Questions (Expatriate)

The perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia

Expatriate Interview Guide

Interview details
Date and time of interview: __________________________________________
Place of interview: __________________________________________
Interviewee code: __________________________________________

Part A

Interviewee’s organisational information
Name of organisation: __________________________________________
Industry: 
   a) Mining
   b) Oil and gas
Location of headquarters: __________________________________________
Locations of remote sites in Indonesia: __________________________________________
Number of employees in Indonesia: __________________________________________
Number of expatriate employees in Indonesia: __________________________________________

Interviewee’s details
Gender: __________________________________________
Age bracket: a) 18–25; b) 26–35; c) 36–45; d) 46–55; e) ≥ 56
Nationality: __________________________________________
Native language: __________________________________________
Relationship status: __________________________________________
Position in organisation: __________________________________________
Years of service as an expatriate: __________________________________________
Years of service with the current organisation: __________________________________________
Years of service in the resources sector: __________________________________________
Years of service in Indonesia: __________________________________________
Highest level of education: __________________________________________
Type of industries worked for: 
   a) Resources/extraction sector (e.g., mining, oil&gas, quarrying)
   b) Agriculture and fishing
   c) Manufacturing
   d) Construction
   e) Services (e.g., health services, hospitality, finance, consulting, legal, retail)
   f) Technology/innovation/research&development
PART B

Section 1: Introduction (5 mins)
- Explain the purpose and nature of the study to the participant. Tell them that the purpose of this interview is to gain understanding of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being. This will involve identifying factors associated with work well-being based on the views of Indonesian resources sector expatriate workers.
- Explain the ethical implications in terms of confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity protection for the participant.
- Explain and gain agreement to recording and note taking.
- Inform the participant that the summary of the research will be made available to him/her upon his/her request.
- Ask the participant to sign the Consent Form before starting the interview.

Section 2: Work experiences
Introduction: To commence the interview, I would like to gather information about your work experiences.
1. What attracted you to work for your current organisation?
2. Why do you choose to work in the resources sector?
3. Have you had prior international assignments? If yes, where, when, and for how long?
4. What lead you to work in Indonesia?

Section 3: Social capital and work well-being
Now I would like to ask you about your work and specific issues/situations related to work.
1. What do you understand work well-being to be?
   (Show Fisher’s model of work well-being and ask for their comments)
2. Can you tell me about your work well-being as an expatriate in Indonesia?
3. What have been some of the most positive aspects of working an expatriate in Indonesia?
   Prompt: Please give an example.
4. Have you had any work-related challenges as an expatriate in Indonesia?
   Prompt: If yes, what? If no, why not?
5. Do you receive any assistance/support to overcome those challenges?
   Prompt: If yes, from who? What?
6. Can you tell me about your social networks here in Indonesia?
   Prompt: What?
7. Are those networks external or internal to your organisation?
   Prompt: Please explain and please give example/s.
8. Do you see value in increasing the number of contacts and social networks that you have?
   Prompt: If yes, why and how? If no, why not?
9. Does your headquarters maintain regular contact/network with their employees in Indonesia (including you)?
   Prompt: What does the contact involve?
10. Do social networks and/or contact with headquarters impact on your work well-being? If so, how?
11. Is it important to you to have good relationships with your colleagues at work?
   Prompt: If yes, why? If no, why not?
12. Is trust important in those relationships? If yes, what does this involve?
13. Does this impact on your work well-being?
   **Prompt:** If yes, how? Please give an example.
14. Do your colleagues support each other to complete tasks at work?
   **Prompt:** If yes, how? Please give a specific example.
15. Does the level of collegiality impact on your work well-being?
   **Prompt:** How?
16. Is having a shared view, with your colleagues, of the mission of the organisation important to your work well-being?
   **Prompt:** Why/why not?
17. Is having a clear goal from the headquarters important to your work well-being?
   **Prompt:** Why/why not? Can you give me a specific instance?
18. Do you think that you experience challenges working in Indonesia which are common to your expatriate colleagues?
   **Prompt:** If yes, what? If no, why not?
19. Does having/not having a similar experience with other expatriates impact on your work well-being?
   **Prompt:** If yes, why and how? If no, why not?
20. Has your spouse accompanied you to work in Indonesia?
21. Does having your spouse here impact on your work well-being?

**Section 3: Conclusion (5 minutes)**
Before we finish, do you have any other comments you wish to make?
Do you have any questions you would like to ask me about the research project?
That ends the interview. Thank you for your participation and the information that you have provided.

   **Once again, thank you very much for your time and participation.**
   **It is highly appreciated 😊**
Appendix B: Interview Protocol Questions (Spouse)

The perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia
Expatriate Spouse Interview Guide

Interview details
Date and time of interview: ________________________________
Place of interview: ________________________________
Interviewee code: ________________________________

Part A

Interviewee’s information
Name of partner’s organisation: ______________________________________
Partner’s industry: 
  a) Mining
  b) Oil and gas
Marital status: ______________________________________
Number of children: ______________________________________

Interviewee’s details
Gender: 
  a) 18–25; b) 26–35; c) 36–45; d) 46–55; e) ≥ 56
Age bracket: ______________________________________
Nationality (country of origin): ______________________________________
Native language: ______________________________________
PART B

Section 1: Introduction (5 mins)
- Explain the purpose and nature of the study to the participant. Tell them that the purpose of this interview is to gain understanding of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being. This will involve identifying factors associated with work well-being based on the views of Indonesian resources sector expatriate workers.
- Explain the ethical implications in terms of confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity protection for the participant.
- Explain and gain agreement to recording and note taking.
- Inform the participant that the summary of the research will be made available to him/her upon his/her request.
- Ask the participant to sign the Consent Form before starting the interview.

Section 2: International experiences
Introduction: To commence the interview, I would like to gather information about your experience living in Indonesia.
1. Have you lived in Indonesia the entire time your partner has been posted here?
2. Has your partner had prior experience in undertaking international assignments? What about you? If yes, where, when, and for how long?
3. Do you have accompanying children in Indonesia?
4. Are you happy with the schooling arrangements for your children? Are they friends with other expatriates’ children/local children?
5. Please tell me about how you maintain relationships and communications with your family/relatives/friends in your home country.

Section 3: Social capital and expatriate work well-being
Now I would like to ask you about your partner’s work and specific issues/situations related to his/her work.
1. What do you understand work well-being to be?
   (Show Fisher’s model of work well-being and ask for their comments)
2. Can you tell me about your partner’s work well-being as an expatriate in Indonesia?
3. What have been some of the most positive aspects of relocating to Indonesia?
   Prompt: Please give an example.
4. Have you had any challenges living as an expatriate’s partner in Indonesia?
   Prompt: If yes, what? If no, why not?
5. Has your partner expressed to you any work-related challenges that he/she faces working as an expatriate in Indonesia?
   Prompt: If yes, what? If no, why not?
6. Do you (and your partner) receive any assistance/support to overcome those challenges?
   Prompt: If yes, from who? What?
7. Can you tell me about your social networks here in Indonesia?
   Prompt: What?
8. Are those networks external or internal to your partner’s organisation?
   Prompt: Please explain and please give example/s.
9. How often do you (and your partner) go to social events?
10. Do you see value in increasing the number of contacts and social networks that you have?
    Prompt: If yes, why and how? If no, why not?
11. Do social networks impact on your partner’s work well-being? If so, how?
12. Is it important to you to have good relationships with your friends here in Indonesia?
   **Prompt:** If yes, why? If no, why not?
13. Is trust important in maintaining relationships? If yes, what does this involve?
14. Does your partner require your support with his/her work?
   **Prompt:** If yes, how? Please give a specific example.
15. Does the level of support impact on your partner’s work well-being?
   **Prompt:** How?
16. Is having a shared goal important to you and your partner?
   **Prompt:** Why/ why not? Can you give me a specific instance?
17. Do you think that you experience challenges living in Indonesia which are common to other expatriates?
   **Prompt:** If yes, what? If no, why not?
18. Do you think that your partner’s experience living in Indonesia is similar to yours?
   **Prompt:** If yes, what? If no, why not?
19. Does having/not having a similar experience with you impact on your partner’s work well-being?
   **Prompt:** If yes, why and how? If no, why not?

**Section 3: Conclusion (5 minutes)**
Before we finish, do you have any other comments you wish to make?
Do you have any questions you would like to ask me about the research project?
That ends the interview. Thank you for your participation and the information that you have provided.

*Once again, thank you very much for your time and participation.*
*It is highly appreciated 😊*
Appendix C: Interview Protocol Questions (HR Manager)

The perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia
HR manager Interview Guide

Interview details
Date and time of interview: ________________________________________
Place of interview: _______________________________________________
Interviewee code: ________________________________________________

Part A

Interviewee’s organisational information
Name of organisation: ______________________________________________
Industry: 
  a) Mining
  b) Oil and gas
Location of headquarters: ____________________________________________
Locations of remote sites in Indonesia: _________________________________
Number of employees in Indonesia: ____________________________________
Number of expatriate employees in Indonesia: __________________________

Interviewee’s details
Gender: __________________________________________________________
Age bracket: 
  a) 18–25; b) 26–35; c) 36–45; d) 46–55; e) ≥ 56
Position in organisation: ____________________________________________
Years of service with the organisation: _________________________________
Highest level of education: _________________________________________
PART B

Section 1: Introduction (5 mins)
- Explain the purpose and nature of the study to the participant. Tell them that the purpose of this interview is to gain understanding of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being. This will involve identifying factors associated with work well-being based on the views of Indonesian resources sector expatriate workers.
- Explain the ethical implications in terms of confidentiality, privacy, and anonymity protection for the participant.
- Explain and gain agreement to recording and note taking.
- Inform the participant that the transcript of his/her interview will be made available to his/her upon his/her request.
- Ask the participant to sign the Consent Form before starting the interview.

Section 2: Work experiences

**Introduction:** To commence the interview, I would like to gather information about your work experiences and expatriate employees.
1. What are the factors that you think attract expatriates to work for this organisation?
2. Why do you think working in the resources sector is appealing for expatriates?
3. How long have you managed expatriate employees in this organisation?
4. Tell me about your means or way of communications with expatriates?
   **Prompt:** Do you organise any expatriate events?
5. How would you describe the relationship between expatriates and local employees?
6. What are specific expatriate-related HRM policies?
   **Prompt:** Related to their well-being? Compensation and benefit? Schooling arrangements for their children?
7. Does your organisation have its own expatriate networking group (e.g., expatriate community/charity group) in Indonesia?

Section 3: Social capital and expatriate work well-being

Now I would like to ask you about your work and specific issues/situations related to work.
1. What do you understand work well-being to be?
   (Show Fisher’s model of work well-being and ask for their comments)
2. What do you think work well-being means to expatriates?
3. Do you think expatriates perceive work well-being in Indonesia as being unique/country-specific?
   **Prompt:** Why? Please elaborate.
4. What kind of support do you, as an HR manager, provide to expatriates?
5. At work, do expatriate employees require more assistance with their work tasks than say, local employees? Why and what?
6. Do expatriates discuss with you their problems about working in Indonesia? If yes, what assistance/support do you provide?
7. Do you know any expatriate social networks here in Indonesia that expatriate employees at your organisation are members of?
   **Prompt:** What?
8. Are those networks external or internal to their organisation?
   **Prompt:** Please explain and please give example/s.
9. Does your headquarters maintain regular contact/network with their employees in Indonesia?
Prompt: What does the contact involve?
10. Do you think that social networks and/or contact with headquarters impact on expatriate work well-being? If so, how?
11. Can you tell me about expatriates' relationships with their colleagues at work?
12. Is trust important in those relationships? If yes, what does this involve?
13. Do you think this impact on expatriate work well-being?
   Prompt: If yes, how? Please give an example.
14. Do employees support each other to complete tasks at work (including expatriates)?
   Prompt: If yes, how? Please give a specific example.
15. Do you think that the level of collegiality impact on expatriate work well-being?
   Prompt: How?
16. Do you think that having a shared view, with their colleagues, of the mission of the organisation, important to expatriate work well-being?
   Prompt: Why/ why not?
17. Is having a clear goal from the headquarters important to expatriate work well-being?
   Prompt: Why/ why not? Can you give me a specific instance?
18. Do you think that expatriate employees experience challenges working in Indonesia which are common to other expatriate employees?
   Prompt: If yes, what? If no, why not?
19. Is this important and/or impacting on their work well-being?
   Prompt: If yes, why and how? If no, why not?

Section 3: Conclusion (5 minutes)
Before we finish, do you have any other comments you wish to make?
Do you have any questions you would like to ask me about the research project?
That ends the interview. Thank you for your participation and the information that you have provided.

Once again, thank you very much for your time and participation.
   It is highly appreciated 😊
INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT
The Perceptions of the Impact of Social Capital on Expatriate Work Well-being in the Resources Sector in Indonesia

Dear Mr/Ms X

I am emailing you to invite you to participate in a research project which I am conducting as part of my PhD studies at Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia.

I am requesting interviews with expatriates working in resources sector organisations in Indonesia, English-speaking spouses of the expatriates, and the HR managers of expatriates in the resources sector. The interview will last around 60 minutes. I am seeking to interview at least 20 expatriates and spouses as well as 10 HR managers. The study seeks to explore how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. It is being conducted across resources organisations in mining and oil and gas industries in local and multinational organisations throughout Indonesia.

Please find attached an information sheet which provides further details about the project. Please also find attached include a consent form which I ask you to complete if you are agreeable to participate in this research.

Please note that participation is voluntary and participants may choose to withdraw at any time without penalty. It is essential that participants are aged 18 years or older.

If you are able to participate in the project it would be greatly appreciated and I look forward to hearing from you to arrange a suitable time.
Yours sincerely,

Harum Apriyanti
PhD Candidate
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources
Griffith University
Nathan campus
Australia
Appendix E: Participants’ Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Project title: The Perceptions of the Impact of Social Capital on Expatriate Work Well-being in the Resources Sector in Indonesia

Who is conducting the research?

Prof Kate Hutchings  
Chief Investigator  
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith Business School, Ph. +61 (7) 555 28513  
k.hutchings@griffith.edu.au

A/Prof Ruth McPhail  
Chief Investigator  
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith Business School, Ph. +61 (7) 5552 8600  
r.mcphail@griffith.edu.au

Ms Harum Apriyanti  
Student Investigator  
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith Business School, Ph. +61 413815458  
h.apriyanti@griffith.edu.au

Why is the research being conducted?

This project explores how social capital is perceived as impacting on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia. This study is being done as research for a PhD degree at Griffith University. This study seeks to comprehend what expatriates, expatriates’ spouses, and HR managers understand about expatriate work well-being and how it is affected by social capital. The research is being conducted across resource sector organisations in mining and oil and gas industries in local and multinational organisations throughout Indonesia. This study extends the existing literature by providing an understanding of the impact of social capital on the perceptions of expatriate work well-being, specifically in the context of the resources sector in Indonesia; a sector and country which have received little attention in the literature.

What you will be asked to do?

You will be asked to participate in an interview of up to 60 minutes duration. The interview will be tape recorded with your permission. An audio recording will be made and once transcribed, it will be destroyed. Key issues that will be asked in the interview involve your work experience, understanding of work well-being, and use of social networks.
The basis by which participants will be selected or screened.

The participants for this research will include: 1) expatriate employees working across a range of levels and positions in local and multinational organisations in the mining and oil and gas industries in the resources sector in Indonesia; 2) English-speaking spouses of the expatriates; and 3) HR managers in the resources sector in Indonesia. Contact will be made through the Director / CEO of one of Indonesia’s biggest recruitment companies, Potentia HR Consulting. The Director of Potentia HR will provide access for the researcher to MNCs and local organisations in the resources sector in Indonesia. In the case of the expected number of participants is not met through Potentia, personal and professional networks will be used. They are as follows: 1) using social media platform and discussion forum such as LinkedIn and InterNations; 2) participating in events organised by professional networking groups, such as Australia-Indonesia Business Council; 3) using assistance from professional business association, such as Trade Investment Queensland as well as from ‘gatekeepers’ (i.e., individuals with whom the researcher negotiates access to participants); 4) using snowball sampling technique.

The expected benefits of the research

While there is no direct benefit to you in participating in this study, the research benefits are two-fold: first, gaining insight into the understanding of the concept of work well-being, as well as how social capital impacts on perceptions of work well-being, in the Indonesian resources sector; and second, providing insights for organisations and managers to develop policy and practice to enhance work well-being of expatriates through supporting expatriates (and their families, where relevant) when working in developing countries including in remote locations.

Risks to you

The interviews will discuss your views of the concept of work well-being as being impacted by the use of social capital. It is not expected that any harm will be caused to any person participating in this research.

Your confidentiality

The information collected from you will be by means of a face-to-face interview and a Skype call. All data collected for this study will be stored within a locked filing cabinet at Griffith University for a period of five years. The audio recording will be erased once the interview has been transcribed. Your real name or that of your organisation will not be included in any publication or report.

Your participation is voluntary

Your participation in this study is voluntary and confidential. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time or decline to answer particular questions. Your participation will in no way impact upon your relationship with any government departments, agencies, employers or Griffith University academic staff.

Further information

If you have any questions about the project or require any information you should contact the chief investigators as detailed on the front page of this information sheet.
Ethical conduct of this research

Griffith University conducts research in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If potential participants have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the research project they should contact Dr Denni Arli, who is fluent in Indonesian and the ethics of this research, on +61 (7) 3735 7344 or d.arli@griffith.edu.au, or directly to the Manager, Research Ethics on +61 (7) 3735 4375 or research-ethics@griffith.edu.au (GU Ref No: EHR/17/14/HREC).

Privacy Statement

The conduct of this research involves the collection, access, and/or use of your identified personal information. The information collected is confidential and will not be disclosed to third parties without your consent, except to meet government, legal or other regulatory authority requirements. A de-identified copy of this data may be used for other research purposes. However, your anonymity will at all times be safeguarded. For further information consult the University’s Privacy Plan at http://www.griffith.edu.au/about-griffith/plans-publications/griffith-university-privacy-plan or telephone +61 (7) 373 54375.

Feedback to you

A summary of results will be provided upon request via email at the completion of the research. Please contact Ms Harum Apriyanti at h.apriyanti@griffith.edu.au.

You should retain this section of the document for future reference or should you wish to contact the researcher(s) or the University.
Appendix F: Participant Consent Form

CONSENT FORM
EHR/17/14/HREC

Project title: The Perceptions of the Impact of Social Capital on Expatriate Work Well-being in the Resources Sector in Indonesia

Who is conducting this research?

Prof Kate Hutchings  
Chief Investigator  
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith Business School, Ph. +61 (7) 555 28513  
k.hutchings@griffith.edu.au

A/Prof Ruth McPhail  
Chief Investigator  
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith Business School, Ph. +61 (7) 5552 8600  
r.mcphail@griffith.edu.au

Ms Harum Apriyanti  
Student Investigator  
Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith Business School, Ph. +61 413815458  
h.apriyanti@griffith.edu.au

By signing below, I confirm that I have read and understood the information regarding this research and in particular I understand that my involvement in this research will include:

- Answering questions during a verbal interview.

All information collected as a result of this research will remain anonymous and confidential. Any comments I provide may be published although my real name will not be disclosed in any reports/publications;

- Participation in this research is voluntary and refusal to participate will involve no penalty. I may withdraw from participation at any time without comment or penalty.
- I have had any questions answered to my satisfaction;
- I understand that all efforts have been made to minimise any potential risk;
- I understand that there will be no direct benefit to me from participation in this research;
- I understand that if I have any additional questions I can contact the research team;
- I understand that the information I provide may be recorded.
- The conduct of this research involves the collection, access, and/or use of my identified personal information. The information collected is confidential and will not be disclosed to third parties without my consent, except to meet government, legal or other regulatory authority requirements. A de-identified copy of this data may be used for other research purposes. However, my anonymity will at all times be safeguarded. For further information consult the University’s Privacy Plan at http://www.griffith.edu.au/about-griffith/plans-publications/griffith-university-privacy-plan or telephone +61 (7) 37354375.
- If you have any concerns of complaints about the ethical conduct of this research please contact Dr Denni Arli, who is fluent in Indonesian and the ethics of this research, on +61 (7) 37357344 or
d.arli@griffith.edu.au, or directly to the Manager, Research Ethics, Griffith University on +61 (7) 3735 4375 or email research-ethics@griffith.edu.au.

**Consent:** I have read the information sheet and the consent form. I am 18 years or older and I agree to participate in this study and give my consent freely. I understand that the study will be carried out as described in the information statement.

Signatures:

________________________________________________________________________
Participant

________________________
Date

___ Harum Apriyanti

________________________________________________________________________
Researcher(s)

________________________
Date

Thank you for your assistance with this research.
Appendix G: Ethics Approval

GRiffith University Human Research Ethics Committee

I write further to your application for a variation to your approved protocol "The perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia" (2015/536). This request has been considered by the Office for Research.

The OR resolved to approve the requested variation:

1) To change the protocol title from “Work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia” to “The perceptions of the impact of social capital on expatriate work well-being in the resources sector in Indonesia”.

2) To employ a revised research design (i.e., qualitative exploratory study with semi-structured in-depth interviews).

3) In addition to using Potentia HR as a 'gatekeeper', to invite potential participants via the researcher's personal and professional networks and via use of a snowballing method. Contacts will also be made and potential participants recruited via professional expatriate/expatriate spouse groups and events organized by the Australia-Indonesia Business Council.

4) To invite three participant groups to the study: 1) expatriates who work in the resources sector in Indonesia; 2) spouses; 3) HR managers.

Revised participant information materials have been submitted with this variation request.

This decision is subject to ratification at the next meeting of the HREC. However, you are authorised to immediately commence the revised project on this basis. I will only contact you again about this matter if the HREC raises any additional questions or comments about this variation.